

à Louis Génèreux Labadie —
Maître d'École. 1794.

Dr. F. Malhiot —

Perkins 1861 —



THE
QUEBEC MAGAZINE,

OR USEFUL AND ENTERTAINING REPOSITORY OF
SCIENCE, MORALS, HISTORY, POLITICS, &c.
PARTICULARLY ADAPTED FOR THE USE OF BRITISH AMERICA.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN IN QUEBEC.

LE
MAGASIN DE QUEBEC,

OU RECEUIL UTILE ET AMUSANT DE
LITERATURE, HISTOIRE, POLITIQUE, &c. &c.
PARTICULIEREMENT ADAPTE' A L'USAGE DE L'AMERIQUE BRITANNIQUE.
PAR UNE SOCIETE' DE GENS DE LETTRES.

VOL. IV.—From February to August 1794.



RES.

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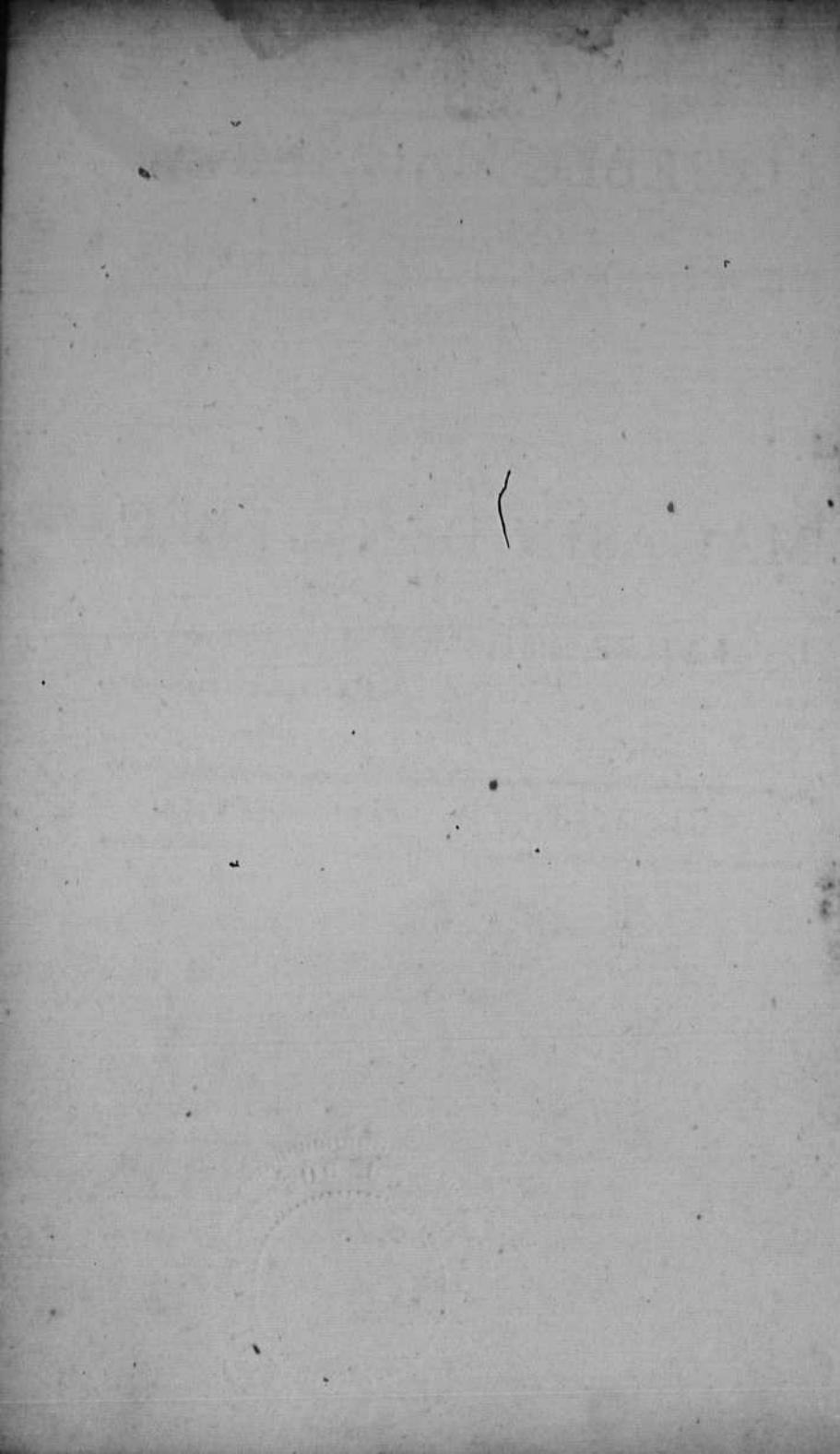
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A Québec: chez Jean Neilson, Imprimeur et Libraire.

M.DCC.XCIV.





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*State of the Barometer in inches and decimals, and of
Farenheit's Thermometer, at Quebec, for the Month
of February 1794.*

Etat du Baromètre en pouces et decimes & du Thermom. de Farenheit en Febr.

<i>Days.</i>	<i>Barometr. IX.</i>	<i>IX. Thermom. III.</i>	<i>Winds. IX.</i>	<i>Weather.</i>
S	1 29.61	9 32	W.	cloudy.
	2 29.84	12 25	W.	clear.
	3 29.84	25 28	W.	ditto.
	4 29.84	13 22	W.	ditto.
	5 30.—	7 15	S. W.	cloudy.
	6 30.46	3 14	W.	clear.
	7 30.13	21 28	E.	snow.
	8 30.13	16 29	S.	cloudy.
S	9 30.13	22 36	S. W.	ditto.
	10 30.13	28 37	S. W.	clear.
	11 29.87	34 40	S.	snow.
	12 29. 8	30 28	W.	clear.
	13 29. 8	10 28	W.	ditto.
	14 29. 8	27 37	W.	cloudy.
	15 29. 6	13 11	W.	clear.
	16 29.77	-5 12	W.	ditto.
S	17 29.77	1 19	W.	ditto.
	18 29.77	7 23	W.	ditto.
	19 29.85	1 15	W.	ditto.
	20 29.85	12 15	E.	some snow.
	21 29. 3	21 24	E.	ditto.
	22 29. 5	20 30	N.W.	ditto.
	23 30.—	10 26	N.W.	clear.
	24 29.32	27 34	E.	snow.
S	25 29.32	26 30	E.	cloudy.
	26 29. 8	5 14	W.	clear.
	27 29. 8	5 29	W.	cloudy.
	28 29. 8	16 32	W.	fine.

N. B. The Barometer and winds observed at 9 o'clock in the morning;
The Thermometer at 9 in the morning and three in the afternoon.

N. B. Le Baromètre et les vents ont été observés à 9 heures du matin.
Le Thermomètre à 9 heures du matin et 3 heures après midi.



THE QUEBEC MAGAZINE

FOR FEBRUARY 1794.



ROMEO and JULIET,

A NOVEL.—(concluded from p. 341, vol 3d.)

YOU know that the tomb of the Cappelletti, your ancestors, is in our cemetery next to the church. I shall give you some powder, which, if you take it, will make you sleep in such a manner for eight and twenty hours, more or less, that any man let him be ever so great a physician, will consider you as quite dead: you will be, without doubt, thought so, and buried in the tomb; and I will come in due time, to take you out of it, keep you in my cell till the time of our convocation, which is held in Mantua, and will be soon, and then, disguised in one of our habits, I will conduct you thither to your husband. But tell me, will you not be afraid of the corpse of your cousin Tibaldo, who was lately buried there? The young lady, now quite joyful, said: Father, if I, through such means, was sure of going to meet Romeo, I would, without fear, even pass through the infernal regions. Well then, said he, since you are so disposed, I am willing to assist you; but, before we do any thing, it seems to me proper, that you should communicate the whole to Romeo in your hand writing, that he, in believing that you are really dead, may not commit some desperate act, as I know his in-expressible love for you. Some of our monks, at my command, go frequently to Mantua, where, as you know, he now resides. Endeavour to give me the letter soon, and I will send it to him by a faithful messenger. Having said this, the good friar (without the aid of whose fraternity, no great enterprize is brought to a happy conclusion) leaving the young lady in the confessional, went to his cell, and immediately returned with a small phial full of powder, saying to her: Take this with you, and at three or four o'clock (1) in the night drink it, dissolved in water; about six it will begin to operate, and our design will certainly succeed. But do not forget to send me the letter you are to write to Romeo, for it is a matter of great importance. Juliet, having taken the powder, joyful-

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(1) According to the old custom of reckoning in Italy: i. e. beginning with the night and ending with the evening.

ly returned to her mother, to whom she said: Friar Lawrence, mother, is really the best confessor in the world; he has given me so much comfort, that I hardly recollect my former sadness. Her mother, rejoicing at hearing of her daughter's content, answered, it is well, my daughter, you also must comfort these poor monks sometimes with our alms; and thus saying they returned home. Juliet, after this confession, was so joyful, that Mr. Anthony and his lady lost all suspicion of her being in love, and imagined, that by some strange melancholy mood she had shed so many tears; and they would willingly have left her quiet, without any farther mention of marrying her; but they had proceeded so far in this matter, that they could not retract without blame. The Count of Lodrone, therefore, desiring that some one might see the young lady, and her mother being rather indisposed, it was determined that she should be accompanied by two of her aunts to the aforementioned villa of her father, which was at a small distance from the city; to which she making no objection, they set off for it. Being arrived there, Juliet, thinking that her father had so unexpectedly sent her thither in order to consign her immediately into the power of the second intended husband, about four o'clock the same night calling her chamber-maid, who had been brought up with her, and whom she considered almost as a sister, desired her to bring some fresh water, saying she was thirsty on account of her supper; which being brought, she put into it the very efficacious powder which the friar had given her, and swallowed it all. Then in the presence of the chamber-maid and one of her aunts, who had sat up with her, said: My father shall not certainly, if I can help it, marry me against my will. The women, who were of a dull apprehension, although they had seen her take the powder, which she said she had put in the water as a refreshment, and heard these words, did not however, understand their meaning, or suspect any thing, but went to sleep. Juliet, put out the light as her chamber-maid was going, but feigning afterwards to be obliged to rise again, got out of bed, and completely dressed herself, and then laid down again, as if she had been on the point of dying, composed herself as well as she could, crossing her hands upon her breast, and was waiting for the effect of the draught, which, in a little more than two hours, rendered her like one dead. In the morning, the sun being ascended far in his career, the young lady was found on her bed, in the situation I have described to you. Some having wished to awaken her, and not being able to succeed, and feeling she was quite cold, the aunt and chamber-maid, recollecting the powder she had taken, and the words she had spoken, and, moreover, seeing she was dressed, and had composed herself in that manner on the bed, thought that without doubt, the powder was a poison, and that she was dead. Upon this the cries and lamentations of the women were very great, especially of the chamber-maid, who often calling her by her name, exclaimed: O dear lady! this is what you said: "my father shall never marry me against my will." You artfully asked me for cold water, which, for my misery, caused your hard death. Wretched me? which shall I first accuse, death or myself? O dear lady, I brought you the cold water, in order to be, alas, thus abandoned by you! I alone have at once caused your's, mine, your father's, and your mother's death. Why did you dying, despise the company of your servant, whom in your life you seemed to love so much? I, who, always willingly lived with you, should

also have willingly accompanied you in death. Saying this, and getting on the bed, she closely embraced the (as she appeared) dead young lady. Mr. Anthony, who was not far off, hearing the noise, ran trembling into his daughter's chamber, and seeing her lying on the bed, and hearing what she had drank and said, although he considered her as dead, yet, for his own satisfaction, sent immediately to Verona for one of his physicians, whom he considered very learned and full of experience; who being arrived, and having seen and felt a little the pulse of the young lady, said, that, on account of the poison she had taken, six hours had elapsed since she had ceased to live; which the sorrowful father hearing, shed abundance of tears. The sad news passing from mouth to mouth, reached in a short time the ears of the unhappy mother, who, abandoned by every vital heat, fell motionless, and coming again to herself, with feminine lamentations, being almost out of her senses, beating herself, and calling by name her beloved daughter, filled the surrounding air with her cries; saying: Are you dead, my dear daughter! thou only comfort of my old age! How could you, cruel, leave me without giving your miserable mother an opportunity of hearing your last words? Had I at least closed your beautiful eyes, and washed your precious body! who could have expected this from you? O dearest ladies, who are here present, help me to die; and if you have any pity, let your hands, sooner than my grief, put an end to my existence. And thou, O great Father of Heaven, since I cannot die as quickly as I wish, let one of your lightnings end my odious life. Some of the ladies raised her up, and placed her on her bed, whilst others tried to comfort her, but she never ceased weeping and complaining. The young lady, being afterwards removed to Verona, was buried in the aforesaid tomb in the cemetery of St. Francis, with very honourable and great obsequies; bewailed by all her relations and friends. Friar Lawrence, in the mean time, had gone a little out of the city to transact some business relative to his convent, and had given Juliet's letter, which was to be sent to Romeo, to a Friar who was going to Mantua, and who, being arrived in that city, and calling two or three times on Romeo, and, unfortunately, never finding him at home, not being willing to deliver it into any other hands but his, still kept it; when Peter, thinking Juliet dead, and not finding Friar Lawrence in Verona, almost in despair, determined to go himself to Romeo, and communicate to him such bad news as he imagined the death of his lady would be to him. Returning, therefore, in the evening to his master's villa out of the city, he walked with such expedition all night towards Mantua, that he arrived there early in the morning, and finding out Romeo, who had not yet received the letter of his lady from the Friar, related to him Juliet's death, whom he had seen buried, and told him what she had done and said before that event. Romeo, upon hearing this, pale as a half dead, drew his sword, and was going to kill himself; but, being prevented by many persons, said: The period of my life at any rate cannot be far off, since the better part of it exists no longer. O my dear Juliet, I alone have been the cause of your death, as I did not come, as I had written to you, to take you away from your father's house. You, not to abandon me, chose rather to die, and shall I, for fear of death, live without you? This shall never be. Saying this he turned to Peter, and gave him a brown garment which he wore, saying, go, my good Peter. He being departed, Romeo shut him-

himself up alone, and as every thing appeared to him less odious than life, he deliberated much on what he was to do; at last, disguising himself in the dress of a peasant, and taking with him a phial of serpent's water, which he had kept for some time in a box, for some other purpose, he put it into his sleeve and set off for Verona; resolved either to lose his life by the hand of Justice, if he should be discovered, or to shut himself up in the tomb with his mistress, and there to expire. Fortune so favoured the latter of his designs, that he entered Verona, without being known, the following night: that his mistress had been buried; and as silence reigned every where, he went to the place of the Minor Friars, where the tomb stood. The church was in the citadel, where these Friars were at that time settled, although afterwards, I know not how, they quitted that situation, and came to reside in the borough of St. Zeno, in the place which is now called St. Bernardino, though it was formerly the residence of St. Francis himself. Near the walls of it, on the outside, were placed some tombs of stone, as we see is the custom in many places contiguous to churches. One of them was the ancient sepulchre of the Cappelletti, in which lay the young lady. Romeo (towards perhaps four o'clock of the night) approached it, and, as he was a man of great strength, raised its covering, and with some pieces of wood, which he had brought with him, propped it up, so as to be able to get in, and closed it after him. The unfortunate youth had carried a dark lanthorn, in order to view a little his mistress; and, as soon as he was in the tomb, opened it. He saw his beautiful Juliet, laying amidst the bones and rags of many dead bodies. Therefore, crying bitterly, he immediately said: Ye eyes, which, as long as it pleased Heaven, were my guiding lights; mouth, which I kissed a thousand times with delight, and from which so many wise words were heard; beautiful breast, which with so much joy gave reception to my heart, where do I now find ye blind, dumb, and cold? How is it, that I, without you, see, speak, and live? O my poor wife, where has love, who commands that a small space shall receive two unfortunate lovers, led you? Alas! my hopes, and that desire, which at first inflamed me with your love, did not promise me this! O my unhappy life, to what end do you still continue to exist? Thus saying, whilst his tears flowed every moment in greater abundance, he kissed her eyes, mouth and breast, exclaiming: Ye walls, which impend over my head, why do ye not fall upon me, to help me to shorten my life? But, as every one is at liberty to die, it is certainly a vile thing to wish for death, and not to embrace it. Upon this, he took out of his sleeve the poisonous water, and then proceeded, saying: I know not what destiny leads me to die in the tomb of my enemies, whom I have put to death; but, since, O my own soul, it pleases us to expire near our mistress, let us now do it; and approaching the deadly water to his mouth, he swallowed it all. After this, ardently embracing the young lady, he said: O charming person, the last object of all my desires, if any sentiment remains with you, after death, or, if your soul sees my cruel end, I pray that it may not be displeased, that I, having not been able to live happily and publicly with you, may at least die with you sadly and in secret: and still more closely embracing her, waited for death. The time when the natural heat of the young lady was to have conquered the cold and powerful effects of the powder was now arrived, and she to awaken; being therefore prest and stired by Ro-

meo,

meo, she awoke in his arms; and, coming to herself, after a deep sigh, said: alas! Where am I? Who embraces me? Miserable me! Who kisses me? And thinking that it might be Friar Lawrence, she cried out, Is it in this manner, Friar, that you keep your faith to Romeo? Is this the way of conducting me safely to him? Romeo, finding her alive, was much astonished; and, remembering, perhaps, the story of Pygmalion, said: Do you not recollect me, my sweet lady? don't you see that I am your sad spouse, who am come here secretly from Mantua to die near you? Juliet, perceiving she was in the tomb, and in the arms of one who said he was Romeo, was exceedingly astonished; and, pushing him a little from her, and looking him in the face, immediately recollected him, and, embracing him, kissed him a thousand times, saying: What madness has induced you to come in here, running into such dangers? Was it not sufficient for you to have been informed by my letters, that I, by the aid of Friar Lawrence, was to feign myself dead, and that I should be shortly with you? The sorrowful youth then, perceiving his great error, exclaimed O my miserable lot, O unfortunate Romeo, most unhappy of all lovers! I did not receive your letters concerning this: and then he told her, that Peter had informed him of her death as a matter of fact, and that he, believing it, had, to bear her company, just taken poison: which, being very acute, he already felt that death crept through all his limbs. The unfortunate young lady was so overcome by grief on hearing this, that she did nothing but tear her beautiful hair, and beat her innocent breast, shedding a shower of tears on Romeo, who now lay extended, and frequently kissing him, and being paler than ashes, and trembling all over, said: Must you then my sweet lord, die in my presence, and on my account? And will Heaven suffer me to live, though for ever so short a time after you? Miserable me! I wish I could sacrifice my life for you, and die alone. To which the youth answered in a faint voice; If ever my fidelity and love were dear to you, my sweet hope, I thereby beg you not to disregard life after my death, if for no other reason, to be able at least to think on him, who, vanquished by your love, dies for your sake before your beautiful eyes. To which the lady answered; Since you die on account of my feigned death, what ought I not to do for your real one? I am only grieved, that I have not here at present some means of dying before you. I hate myself for living so long: but I hope, as I have been the cause of your death, I shall soon bear you company; and, having hardly pronounced these words, she fell down and fainted. Coming afterwards to herself, she miserably received in her beautiful mouth the last sighs of her dear lover, whose death was approaching with great strides. In this interval, Friar Lawrence had been informed of the time and circumstances of the young lady taking the powder, and of her being buried as dead: and knowing that the period, when the efficacy of the powder was to have ceased, had arrived, went to the tomb, perhaps an hour before day break, with one of his faithful companions. On his arrival, hearing that she cried and lamented, and looking through the cracks of the tomb, and seeing a light in it, was much surprised, and thought that the young lady had, by some means or other, carried a light with her, and, that awaking, through the fear of some dead body, or perhaps of being shut up in that place, she wept, and bewailed in that manner. Therefore, having, with his companion's help, immediately opened the tomb, he saw Juliet, discoloured and grieving,

with

with her dead lover's head on her lap: to whom he said, Were you then afraid, my daughter, that I would let you die here? and she, on seeing the Friar, redoubling her tears; said: I fear, on the contrary, that you will take me alive out of this place. I pray you, for God's sake, to go out and shut up the tomb, that I may die here; or give me a knife, that I may, by plunging it into my breast, put an end to my grief. O father! O father! how well did you send the letter! how well shall I be married! and how safely you will conduct me to Romeo! See him here dead in my lap (pointing to him,) and then she related the whole fact. Friar Lawrence, hearing this, was stupified; and seeing the youth was on the very verge of death, crying bitterly, he called him, saying: O Romeo, what dire misfortune deprives me of you? speak to me a little, look on me for a moment. O Romeo, see your dearest Juliet, who begs you to look on her; why don't you, at least, answer her, on whose charming lap you lie? Romeo, on hearing his mistress's dear name, opened a little his languid eyes, which were pressed by his approaching death, and, having seen her, he closed them again. A little while afterwards, death creeping through all his limbs, he twisted himself all over, and ended his life with a short sigh. The miserable lover being dead, as I have related to you, and the young lady shedding abundance of tears, as day was approaching, the Friar said to her: What will you do Juliet? To which she immediately replied; Die here. How so, my daughter, said he, say not so: come out; for, although I do not know at present what to do, yet a holy monastery shall not be wanting to receive you, where you may pray to God for yourself, and your dead consort, if he needs it. To which the lady replied: Father, I ask you only one favour, which, through the affection you bore him (pointing to Romeo) you will readily grant; this is, never to reveal our death, in order that our bodies may always remain together in this tomb; and, if ever it should be known by chance, I again pray you, for the sake of the same affection, that you will beg our unhappy parents, in the name, of us both, not to be displeased to leave in the same tomb two lovers who were inflamed by one fire, and led to death by the same cause. Then, turning to the corpse of Romeo, whose head she had laid on a pillow, which had been left with her, closing his eyes, and bathing his cold face with her tears; said: What can I do in this life without you, my sweet Lord; and what else remains for me to perform, but to die and follow you? Certainly nothing else, as death alone could have separated me from you, the same shall not have the power of dividing us. Having said this, and deeply thinking on her great misfortune, and the death of her dear lover, resolving to live no longer, she drew in her breath, retained it a great while, and then with a loud scream fell dead upon her lover's body. Friar Lawrence, perceiving the young lady to be quite dead, stupified through compassion, did not know what to do; and together with his companion, their hearts being pierced by grief, wept over the dead lovers: when all of a sudden, the officers of the Mayor, who pursued some thief, came to the tomb, and hearing them crying in it, and seeing a light, they all ran to it; and, surrounding the monks, said to them: What do you here, gentlemen, at such an hour? Are you perhaps performing some witchcraft? Friar Lawrence knowing the officers, wished he had rather been dead; notwithstanding, he said to them: Let none of you approach me, as I have nothing to do with you; and if you have any thing

thing to say to me, speak at a distance. Their chief then said: We wish to know why you have thus opened the tomb of the Cappelletti, where the day before yesterday a young lady of theirs was buried? and if I did not know you, Friar Lawrence, to be a man of good character, I should say, that you are come to rob the dead. The Friars putting out the light; replied: Thou shalt not know what we are doing, having no business to be acquainted with it. The other replied: it is true; but I will inform our Prince of it. To which Friar Lawrence, emboldened by despair, replied: Tell it. And, having closed the tomb, retired with his companion into the church. It was almost clear day light when the Friars got rid of the officers; some of which immediately reported the affair of the Friars to the Cappelletti, who, knowing perhaps that Friar Lawrence was a friend to Romeo, immediately repaired to the Sovereign, begging he would by force, if he did not succeed by other means, know from the Friar what he had been doing in the tomb of the Cappelletti? Speak, for we will absolutely know it. To which the Friar answered: Sir, I will readily tell it. I heard confession (while she was living) from the daughter of Mr. Anthony Cappelletti, who died the other day by a strange circumstance; and, as I regarded her much as a young lady of merit, not being able to be present at her funeral, I went to say for her certain prayers, which, being repeated nine times over a dead body, delivers its soul from the torments of purgatory; and as a few persons either know or understand them, the simple vulgar say, that I was gone there to rob the dead. I am certainly not a robber, nor capable of doing such things. This poor habit, and this string, are sufficient for me; nor would I take an atom from all the treasures of the living, much less any of the cloaths of the dead bodies. Those who accuse me in this manner, are very wrong. The Prince would have easily believed all this, had it not been for many monks, who wished Friar Lawrence ill, and who hearing he had been caught in the tomb, went to open it, and finding in it the corpse of the dead lovers, immediately ran with great noise to the Prince, who was still talking to the other Friar, and informed him, that in the tomb of the Cappelletti, in which the Friar had been found the preceding night, Romeo Montecchi lay dead. This caused great wonder, and appeared impossible to every one. But Friar Lawrence hearing it, and finding he was no longer able to conceal what he wished so to do, kneeling before the Prince, said: Forgive me, Sir, if I told you a fallity concerning what I have been asked. I did it neither through malice nor any desire of gain, but to keep my word to two miserable dead lovers: and so he was obliged to relate the whole truth in the presence of many. Bartholomew della Scala, on hearing this, almost shedding tears through pity, wished to see the two dead bodies, and went, accompanied by a great concourse of people, to the tomb; and, ordering the corpses of two lovers to be taken out, commanded them to be placed on two carpets in the church of St. Francis. Their fathers, in the mean time, went to the same church, and, shedding tears over their dead children, doubly penetrated by compassion, though they had been enemies, embraced each other: so that the long enmity between them and their families, which neither the prayers of their friends, the threats of their Prince, detriments received by it, nor time itself, had ever been able to abate, through the unhappy and affecting death of the two lovers, was terminated. And, having ordered a handsome monument, on

which in a few days was engraved the cause of their death, the two dead lovers were buried with very great and solemn funeral pomp; lamented and accompanied by the Prince, their relations, and all the city. Such was the miserable catastrophe of the love of Romeo and Juliet, as you have heard, and as Pèregriño of Verona related to me.

O faithful love, that formerly reignedst in the hearts of women, where art thou fled? In what bosom dost thou dwell? Where is the woman that at present would act, as the faithful Juliet did, towards her dead lover? When will her fair name be celebrated by the most eloquent tongues? How many women are there now, who, on seeing their lovers dead, would hasten to find out others, much sooner than die by their sides. And since I see that some women, even contrary to duty, reason, fidelity and attachment, forget and abandon those lovers who were once very dear to them, not because they are dead, but only on account of their being a little persecuted by fortune, what can we imagine they would do after their death? Miserable are the lovers of our age, who, neither by long and faithful services, nor by dying for their mistresses, can ever hope that they will die for them; on the contrary, they can be certain of being no longer dear to them than they are able to be effectually subservient to their wishes. *Ita. Mercury.*

Institutions Politiques, (*continué de la page 334, v. 3.*)

De l'opulence de l'état en général.

PAR l'opulence de l'état, nous entendons l'abondance de toutes sortes de biens, et la masse totale des richesses qui se trouvent dans un pays à proportion de la grandeur respective.

Il faut faire fleurir l'état et le rendre opulent; c'est le quatrième grand objet de la police intérieure.

L'opulence est la source de tous les avantages qui rendent un peuple heureux; et les exemples d'un peuple pauvre et heureux ne sont aujourd'hui que des spéculations.

Les valeurs idéales deviennent des richesses dans un vaste état.

Il n'y a que les pays opulents qui aient des dettes nationales; mais ces dettes, pour être utiles, doivent avoir des bornes qu'il n'est pas absolument impossible de trouver.

Il faut des revenus publics pour l'entretien de l'état et de ses parties: ces revenus proviennent de deux sources; des domaines et des contributions.

Quelque vaste que soit un état, le département des finances doit être unique, sous la direction d'un seul chef, établi dans la capitale; étendant ses soins jusqu'aux provinces les plus éloignées, jusques aux confins de la domination.

Un bon ministre des finances doit bien connoître l'état et ses besoins, procurer aux sujets toutes les ressources possibles pour vivre dans l'aisance, et pouvoir contribuer aux besoins de l'état; lever les impôts et percevoir les revenus de la manière la plus commode et la moins onéreuse; régir légèrement les domaines, faire un bon emploi, et une juste répartition des de-

niers publics; enfin il doit constater la bonté de son administration par des registres et des comptes exacts de la recette et de la dépense générale de l'état.

L'accroissement de la population, l'augmentation des richesses, l'encouragement de l'agriculture en général, et de toutes les branches particulières, ainsi que de la pêche; l'exploitation des mines, des salines, &c.; l'établissement des manufactures, leur entretien, leur encouragement; la régie générale et particulière des domaines: ce n'est-là qu'une partie des objets du département des finances.

Les impôts sont un article bien délicat et bien difficile dans un grand état qui a beaucoup de besoins.

1°. Une égalité proportionnelle, c'est à-dire, que tous les citoyens, et, s'il est possible, les étrangers qui sont dans l'état, concourent, chacun selon ses facultés et ses richesses, à payer; 2°. que le paiement cause au citoyen le moins de distraction qu'il est possible, et qu'on lui évite toutes sortes de vexations à ce sujet; 3°. que le contribuable puisse acquitter sa quote-part de la manière qui lui est la plus commode, et dans le tems où il est le mieux en état de payer. Voilà trois points qu'on ne doit pas perdre de vue dans l'affiette et la perception des impôts.

Les différentes dénominations que l'on donne en différens pays aux charges publiques, et qui souvent éblouissent le vulgaire, ne séduisent point le vrai financier. Le nom ne fait rien à la chose. Il s'agit de considérer les contributions dans leur généralité, de voir combien le sujet paie à l'état dans chaque pays, et comment il paie. C'est de cet examen que résulte la décision si un peuple est foulé ou non.

Si l'on demande une règle universelle pour déterminer la juste proportion des charges qu'un souverain peut imposer sur les sujets, je crois que la saine politique les fixeroit à vingt-cinq pour cent des revenus d'un chacun. Exiger davantage seroit, à mon avis, le moyen d'énervier la nation; demander moins seroit se priver des ressources nécessaires pour fournir à tous les dépenses de l'état.

Tous les objets de dépenses d'un état, et conséquemment l'emploi des revenus publics, peuvent être réduits à certains chefs,

1°. L'entretien du souverain et de sa maison; ce qui comprend tout ce qui est attaché à la personne.

2°. Les appointemens de toutes les personnes employées de tous les départemens, et généralement de tous ceux que l'on comprend sous l'état civil, et sans lesquels un pays ne sauroit être gouverné.

3°. L'armée et la marine, ou le militaire de terre et de mer; la construction des vaisseaux, et tout ce qu'exige une marine florissante et formidable; l'entretien d'une armée toujours subsistante, et tout ce qu'elle suppose.

4°. Les négociations et l'entretien des ambassadeurs dans les cours étrangères, subsides à payer, &c.

5°. Les fortifications et toutes les places de guerre, qui doivent être bien entretenues et pourvues d'artenaux et de munition de guerre.

6°. Le clergé, en tant qu'il est salarié par le souverain même; les colleges, académies, universités, &c.

7°. L'entretien des bâtimens et édifices publics, maisons et châteaux appartenans au souverain, écoles publiques, salles de spectacles, hôpitaux, maisons de force, jardins et promenades publiques, grands chemins, &c.

8°. Dépenses nécessaires au bon ordre de la société et de la police.

9°. L'administration et l'entretien des domaines.

10. Un fonds pour la guerre ; lorsqu'elle survient, on ne doit pas être pris à l'improviste, et le peuple ne doit pas être tellement chargé d'impôts, en tems de paix ; qu'il ne puisse pas supporter les dépenses extraordinaires de la guerre.

11°. Un fonds pour les pensions et gratifications accidentelles, pour les essais, soit dans l'économie, soit dans les arts, manufactures, navigation, &c. soit pour soulager une ville, un canton, une province qui a souffert excessivement par la guerre, ou d'autres malheurs publics, &c.

12°. Un fonds pour l'acquit des intérêts des dettes de l'état ; la ponctualité de ces paiemens maintient le crédit public.

Quelque vaste que soit un royaume, lorsqu'une fois l'état des finances est bien réglé, le contrôleur-général peut et doit faire une balance exacte de tous les revenus publics et de toutes les dépenses que l'état est obligé de faire. La simple inspection de cette balance le guidera dans toutes les opérations, et le mettra en état de faire face à tout.

Dans l'emploi des revenus publics, il y a une distinction très essentielle à faire entre les dépenses qui restent dans l'état et celles qui en sortent.

C'est un établissement admirable que celui d'une chambre des-comptes, chargée du soin unique de revoir, d'examiner et de vérifier tous les comptes particuliers qui ont du rapport aux finances.

Le mot *manufacture* désigne l'art de donner des formes aux productions naturelles. Un seul pays n'est pas susceptible de toutes les manufactures ; elles ne sont pas toutes avantageuses à l'état. Il y a donc un choix à faire dans l'établissement des fabriques. Il faut consulter le génie des habitans, le climat, les productions du sol, la facilité des débouchés, les moyens de consommation, et autres circonstances qui n'échappent pas à un ministre clairvoyant.

Une industrie toujours agissante, une liberté honnête, des privilèges raisonnables, une administration juste et éclairée ; un emplacement avantageux, une probité inviolable, une concurrence bien établie, toutes choses nécessaires pour faire fleurir les manufactures.

Bonté, variété, bon marché, ce sont les qualités essentielles des ouvrages de l'art, comme des productions de la nature.

Les ressorts qui font mouvoir le commerce, et dont l'assemblage en forme l'essence, consistent, 1°. dans l'exportation des denrées ou productions naturelles de notre pays ; 2°. dans l'importation des denrées que notre terroir ne produit pas, soit pour les besoins absolus de nos sujets même, soit pour les revendre à d'autres peuples, ou plus indolens que nous ; ou hors de portée de se les procurer en droiture ; 3°. dans l'exportation des productions de notre industrie ou de nos manufactures ; 4°. dans l'importation des manufactures étrangères qui nous manquent absolument, soit pour la consommation intérieure du pays, soit pour les fournir à d'autres peuples ; 5°. dans la circulation des métaux précieux de l'or et de l'argent ; 6°. dans le virement des lettres-de-change et autres papiers représentans, dont le cours doit nous être favorable ; 7°. dans la navigation et ses produits ; 8°. dans les assurances.

La balance générale du commerce est la différence du montant des achats que fait une nation au montant de ses ventes au-dehors ; elle est en notre faveur toutes les fois que le montant de nos ventes excède celui de nos achats.

On

On distingue trois objets différens dans la navigation : 1^o. l'occupation qu'elle donne aux gens de mer qui en font métier ; 2^o. la construction des navires qu'il faut considérer comme une fabrique ; 3^o. l'utilité qu'elle procure au commerce par le transport des denrées et des manufactures, transport qui, outre la commodité qu'il donne, devient encore lucratif au peuple qui le fait.

C'est une maxime générale, que tout état qui est à portée d'avoir une navigation, doit y encourager ses sujets par tous les moyens possibles.

Une école de marine est un établissement avantageux, et même nécessaire chez un nation commerçante.

Les puissances maritimes ont des pêches nationales qui servent de pépinière pour la marine.

Of the Law, by which Traders are obliged to proportion the Rate of their Profits to the general Wealth of the Society.

[From an Enquiry into the Principles of Taxation.]

BESIDES the law of justice, on which civil and criminal jurisprudence is founded, and which is necessary, for the existence of society, there is another law, which powerfully restrains the conduct of individual traders, and ought to regulate the conduct of states, as they are employed, in the business of taxation.

The law to which I now refer, so far as I know, has no name. It may be described, as that law of commerce, whose final end is, to diffuse the blessings of prosperity, through every rank of rich society ; and which is accomplished by the reduction of the *real* price of the various articles, which render the life of man more easy and agreeable.

It is obvious to remark, the reduction of the *real* price of commodities, in the progress of society. The savage can scarcely procure a scanty subsistence for himself and family, by all his toil and exertions ; while the civilized citizen, cannot only maintain himself and his family, but with ease, supplies his numerous household, with many articles of accommodation and luxury. This reduction, of the *real* price of commodities, is brought about, by the subdivision of labour, the invention of machines, and the lowering of the profits of stock.

It is not my intention, particularly to point out the manner, in which these circumstances operate this important effect. I shall suppose my readers, to be informed on this subject ;* and content myself with just observing, 1st, That experience soon teaches mankind, that by applying themselves to one occupation, they acquire a dexterity, which enables them to produce an article, with encreasing ease and expedition, and, consequently, to barter it, for a less and less quantity of other things, for which they wish to exchange it. 2^d, That machines have a similar effect. By abridging the labour of those who invent or apply them, they enable workmen to produce more work, in less time, and with less exertion ; and, consequently, to dispose of any quantity of the produce of their labour, thus eased and shortened,

* See Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, Book I.

shortened, for a less quantity of other people's labour, than they could have done, without the assistance of such machines. 3dly, When in consequence of these circumstances, the markets for goods extend; when property accumulates, and capitals increase and multiply, then there are always some traders, who force on business, with a much less rate of profit, than when the market is circumscribed, and capitals are small. In this manner, the real price of articles, is gradually lowered; and the blessings of riches and prosperity, are communicated to the lowest ranks in society, by the very means, which render it rich and thriving.

It is easy, however, to conceive, various ways, in which this diffusion of the blessings of prosperity may in part be prevented.

It may be prevented, (for example) if the rate of the profits of stock were not to fall, but to rise, in the progress of improvement. We can scarce suppose, indeed, that on ordinary occasions, the profits of stock could rise so high as altogether to counteract the effects of the other two sources of improvement; yet, when we consider, through how many hands commodities sometimes pass before they come to the consumer, we shall easily perceive, that a rise in the profits of stock would ever materially retard, if it did not altogether counteract, the effects of the other improvements.

But again, we may suppose, that as a rise in the rate of the profits of stock, might counteract the effect of the first two sources of improvement, so a very high rate of tax would retard, if it could not counteract, the united tendency of all the three. It is true, indeed, that the effects of the improvements we have mentioned, are inconceivably great; but still, when we recollect, that the rate of taxes rise to one, two, and even three hundred *per centum* on the price of some articles, we will allow, that such duties, if they could be levied, would prove an almost unsurmountable hinderance to the circulation of an article through the lower ranks of the people.*

These suppositions are more naturally made, because it seems to have been the uniform will and intention of traders, that the rate of profits should not fall, and of statesmen, that the rate of taxes should rise, in the progress of improvement. We shall slightly trace, how each of them have exerted themselves to attain these purposes; and as we go along, we may remark, with what admirable wisdom and steadiness, nature counteracts the purposes of those, who would defeat her designs.

It is a well established truth, that when wealth accumulates, and more capital is turned, into the same line of business, the competition between rival traders, makes them willing to lower the price of their goods, and to forego part of the rate of their profits, to obtain a ready and quick sale. This circumstance, which seldom fails to take place, in a rich and thriving society, is continually the subject of complaint with traders, and at first sight, appears highly prejudicial to their interests; and yet, experience demonstrates, that this seeming hardship, which the thriving state of society imposes upon

* It may be proper here to observe, that in modern Europe, the money price of many articles has risen, while their real price is much diminished. But though this rise in the money price of commodities, in consequence of the general increase of gold and silver, has no effect on their real price, yet in the case now before us, the keeping up the rate of profit, or levying a heavy tax, would not only raise the money price of an article, but would, at the same time, raise or keep up its real price also.

upon them, is salutary to themselves, while it is pregnant with the richest blessings to society at large. It is true, that if a merchant had been told an hundred years ago, that his successors in trade were to have pursued their profession, with a profit of 10*l.* or 15*l.* instead of 20*l.* or 30*l.* *per cent.* on their capitals, he would have concluded; that the business would be much degenerated; nor could he have believed, that those successors were to be much more opulent than himself. The fact, however, certainly is, as here stated; and it is beyond all controversy, that merchants, trading in large towns, where there is a brisk demand, with large capitals, and a small rate of profit, make fortunes more certainly, and more easily, than in small towns, with less capitals and a higher rate of profit: and among nations at large, the rate of profit is low, in proportion to the general increase and diffusion of wealth.

It is readily admitted, that we could not *a priori* believe, that the lowering the rate of profit could be advantageous to individuals, as well as to the public; but after the fact is well established, we are then enabled to trace its operation. The accumulation of wealth, and capital, induces traders to rival one another in the market. Rivalship forces down the rate of profits, and, consequently, the price of articles, the reduction of price, enables many individuals to purchase articles, who could not otherwise afford them; and thus the lowering the rate of profit goes back to extend the market far beyond what otherwise it would be. But the extension of the market, and the consequent quickness of circulation, is found, in experience, to outweigh the loss occasioned by the reduction of the rate of profit, and hence the prosperity of traders is promoted, in a manner, which at the same time, conveys the blessings of wealth and prosperity to the lowest ranks in society.

But were a trader, in a rich society, not to lower his profit; were he obstinately to keep it up, and consequently, the price of his goods, while others around him were lowering theirs, he must be underfold by his more pliable neighbours, and might be left without a customer, while the demand for his article was increasing perhaps every day.

But though trading individuals are in general rich and thriving, when they are obliged to lower the rate of their profits, with the increased wealth of the society; and tho' they could not exist, as traders, without complying with this law of commerce, yet it is only for fear of others depriving them of the market, that they can be induced to relinquish the excessive profit which otherwise they would enjoy. Merchants have continually represented the falling of the rate of profit as the greatest evil that could happen to a trading nation; and have been continually forming associations to counteract this natural progress of human affairs. Their complaints have very generally been listened to; and the associations founded on them, have not only been encouraged, but formed and protected by all the wisdom and authority of the most powerful governments in modern Europe.

It is not to be denied, that monopolies are often highly beneficial to those who enjoy them, especially when they are moderately used; because by means of them, profits may be kept up, above the common level, to a certain degree. But it is as certain, that when monopolists trust too much to their exclusive privilege, and keep up the profits of their stock, far above the general rate of profit, that the growing demand creates for itself a new channel of supply, more obedient to this law of nature. This channel is the

under-hand dealer, who lured by his own interest, and disregarding the monopoly, supplies a great part of the market, at a more moderate rate; and in spite of every positive law, that can be framed to prevent him. The contraband trade never fails to be carried on; when monopolists continue to keep up an exorbitant rate of profit. They often indeed attempt to destroy it; but their attempts, though very expensive, are seldom or never successful. The smuggler still continues to supply perhaps the greatest part of the market, while the price of the article is kept up: and this circumstance is the remote cause of the decline and fall of most of the exclusive companies which have existed in modern Europe. Thus the rate of profits continually diminishes with the increase of wealth, not only in opposition to the inclinations of single men, but to the most persevering efforts of societies, even when supported by all the influence and power of nations.

But no individual, or trading company, have ever, by their profits, resisted the tendency of nature to reduce the price of goods, half so much as sovereign states have done, by means of their taxes. This has arisen not only from the circumstances which have inadvertently led them to over-tax, but also, from their not seeing the propriety of conforming themselves to the same laws which regulate their subjects; and though they now feel the obligation, and perceive the expediency of conforming to the law of justice, yet they have never once conceived it to be at all necessary or proper for them, in the business of taxation, to pay the least attention to the law which we are now considering, and which regulates individuals, in extracting their private revenues from the general wealth.

Several reasons may be assigned for this inattention. One obviously is, that though individual traders, and the state, are equally entitled to their reward for the services they do to the public, yet they are in very different situations with regard to the exercise of this right.

The trader brings his goods to market, with the uncertainty of finding a purchaser, at the advanced price which he may expect. The sale of his commodity, and consequently his reward, depends upon the willingness of others to purchase; and if they refuse to comply with his terms, he has no power, and indeed it would be unjust to oblige them to pay the full price which he might think proper to demand. But it is otherwise with the state. No person can reside in a country, without receiving all that security and comfort which its laws and government afford. There is a claim of justice, therefore, on every individual, to pay his proportional expence for the blessings of his situation. A person therefore may, with justice, be obliged to pay a tax on the advanced price of a commodity, tho' it would be unjust to force him to give, in the advanced price of a commodity, a higher rate of profit than is common at the time, or than he chuses to bestow. Hence it is, that individual traders, pressed on all hands by competitors, lower the profits of their stock, for the purpose of securing their market. But the state, considered as affording good government and protection, is without a rival; and in laying on, and levying the taxes, necessary for maintaining these blessings, it has very properly considered itself, as without a rival also. In this situation, financiers have acted as every private individual, if in the same situation, would have acted, to increase their revenues, i. e. they have not lowered, but kept up the rate of their profits or taxes. Indeed they have strictly, and uniformly, adhered to this most obvious prin.

principle; and when they wanted money, they have increased the rate of taxes, on consumable commodities, instead of lowering them, which in the progress of society, they ought rather to have done. But,

adly, This conduct, of adding to the rate of taxes, has been persevered in by states, because they thought they had the power of doing so.

The disposition of individual traders, to keep up the rate of their profits, is sufficiently demonstrated in the corporation and monopoly laws, which they have, and are continually endeavouring to establish; and unless they had been forced by rivalry, to submit to that great law of nature, which requires the diffusion of the blessings of prosperity through every rank, it is certain, that they would have imitated the conduct of states, and have at least kept up, if they did not increase, the rate of their profits.*

But though the state, has assuredly no rival, in affording protection and good government, and ought to have no rival in its business of taxation, yet it is equally certain, that by not being forced, by open and avowed rivalry, into submission to the law we are now considering, it has, by raising the rate of its taxes, conjured up to it self, a secret rival in the smuggler, who, though he does every thing to destroy good government, yet, by laying on an inferior tax, to detract the expence of his contraband trade, runs away with the market from the state, who ought exclusively to possess it. It is true indeed, that over-taxing commodities does not ruin states, as exorbitant profits would ruin private individuals, and as they have dissolved monopoly companies: but it is owing to the over tax on consumable commodities, that the market leaves the fair trader, and of consequence the state, and that it is so liberally supplied by the smuggler. It is owing to this, that such enormous sums have been wasted in attempts to prevent smuggling; that morality and good government have not more universally prevailed; and that our revenue laws have assumed a form and a spirit, so different from the genius of the British constitution, as to prevent them from being executed with that alacrity and effect which follow the promulgation of our statutes. To combat these evils, is a matter of the highest importance to the legislature. It has indeed become a separate business, intricate, perplexing, and expensive. But while our financiers continue to act upon the same principles, which have created these evils, the evils themselves will in part remain. For as they are the consequences, they will ever continue appendages to the over tax system.

It is certainly difficult to persuade men, that to increase the rate of taxes, is the worst way of increasing the revenue, more especially after they have been long seduced, by all the intricacies and delusions of the over-tax system. But when they see the ruin which would unavoidably fall upon individuals and companies pursuing a similar conduct, and the property which is universally connected with the opposite practice, this should go far, one would think, to open their eyes, and to direct their future conduct. No statesman ever went out of a place with more reluctance, than traders sometimes feel, when they lower the rate of their profits; and yet, this seeming hardship, which, the thriving state of society imposes upon them, is really salutary to traders themselves, while, by lowering the price of commodities, it is pregnant with the richest blessings to society at large.

* Perhaps the great merchants of Portugal have been successful in doing this.

Songe d'un Anglais, (Continué de la P. 362 Vol. 3.

EN 1791, la Colonie François de saint-Domingue est devenue la proie d'une révolte, et d'une dévastation; trop faciles à prévoir; Lord Ettingham, d'après les ordres qu'il en avoit reçus de sa Majesté, a secouru les Colons de vivres et de vaisseaux; et des remerciemens publics ont été votés par l'Assemblée Nationale de France à Sa Majesté, et à la Nation Britannique.

Au mois de Septembre de la même année, la Roi Très Chrétien a fait notifier à Sa Majesté Britannique, qu'il venait d'accepter la Constitution décrétée par l'Assemblée Nationale. Sa Majesté a répondu par l'expression de nouveaux souhaits pour le Bonheur des parties contractantes, qui venoient de se lier l'une à l'autre sous la foi d'un nouveau serment.

Au mois de Juin 1792, la France a déclaré la guerre à l'Empereur. Le Roi Très-Chrétien a fait et réitéré, par son Ambassadeur, les plus vives instances auprès de S. M. B. pour qu'elle persistât dans ses dispositions amicales, et ne grossît point le nombre des ennemis de la France: S. M. a été remercié par le même Ambassadeur des sentimens d'humanité, de justice et de paix, si bien manifestés dans sa réponse, ainsi que dans la proclamation royale qu'elle avoit publiée en conséquence.

Sûr des dispositions personnelles de S. M., le Roi des François l'a fait prier d'employer ses bons offices, et même l'influence de sa position, pour diminuer le nombre des ennemis de la France, et empêcher qu'aucune assistance leur fut donnée, par ses alliés, directement ou indirectement. L'Ambassadeur François a fait valoir, à l'appui de cette demande, l'équilibre de l'Europe, l'indépendance de divers États, la paix générale menacée et compromise. Sans doute les mêmes sentimens qui avoient déterminé S. M. B. à ne pas s'immiscer dans les affaires intérieures de la France, devoient également la porter à respecter les droits et l'indépendance des autres souverains; et c'est ce qu'elle a positivement et franchement déclaré à cette époque; mais en même tems, elle a non moins positivement offert l'intervention qu'on leur demandait de ses conseils et de ses bons offices, si elle étoit désirée par toutes les parties intéressées. En attendant, S. M. se vouait à la plus stricte neutralité; parmi ses alliés, les plus intimes ont embrassé le même système, et l'ont aussi scrupuleusement observé.

S. M., pénétrée d'affection pour le Roi Très-Chrétien, d'estime pour ses vertus, et d'intérêt pour ses malheurs, n'a pu voir, sans une grande inquiétude, les dangers qu'il avoit courus dans la journée du 20 juin: mais elle a appris en même temps que son courage et sa bonne conscience l'avoient préservé au milieu du péril. Elle a vu bien-tôt les autorités constituées, les communes des villes et des Campagnes, presque tous les corps administratifs, en un mot, soixante et sept départemens, sur quatre vingt trois, environner le trône de leurs loyales adresses; protester de leur fidélité au Monarque François; le remercier de sa fermeté, lui offrir leurs cœurs et leurs bras; dévouer à l'infamie et à l'exécration cette journée funeste; solliciter enfin, au nom de la Constitution et de la Nation, la punition de ceux qui avoient, ou médité, ou exécuté, ou toléré cet attentat. Sa Majesté n'a pas été dans la nécessité pénible de sortir de la route qu'elle s'étoit tracée: elle a, au contraire, pendant quelques instans, espéré, pour la France le retour de cette tranquillité intérieure, que la paix extérieure eut bientôt suivie.

Mal-

Malheureusement cet espoir à été de courte durée; de nouveaux germes de discorde ont été semés; leur développement a été aussi rapide, qu'effrayant: les événemens se sont pressés, les désastres se sont multipliés, et l'Europe a vu éclore la journée du 10 Août.

Tout ce qui, le 21 Juin, avait été la Nation, ne l'a plus été le 11 Août; et ceux qu'à la première époque on avait appelé des rebelles, à la seconde le sont dits le Gouvernement, Municipalités, départemens, Juges de paix, tribunaux, jusqu'à la Constitution; cette Constitution qui, vingt cinq jours auparavant, avait encore été jurée solennellement, tout a disparu avec le Roi.

Alors S. M. B. a dû rappeler son Ambassadeur; elle l'avait envoyé au Roi des Français, et ce Roi était dans les fers: il ne pouvait résider qu'auprès d'un Gouvernement, et telle chose qu'un Gouvernement n'existoit plus en France. Ceux-là même qui la veille du 10 Août, s'étaient unis pour renverser le Trône, le lendemain s'étaient divisés pour en disputer les dépouilles. Dans cette perpétuelle instabilité entre tous les partis qui, depuis trois ans, déchiraient le Royaume, et qui, selon qu'ils étaient vainqueurs, ou vaincus, s'appelaient tour à tour la Nation, et la Faction, à quel signe S. M. pouvait-elle reconnaître ce lui qui avait réellement le droit de s'appeler le peuple Français?

S. M. a témoigné la douleur profonde dont son cœur était affecté par tant de tragiques événemens. Eh! quel cœur assez barbare eût pu s'y montrer insensible? En admettant même qu'on pût balancer entre les deux causes la douleur n'était elle pas partout? Chacun n'avait-il pas ses peines à déplorer? Le sang n'avait-il pas coulé de part et d'autre? En s'efforçant même de croire que les vaincus avaient été agresseurs, n'y avait-il pas eu un tel abus de la victoire, que les guerres les plus féroces, dans les siècles les plus barbares, pouvaient à peine en offrir l'exemple? La France, frappée dans une de ses parties, n'était elle pas menacée dans toutes? Une Nation également brave et loyale, la Suisse entière, n'était il pas dans le deuil; ce deuil n'était il pas celui de l'Europe? Craindre et gémir à cette époque n'était il pas s'unir à tous les sentimens, parler tous les langages?

A l'expression d'une douleur profonde, Sa Majesté a réuni le témoignage d'un intérêt pressant pour le Roi très Chrétien, pour la Royale Famille, pour leur sûreté, pour leur dignité: elle a annoncé l'indignation générale qu'exciterait un attentat dont on voudrait les rendre victimes, elle a fait pressentir qu'un tel événement ferait nécessairement violence à ses dispositions amicales.

Qui osera dire que cette déclaration ne fut pas un devoir pour S. M. quel Roi, quel Peuple, pourvu qu'il soit juste et généreux, peut n'être pas entraîné par le plus vif de tous les intérêts, en voyant tant de probité, tant de courage, tant de vertu, tant de jeunesse et tant de malheur? Quel homme revêtu d'un pouvoir quelconque, peut ne pas se croire obligé de le déployer tout entier pour prévenir une si horrible injustice? Qu'importe le nombre de ceux qui veulent la commettre? Est-ce pour la force contre la faiblesse, ou pour la faiblesse contre la force, qu'il est beau de s'armer? S. M. B. ne craint pas d'en appeler à tous les cœurs Français; elle est bien sûre que même actuellement, la grande majorité applaudirait à sa déclaration. Si les consciences pouvaient se révéler, elle en appellerait à ceux là même qui se montrent les plus acharnés à la perte du Roi Très Chrétien: on

verrait que le probe et infortuné Louis XVI n'a peut-être pas un seul ennemi personnel, et que le Roi n'est haï qu'en haine de la Royauté, par ceux qui ont osé la détruire, qui désespèrent de la remplacer, et qui tremblent de la voir renaitre.

Mais, même au milieu de ces déclarations éventuelles, S. M. a renouvelé ses assurances de paix; et quand elle a permis que son Ambassadeur vît une fois les dépositaires équivoques d'un Gouvernement provisoire, elle l'a chargé de leur déclarer qu'elle persistait à vouloir observer une entière neutralité entre la France, et les Puissances qu'elle combattait.

Les actions ont été conformes aux discours; les Français ont joui, dans les Etats de Sa Majesté, de tous les avantages que leur promettaient les traités: tous y ont été reçus, quelles que fussent leurs opinions et même leurs projets. La sûreté, la liberté, la propriété d'aucun n'y a été violée, ni son industrie entravée. Pour le commerce, pour des approvisionnements en vivres, chevaux, armes, ils ont trouvé toutes les facilités peut être trop; car parmi les armes, il y en a eu d'un genre plus que suspect. Enfin jusqu'à ce moment, le Roi n'a encore rien dit, ni rien fait, à l'égard de la France, en quoi il n'ait parlé, ou agi comme un voisin bon, amical, et même indulgent.

Comment a été payé, de la part du Gouvernement Français, cette conduite de S. M. ?

Tant que Louis XVI a été sur le trône, S. M. a reçu de lui le juste retour qu'elle avait droit d'en attendre. Le Malheureux Louis XVI aimait à compter sur l'affection de S. M.; et peut-être s'est-il reproché, plus d'une fois, la guerre aujourd'hui si funeste au continent Européen, dans laquelle d'imprudents Ministres avaient entraîné sa jeunesse.

Depuis la détention scandaleuse sous laquelle Louis XVI et toute sa famille gémissent depuis quatre mois, il n'est pas d'injure, excepté celle d'une guerre ouverte, qui du moins eût été plus franche, à laquelle le Gouvernement Français ne se soit porté envers S. M.

Son Ambassadeur a été soumis à des refus, à des formes, à une inquisition incompatibles avec le respect dû au caractère de Représentant de S. M.

Ceux de ses sujets qui étaient alors en France, n'ont pas eu la liberté de quitter, quand ils l'ont voulu, une terre où la vie des hommes était livrée à la fureur arbitraire et capricieuse du premier meurtrier, qui souvent même, frappant sans colère et sans objet, se faisait un jeu de l'assassinat.

Il en est qui ont été tenus en chartre privée; il en est qui ont été enlevés la nuit au milieu de leur sommeil, et traînés dans les prisons, lorsque les massacres du 2 Septembre étaient déjà révolus: ils ont réclamé vainement la qualité de sujets de S. M. B.; et ils n'ont dû leur salut qu'au hasard des circonstances.

Deux ont été massacrés.

Des Sociétés entières de sujets Britanniques ont été obligées, pour se dérober à la mort, d'abandonner des maisons qu'elles possédaient en France, qu'elles y avaient acquises, ou construites, de leurs fonds, et dans lesquelles, sous la protection de S. M. B., sous la sauvegarde des traités, au nom de la liberté de conscience, proclamée par la France elle même, elles suivaient paisiblement leurs études, et exerçaient religieusement leur culte.

Des voyageurs Anglais ont été arrêtés, insultés, menacés.

Des femmes ont été mises sous la garde des fusiliers, d'autres dépouillées; il y en a eu qui ont essayé des outrages purs que la mort.

Des

Des propriétaires qui, aux termes des traités, et même de la Constitution Française, pouvaient posséder, acquérir, et contracter en France, ont été rangés parmi ce qu'on appelle les Emigrés, parce qu'ils étaient revenus dans leur patrie originelle, et au sein de leur famille; leurs biens ont été saisis, leurs revenus pris, et le fond mis en vente.

Enfin, ces injures partielles, dont quelques-unes tout-au plus peuvent s'attribuer au hasard, ont été comblées par une injure générale, volontaire et déterminée, la plus sensible au cœur de S. M., puisqu'il s'agit du bonheur de tous ses sujets; la plus criante, puisque, pour la commettre, il a fallu braver toutes les notions du juste et de l'injuste; violer tout ce qui, depuis l'existence des Sociétés, avaient paru sacré, et renverser tout ce que la morale et la raison universelle avaient érigé en loix des nations.

Nobles et fidèles Bretons, c'est à vous que S. M. veut adresser le récit des sollicitudes qui ont agité son cœur, et des dangers dont il a voulu vous préserver. Il faut que vous le sachiez tous: on a formé, on a entrepris, on s'est cru au moment de consommer le projet de mettre toutes nos loix en pièces, d'anéantir cette Constitution, ouvrage fortuné de vos glorieux ancêtres, et qui, depuis un siècle, vous a élevés au premier rang des plus grandes, comme des plus opulentes Nations.

Ceux qui ont profané leurs temples, blasphémé leur Dieu, fait autant de martyrs parmi eux, qu'ils ont vu d'hommes religieux, ceux-là n'ont pu supporter cette élévation et cette pureté d'ame, qui vous font reconnaître, pour premier fondement de votre morale, votre respect et vos devoirs envers la Divinité.

(A Continuer.)

Anecdote of Dr. Goldsmith,

(FROM THE EUROP. MAG.)

WHEN Goldsmith grew into notice as an author, his levees were every morning crowded with people of all descriptions; some from interest; some from friendship; and a congeniality of taste; and others from the vanity of attaching themselves to men of fame, conscious that they have no sources of notoriety in themselves. In this group there was seldom wanting some distressed brother-authors; and amongst those who distinguished themselves for a constancy, were, a man of the name of Purdon, Jack Pilkington, the son of the celebrated Letitia Pilkington, and Dr. Paul, Hifferman, men neither destitute of genius nor scholarship, but, seduced by the love of indolence and pleasure, chose rather to pay the forfeit of those vices (living by meanneſſes and upon charity) than turn their talents to that account which would have ensured them some degree of fame and a certain independence. Pilkington had been a pensioner of Goldsmith's from the latter's first taking root in London. He was a fellow of whim and humour, and gained upon the Doctor's mind by providing for it occasional relaxation from the pursuits of study. He had, however, done something to disoblige the Doctor, and had absented himself for some months; when, one morning, he was much surpris'd at Pilkington bursting into his room in the most extravagant extasies of joy. After enquiring into the cause of this, Pilkington told him the following story:

"My Dear Doctor, you'll excuse the liberty I have taken at thus coming so abruptly into your apartments, particularly after what has happened, where

wherein I confess I was much to blame ; but my joy is too great to be shared by a common acquaintance, and I could not resist running to the man who has been my best and earliest friend and benefactor." Goldsmith, softened by this exordium, begged him to proceed.

" You must know then," continues Pilkington, that amongst the many whims of the D——s or M—— she has got a particular attachment to *white mice* ; she has procured two already, and has been several years looking for two more, and offering large sums of money for them, but without any effect. Hearing of this penchant of her Grace, I requested of a friend who went out to India some years ago, if possible, to procure two for me ; he has been diligent in his commission, and they are now in the River, on board the Earl of Chatham Indiaman, just arrived."

This story was so very gross, that even Goldsmith's credulity could not be at first imposed upon. But Pilkington was prepared for the worst ; he instantly produced his friend's letter, advising of the shipping of the white mice, their size, qualities, &c. which so entirely convinced the Doctor of the fact, that he wished him joy of it, " and hoped that he would avail himself of this lucky circumstance, as the means of securing a future independence."

" Ah !" but said Pilkington, fetching a deep sigh, " here my cruel stars again set in against me ; for though I have got the mice, I want a cage to put them in (for you know there is no presenting such things to a Duchess but in a proper manner) ; and where to raise so much money, I know no more than how to pay off the national debt. " How much will a cage cost ? " said Goldsmith. " About *two guineas*," replied Pilkington. " In truth Jack, then you're out of luck, for I have got but half-a-guinea in the world." " Aye, but my Dear Doctor," continues Pilkington, " you have got a watch, and though I would rather die than propose such an delicacy upon any other occasion than the present, if you could let me have that, I could pawn it across the way for two guineas, and be able to repay you with heart-felt gratitude, in a few days."

This last bait took poor Goldsmith fully on the hook ; he confidently gave him his watch, which he was some months after obliged to take up himself, without hearing any thing more of his friend or the success of his white mice.

The Doctor used to tell this story with some humour, and never without an eulogium on the ingenuity of Pilkington, who could take him in after so many years experience of his shifts and contrivances ; " but how do ye think the fellow served me at last ? Why, Sir, after staying away two years, he came one evening into my chambers half drunk, as I was taking a glass of wine with Topham Beauclerc and General Oglethorpe ; and sitting himself down, with the most intolerable assurance enquired after my health and literary pursuits, as if we were upon the most friendly footing ; " I was at fist," said Goldsmith, " so much ashamed of ever having known such a fellow, that I stifled my resentment, and drew him into a conversation on such topics as I knew he could talk upon, and in which, to do him justice, he acquitted himself very reputably ; when all of a sudden, as if recollecting something, he pulled two papers out of his pocket, which he presented to me with great ceremony, saying, " Here my dear friend, is a quarter of a pound of tea and a half pound of sugar I have brought

brought you, for though it is not in my power at present to pay you the two guineas you so generously lent me, you nor any man else shall ever have it to say that I want gratitude." This was too much, said the Doctor, I could no longer keep in my feelings, but desired him to turn out of my chambers directly, which he very coolly did, taking up his tea and sugar and I never saw him afterwards."

Notice biographique concernant le comte d'Osternann.

SI Pierre Ier., ce créateur de l'empire Russe, ce génie unique dans les Annales du monde, élevé de la poussière aux plus grandes dignités, à la plus haute fortune, des hommes qui n'ont profité de ses grâces que pour en abuser indignement, le hasard lui a conduit un étranger qui lui a rendu des services qui ne lui ont pas coûté si cher, qu'il n'a jamais été obligé de punir, et dont il a toujours applaudi les talens et les vertus. En effet, *Osternann* étoit un de ces ministres comme on en trouve peu, uniquement attaché à la gloire du souverain et au bonheur des peuples. Son père étoit pasteur luthérien à Bockum en Westphalie. Il avoit fait ses études à Jena en Saxe. Un jour qu'il s'étoit enivré dans une partie de plaisir, il eut une querelle avec un de ses camarades qu'il appella en duel et qu'il tua. Cette aventure malheureuse le força de chercher sa sûreté loin de Jena. Il se retira en Hollande et y porta son chagrin et ses remords qui ne le quitterent jamais. Revêtu depuis des premières dignités en Russie, il sollicita auprès du duc de Saxe Eisenach l'abolition du crime et la suppression du procès qui en avoit été la suite. Le duc porté à l'obliger, fit tout ce qu'il put pour lui complaire, et se fit apporter la procédure à Eisenach, où elle est conservée. Toutes les fois que cette malheureuse affaire revenoit à la mémoire d'*Osternann*, même dans un cercle nombreux, il tomboit dans une rêverie dont personne ne pouvoit le tirer.

Il n'y avoit pas deux ans qu'il étoit en Russie qu'il en savoit la langue à fond. Il le prouva dans un procès très-compiqué dont il fit le rapport dans cette langue avec une précision et une netteté étonnantes. Le Czar en fut si satisfait qu'il le plaça dès ce moment dans sa propre chancellerie, et que l'ayant mis plusieurs fois à l'épreuve, il lui confia les affaires les plus secrètes de préférence à ses autres ministres.

Pierre rendit de lui un témoignage bien flatteur. Il dit un jour qu'il n'avoit jamais vu *Osternann* ni chancelier, ni errer, et que lorsqu'il l'avoit chargé de quelques commissions pour les ministres dans les cours étrangères, il en avoit toujours demandé le brouillon en langue russe, afin de vérifier si *Osternann* avoit fait le sens de l'affaire, et qu'il n'avoit jamais rien trouvé à ajouter ni à retrancher.

L'étude particulière qu'il avoit faite de toutes les parties de l'administration, la connoissance qu'il avoit acquise des forces et des besoins de chaque province, une conception prompte, un coup d'œil juste en affaire lui avoient valu les bonnes grâces et la confiance entière de Pierre Ier. qui ne se dirigeoit plus que par ses avis. Ce prince, dans sa dernière maladie, le recommanda hautement à ses proches, comme le seul homme sur la droiture et la sagesse duquel on pouvoit se reposer avec sûreté.

Les lettres trouverent en lui un puissant appui. Le premier service signalé qu'il rendit à la Russie fut la négociation du traité de paix dont il fut chargé

chargé avec la vice chancelier Schafiroff (1711) dans la Moldavie, auprès de la Rivière du Pruth. On peut dire qu'*Ostermann*, en cette occasion, sauva l'armée russe qui étoit à la merci du Grand-Vifir, et qu'il sauva également l'empire et le souverain.

Lorsque le traité de Nystad alloit être conclu (1721) *Ostermann*, déjà conseiller de chancellerie, reçut du Czar 100,000 ducats pour gagner les ministres Suédois et faire passer plus facilement les propositions de paix les plus avantageuses et les plus glorieuses pour la Russie. Connoissant l'économie de son maître et l'indigence des ministres de Suede, il s'arrangea de manière qu'il obtint tout ce qu'il voulut, et remit au Czar 90,000 ducats des 100,000 qu'il lui avoit confiés. Pierre Ier. ne trouvoit pas d'expressions pour le remercier de son habileté et de son désintéressement.

Ostermann fut nommé grand-gouverneur du jeune empereur Pierre II. Il avoit réglé les heures de travail et le genre des études de son élève, qui montrait la plus grande docilité et les plus heureuses dispositions. Il s'étoit rendu également maître de son esprit et de son cœur. Mais bientôt il n'eut plus que le titre de gouverneur. Le jeune prince tomba entre les mains de Dolgoroucky, le plan d'éducation d'*Ostermann* fut abandonné, et les occupations utiles cessèrent entièrement.

A cette époque (1730) on pouvoit déjà démêler les chagrins et les projets d'Elisabeth, qui croyoit qu'on lui avoit fait une injustice en portant Anne sur le trône. Elle en regardoit *Ostermann* comme l'auteur, mais elle nourrissoit sa haine dans le silence.

Ce ministre étoit un des plus fins et des plus adroits qu'on eût vus. Personne ne savoit comme lui se tirer d'un mauvais pas. Quand Menzikoff voulut à toute force devenir duc de Courlande, il eut de fréquentes conférences avec *Ostermann*, qui, après de mûres réflexions, lui dit que la chose étoit faisable, et lui indiqua la marche qu'il falloit tenir. On sait comme Menzikoff se comporta en Courlande.

A son retour il rendit compte de sa conduite à *Ostermann*, qui vit bien que le prince, par son étourderie, avoit à peu près manqué son affaire. *Ostermann* fut très-embarrassé, lorsque Menzikoff lui dit qu'il avoit sondé le terrain, et qu'il étoit sûr d'avoir ce duché, pourvu qu'estai, *Ostermann*, voulût l'aider et appuyer ses prétentions en allant à Mittau. Il étoit difficile de refuser en face un solliciteur aussi ardent et aussi peu raisonnable que Menzikoff. Que fit *Ostermann*? Il garda le lit, il se barbouilla le visage de jus de citrons, appella les médecins et les chirurgiens, et ne sortit de sa chambre que quand il vit cette affaire absolument manquée. Il répéta plusieurs fois cette petite supercherie.

Le duc de Courlande l'avoit réprimandé avec aigreur au milieu de la cour pour s'être opposé à une de ses demandes. *Ostermann* qui ne pouvoit digérer cet affront, resta long-tems enfermé dans sa maison, où il expédioit les affaires. Quelques prières qu'on lui fit, il s'obstina à alléguer un mal de jambes dont il ne pouvoit pas plus rendre compte que les gens de la faculté, offrant au surplus la démission de toutes ses places. Enfin le duc ayant fait les premières avances, *Ostermann* reparut.

Elisabeth trouva enfin le moment d'exercer sa haine et sa vengeance contre ce ministre, dans la révolution qui la mit sur le trône. Elle le relégua à Beresow en Sibirie l'endroit même où Menzikoff avoit été exilé. *Ostermann* y mourut en 1748.

Cet article est extrait des *Anecdotes secrètes de Russie*.

A Description of the Mississippi River.

[By THOMAS HUTCHINS, Esquire.]

THE great length and uncommon depth of this river, and the excessive mudiness and salubrious quality of its waters, after its junction with the Missouri, are very singular.* The direction of the channel is so crooked, that from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a distance which does not exceed 460 miles in a straight line, is about 856 by water. It may be shortened at least 250 miles, by cutting across eight or ten necks of land, some of which are not 30 yards wide. Charlevoix relates that in the year 1742, at Point Coupée, or Cut Point, the river made a great turn, and some Canadians, by deeping the channel of a small brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuosity of the stream was so violent and the soil of so rich and loose a quality that, in a short time, the point was entirely cut through, and travellers saved 14 leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflowings only excepted. The new channel has been since founded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom.

In the spring floods the Mississippi is very high, and the current so strong that with difficulty it can be ascended; but that disadvantage is compensated by eddies or counter-currents, which always run in the bends close to the banks of the river with nearly equal velocity against the stream, and assist the ascending boats. The current at this season descends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faster than two miles, but it is rapid in such parts of the river as have clusters of islands, shoals and sand-banks. The circumference of many of these shoals being several miles, the voyage is longer, and in some parts more dangerous than in the spring. The merchandize necessary for the commerce of the upper settlements on or near the Mississippi, is conveyed in the spring and autumn in bateaux rowed by 18 or 20 men, and carrying about 40 tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois, the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of islands, some of which are of great extent, intersperse that mighty river. Its depth increases as you ascend it. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Iberville, never return within them again. These singularities distinguish it from every other river in the known world. Below New Orleans the land begins to be very low on both sides of the river across the country, and gradually declines as it approaches nearer the sea. This point of land which in the treaty of peace in 1762, is mistaken for an island, is to all appearance of no long date; for in digging ever so little below the surface, you find water, and great quantities of trees. The many beeches and breakers, as well as inlets, which arose out of the channel within the last half century, at the several mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninsula was wholly formed in the same manner. And it is certain that when La Salle

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* In a half pint tumbler of this water, has been found a sediment of two inches of slime. It is, notwithstanding extremely wholesome and well tasted, and very cool in the hottest seasons of the year; the rowers, who are then employed, drink of it when they are in the strongest perspiration; and never receive any bad effects from it. The inhabitants of New Orleans use no other water than that of the river, which, by keeping in jars, becomes perfectly clear.

sailed down the Mississippi to the sea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at present.

The nearer you approach to the sea, this truth becomes more striking. The bars that cross most of these small channels, opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the streams; one of which stopped by its roots or branches, in a shallow part, is sufficient to obstruct the passage of thousands more, and to fix them at the same place. Such collections of trees are daily seen between the Balize and the Missouri, which singly would supply the largest city in Europe, with fuel for several years. No human force being sufficient for removing them, the mud carried down by the river serves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In less than ten years time, canes and shrubs grow on them, and form points and islands, which forcibly shift the bed of the river.

Nothing can be asserted, with certainty respecting its length. Its source is not known, but supposed to be upwards of 3000 miles from the sea as the river runs. We only know, that from St. Anthony's falls, it glides with a pleasant clear stream, and becomes comparatively narrow before its junction with the Missouri, the muddy waters of which immediately discolour the lower part of the river to the sea. Its rapidity, breadth, and peculiarities then begin to give it the majestic appearance of the Missouri, which affords a more extensive navigation, and is a longer, broader and deeper river than the Mississippi. It has been ascended by French traders about twelve or thirteen hundred miles, and from the depth of water, and breadth of the river at this distance, it appeared to be navigable many miles further.

From the Missouri river to nearly opposite the Ohio, the western bank of the Mississippi is (some few places excepted) higher than the eastern. From Mine au fer to the Ibberville, the eastern bank is higher than the western, on which there is not a single discernible rising or eminence, the distance of 750 miles. From the Ibberville to the sea, there are no eminences on either side, though the eastern bank appears rather the higher of the two, as far as the English turn. Thence the banks gradually diminish in height to the mouths of the river, where they are not two or three feet higher than the common surface of the water.

The slime which the annual floods of the river Mississippi leave on the surface of the adjacent shores may be compared with that of the Nile, which deposits a similar manure, and for many centuries past has insured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks shall have been cultivated as the excellency its soil and temperature of the climate deserve, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth and power of America will, at some future period, depend, and perhaps center upon the Mississippi. This also resembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all issuing into a sea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounden the North and South by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican bay is by North and South America. The smaller mouths of this river might be easily stopped up, by means of those floating trees with which the river during the floods is always covered. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep as well as the bar.

An objection has been often made by misinformed men, otherwise of great abilities, who too credulously believed that the navigation of the Mississippi river, on account of its rapid current, was more difficult than it is in reality. It appears from the calculation made by several skillful and experienced travellers, that in the autumn when the waters are low, the current descends at the rate of about one and a half or two miles in an hour; and that the waters are in this state more than one half of the year. In the spring when the freshes are up, or at their greatest height, the current runs at the rate of five or six miles. It is true that the navigation would be difficult at that season, to those who sail or row up against the stream: but there is no example of such folly. When the waters of this river are high, the commodities and produce of the interior country are gathered and prepared for exportation with the descending current. And when the waters are low, the produce of the interior country is growing to maturity. This is the time for the navigator's importation. Great advantages are likewise taken then from eddy currents. At present there are few builders skilful enough to construct vessels better calculated for that navigation, than those already mentioned. Time and experience will doubtless produce improvements, and render the navigation of this river nearly as cheap as any other. But that the Mississippi can answer every purpose of trade and commerce, is proved to a demonstration, by the rapid progress the French, German, and Acadian inhabitants on that river, have made. They have attained a state of opulence never before so soon acquired in any new country. And this was effected under all the discouragements of an indolent and rapacious government. It may be further asserted, that no country in North-America or perhaps in the universe, exceeds the neighborhood of the Mississippi in fertility of soil and temperature of climate. Both sides of this river are truly remarkable for the very great diversity and luxuriance of their productions. They might probably be brought, from the favorableness of the climate, to produce two annual crops of Indian corn as well as rice, and with little cultivation would furnish grain of every kind in the greatest abundance. But this value is not confined to the fertility and immensity of champaign lands; their timber is as fine as any in the world, and the quantities of live and other oak, ash, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypress, and cedar, are astonishing. The neighbourhood of the Mississippi, besides, furnishes the richest fruits in great varieties, particularly grapes, oranges, and lemons in the highest perfection. It produces silk, cotton, saffrass, saffron and rhubarb; is peculiarly adapted for hemp and flax, and in goodness of tobacco equals the Brazils; and indigo is at present a staple commodity, which commonly yields the planter from three to four cuttings. In a word, whatever is rich or rare in the most desirable climates in Europe, seems natural to such a degree on the Mississippi, that France, though she sent few or no emigrants into Louisiana but decayed soldiers, or persons in indigent circumstances, (and those very poorly supplied with the implements of husbandry) soon began to dread a rival in her colony, particularly in the cultivation of vines, from which she prohibited the colonists under a very heavy penalty; yet soil and situation triumphed over all political restraints, and the adventurers, at the end of the war in 1762, were very little inferior to the most ancient settlements of America in all the modern refinements of luxury.

The Mississippi furnishes in great plenty several sorts of fish, particularly perch, pike, sturgeon, eel, and catfish of a monstrous size. Craw-fish abound in this country; they are in every part of the earth, and when the inhabitants chuse a dish of them, they send to their gardens where they have a small pond dug for that purpose, and are sure of getting as many as they have occasion for. A dish of shrimps is as easily procured: by hanging a small canvass bag with a bit of meat in it to the bank of the river, and letting it drop a little below the surface of the water, in a few hours a sufficient quantity will have got into the bag. Shrimps are found in the Mississippi as far as the Natchez, 348 miles from the sea.

Sur les Crétiens, race abâtardie de l'espèce humaine dans les Alpes; par M. Ackerman. docteur en médecine.

ON trouve, dans les vallées des Alpes de la Suisse, du Val de Saïnt et de la Savoie, une race d'hommes qui, par la difformité du corps et par la foiblesse de leurs facultés intellectuelles, paroissent même inférieurs aux brutes. C'est particulièrement entre *Aigle* et *Martinach* qu'on les rencontre le plus souvent, et l'on ne peut guere s'empêcher de reculer à d'effroi leur aspect hideux. Sans parler de la disproportion de leurs membres, ils ont la couleur d'un jaune sale, des goîtres énormes; et un air hébété approchant de l'aliénation d'esprit. Dépourvus de la faculté de former des sons articulés, ils ne s'expriment que par des hurlemens bruyans ou par des cris plaintifs, dont les accens prouvent une extrême irritabilité qui n'est tempérée par aucune réflexion. La cause de cet état malheureux se trouve, selon l'auteur, dans l'appâtissement de la partie postérieure de la tête; qui comprime le cerveau, déplace les faisceaux des nerfs, embarrasse leurs fonctions, et empêche même la libre circulation du sang. Une construction aussi défectueuse de la tête est assurément très-capable d'influer sur tout le système organique; mais d'où provient-elle? Est-ce une maladie héréditaire ou une dépravation accidentelle du tempérament? C'est ce que l'auteur explique d'un manière très-plausible.

Deux faits avérés prouvent que ce n'est pas un mal héréditaire: les enfans d'un pere et d'une mere sains en sont atteints dès qu'ils sont nés et élevés dans ces vallées, et l'on peut en garantir les enfans des *Crétiens*, en les transportant ailleurs dès la naissance. Ce n'est donc qu'au local seul qu'il faut attribuer cette conformation vicieuse des habitans, et l'auteur en trouve la cause dans l'extrême humidité de l'atmosphère dans ces vallons, et dans un relâchement des fibres qui en est la suite.

Ce relâchement occasionne d'abord une digestion imparfaite, d'où il entre dans les sucs nutritifs une quantité de particules crues de l'acide végétal et animal, qui agit sur la substance calcaire des os en les amollissant. Cet effet s'étendant aux parties solides de la tête, on conçoit aisément comment le crâne s'applatit et diminue de capacité, au point de comprimer le cerveau et d'en déranger les fonctions. La stupidité de l'esprit et la difformité du corps dérivent donc d'une même origine, c'est à-dire, de l'action de l'acide végétal et animal sur les parties solides du corps. Et l'on voit ainsi une grande affinité entre le *crétinisme* et le *rachitis* que *Boerhaave* attribue à la même-

même cause. En effet, ces deux maladies ne paroissent différer que par le degré, et comme le crétinisme prend son origine dans l'humidité des vallées, l'autre maladie est aussi beaucoup plus commune dans les rez-de-chaussées et dans les souterrains des villes, que dans les habitations élevées et aérées.

Voilà à-peu près les principes du système de M. Ackerman, qu'il appuie sur des preuves que lui ont fournies les nombreuses découvertes sur l'économie animale dont notre siècle peut se vanter, et dont on doit la plus grande partie aux progrès de la chimie. Ses raisonnemens tirent aussi beaucoup de force de l'expérience, puisqu'il est avéré que la maladie qu'il appelle *crétinisme* est la plus commune dans les creux des vallées, et diminue à mesure qu'on approche d'un terrain plus élevé. Notre auteur avoit ignoré que le crétinisme se rencontre quelque fois hors de la Suisse; mais le rédacteur de l'article du *Journal littéraire* de Salzbourg, qui rend compte de cet ouvrage, assure qu'on voit des exemples de la même maladie dans les creux des montagnes du Tyrol et de la Carinthie; comme le principe de notre auteur paroît assez démontré, on devoit bien s'attendre à voir par-tout la même cause produire les mêmes effets.

The Influence of Imagination on Human Character and Happiness.

[From Stuart's Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind.]

HITHERTO we have considered the power of imagination chiefly as it is connected with the Fine Arts. But it deserves our attention still more, on account of its extensive influence on human character and happiness.

The lower animals, as far as we are able to judge, are entirely occupied with the objects of their present perceptions: and the case is nearly the same with the inferior orders of our own species. One of the principal effects which a liberal education produces on the mind, is to accustom us to withdraw our attention from the objects of sense, and to direct it, at pleasure, to those intellectual combinations which delight the imagination. Even, however, among men of cultivated understandings, this faculty is possessed in very unequal degrees by different individuals; and these differences (whether resulting from original constitution or from early education) lay the foundation of some striking varieties in human character.

What we commonly call sensibility, depends, in a great measure, on the power of imagination. Point out to two men, any object of distress;—a man, for example, reduced by misfortune from easy circumstances to indigence. The one feels merely in proportion to what he perceives by his senses. The other follows, in imagination, the unfortunate man to his dwelling, and partakes with him and his family in their domestic distresses. He listens to their conversation, while they recal to remembrance the flattering prospects which they once indulged; the circle of friends they had been forced to leave; the liberal plans of education which were begun and interrupted, and pictures out to himself all the various resources which delicacy and pride suggest, to conceal poverty from the world. As he proceeds in the painting, his sensibility increases, and he weeps, not for what he sees, but for what he imagines. It will be said, that it was his sensibility which originally roused his imagination: and the observation is undoubtedly

edly true; but it is equally evident, on the other hand, that the warmth of his imagination increases and prolongs his sensibility.

This is beautifully illustrated in the *Sentimental Journey* of Sterne. While engaged in a train of reflections on the state prisons in France, the accidental sight of a starling in a cage suggests to him the idea of a captive in his dungeon. He indulges his imagination, "and looks through the twilight of the grated door to take the picture."

"I beheld," (says he,) "his body half-wasted away with long expectation and confinement, and felt what kind of sickness of the heart it is, which arises from hope deferred: Upon looking nearer, I saw him pale and feverish: in thirty years the western breeze had not once fanned his blood: he had seen no sun, no moon, in all that time, nor had the voice of friend or kinsman breathed through his lattice.—His children—But here my heart began to bleed, and I was forced to go on with another part of the portrait."

"He was sitting upon the ground, in the farthest corner of his dungeon, on a little straw, which was alternately his chair and bed; a little calendar of small sticks was laid at the head, notched all over with the dismal days and nights he had passed there:—he had one of these little sticks in his hand, and with a rusty nail he was etching another day of misery to add to the heap. As I darkened the little light he had, he lifted up a hopeless eye towards the door, then cast it down—shook his head, and went on with his work of affliction."

The foregoing observations may account, in part, for the effect which exhibitions of fictitious distress produce on some persons who do not discover much sensibility to the distresses of real life. In a Novel, or a Tragedy, the picture is completely finished in all its parts; and we are made acquainted, not only with every circumstance on which the distress turns, but with the sentiments and feelings of every character with respect to his situation. In real life, we see, in general, only detached scenes of the Tragedy; and the impression is slight, unless imagination finishes the characters, and supplies the incidents that are wanting.

It is not only to scenes of distress that imagination increases our sensibility. It gives us a double share in the prosperity of others, and enables us to partake, with a more lively interest, in every fortunate incident that occurs either to individuals or to communities. Even from the productions of the earth, and the vicissitudes of the year, it carries forward our thoughts to the enjoyments they bring to the sensitive creation, and, by interesting our benevolent affections in the scenes we behold, lends a new charm to the beauties of nature.

I have often been inclined to think, that the apparent coldness and selfishness of mankind may be traced, in a great measure, to a want of attention and a want of imagination. In the case of misfortunes which happen to ourselves, or to our near connexions, neither of these powers is necessary to make us acquainted with our situation; so that we feel, of necessity, the correspondent emotions. But without an uncommon degree of both, it is impossible for any man to comprehend completely the situation of his neighbour, or to have an idea of a great part of the distress which exists in the world. If we feel therefore more for ourselves than for others, the difference is to be ascribed, at least partly, to this; that, in the former case, the facts which are the foundation of our feelings, are more fully before us, than they possibly can be in the latter.

In order to prevent misapprehensions of my meaning, it is necessary for me to add, that I do not mean to deny that it is a law of our nature, in cases in which there is an interference between our own interest and that of other men, to give a certain degree of preference to ourselves; even supposing our neighbour's situation to be as completely known to us as our own. I only affirm, that, where this preference becomes blameable and unjust, the effect is to be accounted for partly in the way I mentioned.* One striking proof of this is, the powerful emotions which may be occasionally excited in the minds of the most callous, when the attention has once been fixed, and the imagination awakened, by eloquent and circumstantial and pathetic description.

A very amiable and profound moralist, in the account which he has given of the origin of our sense of justice, has, I think, drawn a less pleasing picture of the natural constitution of the human mind, than is agreeable to truth. "To disturb," (says he,) "the happiness of our neighbour, merely because it stands in the way of our own; to take from him what is of real use to him, merely because it may be of equal or of more use to us; or, to indulge, in this manner, at the expence of other people, the natural preference which every man has for his own happiness above that of other people, is what no impartial spectator can go along with. Every man is, no doubt, first, and principally recommended to his own care; and as he is fitter to take care of himself than of any other person, it is fit and right that it should be so. Every man, therefore, is much more deeply interested in whatever immediately concerns himself, than in what concerns any other man: and to hear, perhaps, of the death of another person with whom we have no particular connexion, will give us less concern, will spoil our stomach, or break our rest, much less than a very insignificant disaster which has befallen ourselves. But though the ruin of our neighbour may affect us much less than a very small misfortune of our own, we must not ruin him to prevent that small misfortune, nor even to prevent our own ruin. We must here, as in all other cases, view ourselves, not so much according to that light in which we may naturally appear to ourselves, as according to that in which we naturally appear to others. Though every man may, according to the proverb, be the whole world to himself, to the rest of mankind he is a most insignificant part of it. Though his own happiness may be of more importance to him than that of all the world besides, to every other person it is of no more consequence than that of any other man. Though it may be true, therefore, that every individual, in his own breast, naturally prefers himself to all mankind, yet he dares not look mankind in the face, and avow that he acts according to this principle. He feels that, in this preference they can never go along with him, and that how natural soever it may be to him, it must always appear excessive and extravagant to them. When he views himself in the light in which he is conscious that others will view him, he feels that to them he is but one of the multitude, in no respect better than any other in it. If he would act so as that the impartial spectator may enter into the principles of his conduct, which is what of all things he has the greatest desire to do, he must, upon this, as upon all other occasions, humble the

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* I say partly; for habits of inattention to the situation of other men, undoubtedly produce some defect in the social affections.

arrogance of his self-love, and bring it down to something which other men can go along with."

I am ready to acknowledge, that there is much truth in this passage; and that a prudential regard to the opinion of others, might teach a man of good sense, without the aid of more amiable motives, to conceal his unreasonable partialities in favour of himself, and to agreeably to what he conceives to be the sentiments of impartial spectators. But I cannot help thinking, that the fact is much too strongly stated with respect to the natural partiality of self-love, supposing the situation of our neighbours to be as completely presented to our view, as our own must of necessity be. When the Orator, wishes to combat the selfish passions of his audience, and to rouse them to a sense of what they owe to mankind; what mode of persuasion does nature dictate to him? Is it to remind them of the importance of the good opinion of the world, and of the necessity, in order to obtain it, of accommodating their conduct to the sentiments of others, rather than to their own feelings? Such considerations undoubtedly might, with some men, produce a certain effect; and might lead them to assume the appearance of virtue; but they would never excite a sentiment of indignation at the thought of injustice, or a sudden and involuntary burst of disinterested affection. If the Orator can only succeed in fixing their attention to facts, and in bringing these facts home to their imagination by the power of his eloquence, he has completely attained his object. No sooner are the facts apprehended, than the benevolent principles of our nature display themselves in all their beauty. The most cautious and timid lose, for a moment, all thought of themselves and despising every consideration of prudence or of safety, become wholly engrossed with the fortunes of others.

Many other facts, which are commonly alledged as proofs of the original selfishness of mankind, may be explained, in part, in a similar way; and may be traced to habits of inattention, or to a want of imagination, arising, probably, from some fault in early education.

What has now been remarked with respect to the social principles, may be applied to all our other passions, excepting those which take their rise from the body. They are commonly strong in proportion to the warmth and vigor of the imagination.

It is, however, extremely curious, that when an imagination, which is naturally phlegmatic, or which, like those of the vulgar, has little activity from a want of culture, is fairly ~~confronted~~ ^{presented} with the descriptions of the Orator or of the Poet, it is more apt to produce the violence of enthusiasm, than in minds of a superior order. By giving this faculty occasional exercise, we acquire a great degree of command over it. As we can withdraw the attention at pleasure from objects of sense, and transport ourselves into a world of our own, so, when we wish to moderate our enthusiasm, we can dismiss the objects of imagination, and return to our ordinary perceptions and occupations. But in a mind to which these intellectual visions are not familiar, and which borrows them completely from the genius of an other, imagination, when once excited, becomes perfectly ungovernable, and produces something like a temporary insanity. Hence the wonderful effects of popular eloquence on the lower orders; effects which are much more remarkable than what it ever produces on men of education.

Exposition des Principes d'où découle la propriété qu'ont les pointes pour recevoir et émettre à de grandes distances la mat. ere électrique. Causes qui peuvent concourir à établir des différences remarquables dans leurs distances explosives par M. CHAFFE.

AVANT que de parvenir à l'exposition des principes que je viens d'énoncer, considérons la manière d'agir du fluide électrique.

1°. Lorsque dégagé des matières en communication avec le réservoir commun, il se répand uniformément dans l'atmosphère,

2°. Lorsque déterminant son action sur un corps, il arrive à distance explosive (état où il fait effort pour franchir l'espace qui l'enchaîne)

Un corps dans l'état de électrisation, est toujours sur investi d'une atmosphère qui tient à une cause repulsive, de la part des globules électriques, et à la propriété indifférente, dont jouissent les molécules qui constituent l'air.

Cette atmosphère affecte la forme du corps dont elle émane, elle circonscrit également un corps sphérique de matière homogène, toutefois s'il ne présente à la surface aucunes aspérités propres à favoriser la dissipation des molécules électriques.

Elle devient irrégulière, si le corps offre des angles et des rugosités peu propres à les retenir. (On peut la rendre visible dans l'air calme en excitant une fumée de résine sèche fondue dans une cuiller à café, sous le corps électrisé; car elle en sera attirée, et s'étendra d'elle-même de manière à couvrir le corps).

Malgré la difficulté qu'éprouve notre fluide à traverser l'air, il s'y insinue, le pénètre sensiblement, soit en écartant les molécules qui s'opposent à son passage ou en glissant à leur surface, soit en exerçant une pression de proche en proche sur les globules électriques qui lui sont propres.

Quoi qu'il en soit, l'on peut considérer toute atmosphère électrique, comme une portion d'air dont chacune des molécules s'oppose constamment à la dissipation du fluide électrique, tandis que ces dernières exerçant entr'elles leur vertu repulsive, cherchent par de vains efforts à se raréfier.

Si un corps déseigné est soumis tout-à-coup à l'action de la matière électrique, alors les molécules dispersées en tous sens s'approchent, se réunissent, forment une multitude de petits rayons qui, obéissant au principe de l'attraction, tendent par la voie la plus courte vers le corps qui les attire, leur mouvement naturel doit donc être rectifié.

Le choc électrique, ou la distance explosive, est aisé à comprendre par les vérités que je viens d'exposer et par celles qu'on peut tirer des considérations subséquentes, qui sont, que toute atmosphère électrique est composée d'air électrisé; et que la densité électrique de toutes ces atmosphères croît à mesure que la distance du corps chargé décroît; car un corps électrisé devient capable de décharger son électricité avec explosion sur un corps conducteur, lorsque la densité de l'atmosphère électrique est telle, qu'elle ne permet pas l'interposition des molécules de l'air dans une ligne déterminée. C'est à la faveur de la contiguité parfaite des globules électriques, qu'un corps peut se décharger subitement de son fluide excédent; ainsi le choc électrique n'est dû qu'au rapprochement subit des molécules électriques, qui forment une suite de globules non interrompue, deviennent une conducteur de la charge électrique.

En partant de ces considérations, savoir, que toute atmosphère électrique est composé d'air électrisé qui s'oppose puissamment à la dissipation des molécules de notre fluide, et que la densité électrique des atmosphères décroît quand la distance du corps chargé augmente, il sera de même tout aussi facile de concevoir, pourquoi des corps conducteurs terminés par des pointes bien saillantes s'empareront du fluide électrique ou s'en déchargeront avec beaucoup plus de facilité que des corps d'une autre forme.

Supposons qu'un corps sphérique armé d'une pointe très-aiguë soit isolé et électrisé en plus, si cette pointe est d'une telle longueur qu'elle puisse avoir son extrémité en dehors de la partie la plus dense de l'atmosphère positive du corps, et que cette atmosphère diminue par degré, il est clair que la résistance opposée à la pointe par l'atmosphère positive sera très petite; donc l'électricité surabondante du corps électrisé en plus, s'en élancera en bien plus grande quantité par la pointe où la résistance est très petite, qu'elle ne s'en élancera par aucunes parties quelconques non saillantes du corps, où la résistance doit être plus grande, en raison d'une atmosphère électrique beaucoup plus intense.

Supposons maintenant que le corps soit électrisé négativement. Si la pointe communiquant à ce corps est de longueur à avoir l'extrémité hors de la partie la plus dense de l'atmosphère négative, laquelle atmosphère décroît par degrés en densité, alors la quantité d'électricité en moins contenue dans la pointe étant extrêmement petite, sur-tout à son sommet, on conçoit que la partie dense de l'atmosphère négative autour de la pointe sera très-foible.

Conséquemment la résistance de la pointe opposée par l'atmosphère négative à l'entrée de l'électricité dans le corps négatif, sera aussi extrêmement petite; donc l'électricité de la masse d'air qui tend constamment à suppléer au défaut de l'électricité dans ce corps électrisé en moins, y passera en beaucoup plus grande quantité par la pointe où la résistance est fort petite, qu'elle pourra le faire par toute autre partie non saillante de ce corps, où la résistance est nécessairement considérable.

Rien dans cette théorie qui ne soit conforme à l'opinion reçue, que la pointe à la même aptitude et pour recevoir et pour émettre le fluide électrique.

D'où vient donc la différence remarquable observée dans plusieurs expériences décisives: cette différence qui ne paroît avoir lieu que pour les distances explosives, tient à des causes qui me semblent faciles à apercevoir.

Le fluide électrique accumulé sur un corps y est sur-tout retenu par la pression du milieu ambiant; pour parvenir à un autre qui n'est pas contigu, il faut donc qu'il surmonte la pression de ce milieu, toujours proportionnelle à la grandeur de la colonne à déplacer; cette résistance doit donc diminuer à mesure que le corps devient plus exigu.

Lorsqu'un système électrisé en plus est armé d'une pointe, la décharge explosive est provoquée avec d'autant plus d'énergie et à une distance d'autant plus considérable que la pointe est plus aigüe, et que le corps soumis à son action déploie plus simultanément son attraction.

La résistance du milieu à traverser décroît donc à mesure que le jet électrique devient plus exigu, tandis que la force expansive de ses globules augmente en raison de leur condensation.

Ces vérités établies, on n'a pas de peine à concevoir la manière d'agir de notre fluide, lorsqu'accumulé sur un corps, la force expansive de ses molécules

bules se déploie subitement à l'extrémité d'une pointe qui y communique.

Rappelons-nous qu'un rayon électrique tel tenu qu'il soit devient bon conducteur, toutefois si les globules qui le composent sont parfaitement contigues les unes aux autres.

Ainsi la décharge explosive doit avoir lieu aussi-tôt que la force expansive permet à la file des molécules électriques de surmonter la pression de l'air ambiant. Or, comme cette force expansive augmente en raison du peu de surface qu'elle présente, et que cette surface est relative à l'ouverture du canal d'où elles débouchent; il est clair que la pointe favorise d'autant plus puissamment l'émission de la charge électrique, que cette pointe lui offre un passage plus étroit.

Il n'en est point ainsi à l'égard d'un système négatif dont la pointe est en opposition avec la surface d'un corps sphérique.

Cette surface peut être considérée comme un faisceau de petits canaux à travers lesquels s'échappe simultanément la matière électrique pour converger en un point commun.

Or, cette multitude de petits rayons partage nécessairement la force expansive et nécessite une action plus grande de la part du système électrisé, à raison de la résistance du milieu à traverser, laquelle résistance augmente à mesure que le diamètre du jet électrique devient plus considérable. Ainsi une pointe communiquant à un système négatif transmet une explosion à une distance moins grande que celle à laquelle elle peut la recevoir, lorsqu'elle communique à un système positif.

Political Constitution of the Athenians.

[From 'Philosophical Dissertations on the Greeks.' By M. de PAUW. Printed in 1793.]

TO determine under what form of government man has performed the greatest things, is of all researches the most important.

Yet this question is not more interesting than easy to be solved; since Athens and Rome, the two towers of the known world most illustrious in this point, were both the one and the other democratical or popular states. The art of war, institutions of peace, agriculture, rural œconomy, navigation, commerce, and manufactures, received there from the genius of man the highest degree of perfection, of which they were then susceptible.

The Athenians are generally accused of having been too warlike; yet their bravery alone prevented Greece from falling under the yoke of the Persians, or of the Lacedæmonians, who would have involved the whole country in desolation and darkness. Such was the spirit of a government destructive of all science; and so ferocious were the minds of men, who could neither be softened by grandeur, nor changed by adversity.

Whenever a power, purely military, was established in the midst of Greece, it was easy to predict that the calm would be of short duration, and that dreadful tempests must ensue. Lacedæmon, says Aristotle, languished in peace, and revived in war; until at length the state was devoured by this thirst of blood, as a volcano is consumed by its own fires.

It has been said, that the Athenians possessed eighty-six square leagues of a very ungrateful soil, while the territory of the Spartans consisted of two

hundred and fifty square leagues. Athens must therefore have made prodigious efforts, to counterbalance, with so small means, the extraordinary resources of a rival power.

The general confederation of Greece was so defective, that it neither sufficed to preserve any equilibrium among the independent states, nor to terminate wars by negotiation. It will appear in the sequel, that from this fault of the federative pact proceeded all the political evils of that country. But the source of discord existed at Lacedæmon, as we have already observed; and there originated the ruin of so many republics, which, like ships in a tempest, dashed each other to pieces.

It will presently appear even to demonstration, that none but false ideas have hitherto been received relative to the Lacedæmonians; for never did any people exist on the ancient continent more avaricious, sordid, or unjust; and they were infinitely less formidable from their bravery than their perfidy.

The Athenians were sometimes constrained to purchase peace from such enemies at a very high price; and Pericles, while charged with the administration of the finances, rendered his accounts in the following terms: "O men of Athens," said he, "the public revenues are expended; but never shall I dare to inform you how, nor for what purpose."

On this the people answered, it was not their intention such a mystery should be revealed: we approve, added they, without any farther examination, all that your prudence has dictated in this matter.

The Athenians, who pretended to be so ignorant concerning the employ of their money, were all aware, that it had been sent, in a secret manner, to Lacedæmon to bribe the kings, senators, and Ephori. While lulling them in this manner, Pericles made great preparations. He foresaw that peace could not always be purchased on the same conditions, and that open war would be unavoidable with a state implacable towards all those who refused to be its subjects or tributaries.

It is commonly said, that the republic of Venice has been produced by chance, without either plan, system, or any legislator, who ever dared to speak against the nobility in favour of the people. The republic of Athens, on the contrary, was formed with reflection; for whenever any thing appeared defective, it failed not to be corrected; and even that law was changed, by which Solon had excluded the lowest class of citizens from the magistracy.

Aristotle is deceived when he pretends, in his political works, that this legislator established a perfect democracy at Athens. Modern authors have repeated the same error, without perceiving that Solon had formed in reality a mixed constitution, where the popular interest was strongly chained down by aristocracy.

Whenever a man of probity, acknowledged as a citizen, can be excluded from the magistracy under pretence of indigence, we may be assured that democracy is there very imperfect: and dreadful inconveniences must result from such principles. Athens would have suffered greatly by being deprived of the abilities of many illustrious citizens, had poverty removed them from the government. There, as in other places, the rich possessed less sagacity than the poor, whose necessities served to sharpen a weapon, which soon grows blunt in the bosom of abundance.

It was after the battle of Plataeæ, about the year four hundred and seventy-eight before our Era, that this law of Solon was repealed, and the right of

of magistracy of every kind extended to all citizens of whatever class, without any regard to their fortune, or birth; and then the lowest of the Athenians became a king.

This new form of government, sanctioned by a solemn law, was very displeasing to the nobles; but they were forced to satisfy a people flushed with glory, who, after having triumphed over the Persians, would certainly have abolished nobility in Attica, had the establishment of a popular government been opposed. Thus a complete revolution was effected without any noise, nor did a single drop of blood on this occasion stain the scene of debate.

To this epoch we must trace the true cause of the grandeur of the Athenians. Many suppose that a degeneracy has since succeeded gradually in the moral character of most European nations, until reduced to the condition of Asiatics, they are now no longer capable of supporting the weight of a republican government.

Rousseau, the most inconsistent of all reasoners, has asserted, that the gods alone are capable of living, in a pure democracy; but when asked to define the nature of his divinities, he knew not what to answer. When a man puts himself in a situation of being silenced by a single question, his opinions in all such matters should go for nothing.

Independent of this change in the moral characters of men, enervated by luxury, and accustomed for many ages to the yoke of an individual, it is easy to observe, that the whole of Europe has been conquered by German nations, who were notoriously averse to republican government. Each horde had a king; some had even more than one; and every conquered state became a monarchy.

The troubles and intrigues, occasioned at Rome by the election of consuls, are well known; and every year was introduced there with renewed scenes of corruption. But at Athens, on the contrary where the nine archons were chosen by lot, every thing was conducted without confusion; and the history of the republic contains no example of any tumult on such occasions.

Intrigues were prevented by this mode of nomination: it rendered corruption impotent; equalized the hopes of all candidates; and consoled the unsuccessful. Every citizen could aspire to such magistracies, and an absolute exclusion was only given to those who were either under age, noted for infamy, or oppressed with infirmities.

As the charge of archon at Athens was purely honorable, and did not extend to the command of the army, no inconvenience could arise from appointing such magistrates by lot. The same mode was followed in creating the senate, which likewise had no power of executing any thing, unless it had been examined and approved by the nation: without this sanction, their decrees could have no more than the pretended laws composed by Plato for the inhabitants of his republic.

Never was Montesquieu more unfortunate than when he undertook to speak of the Greeks: unacquainted with their language, he depended on faithless interpreters, and proceeded without having any notion whatever of the republic of Athens. Among other things he pretends, that the senate was formed anew every three months; and surely no greater error than this could be adopted by a political writer.

As the inhabitants of Attica, ever since the time of Solon, had been divided into ten tribes, they furnished every year fifty men, determined by lot, who formed the senate of five hundred; and each tribe presided during an artificial month of thirty-five or thirty-six days, to complete a lunar year, astronomically defective.

The republic gave a dinner every day to fifty of those senators, who were called Prytanes: Rome, on the contrary, had no public table for any magistrate; and thus one spring at least was wanting there, which served in Greece to elevate the minds of citizens. Whenever an Athenian had distinguished himself by his patriotism, either in war or peace, he was entitled ever afterwards to a place at the table of the senators; and no distinction was more esteemed, except that of being represented in embroidery on the veil of Minerva. This manner of recompensing illustrious men was little expensive to the Athenians; for their meals discovered no less frugality than the suppers of Socrates. The republic watched so carefully over this important institution, that even the appearance of luxury could never get footing there; while at Lacedæmon, as will be seen presently, the public repast degenerated into sumptuous feasts.

The government of Athens had the fault of being liable to fits of *Laocracy*, the great disease of popular constitutions. The lower class of men in the capital, acquired, at times, too great ascendancy in the deliberation of the state, from the negligence of those, who, attached entirely to their country seats, did not attend regularly the assemblies of the nation. Many had some leagues to travel in repairing thither, while the mariners of Piræus, and the artists of Athens, were ready to take every advantage, in the absence of the cultivators and inhabitants of the cantons.

The republic endeavoured to remedy this inconvenience, by allowing some indemnification for expences to all those who frequented the assemblies; but that sum, called *ecclesiastic money*, was too trifling to induce those, who were on the frontiers, to a constant attendance. Rome experienced an inconvenience of the same nature; for the impossibility of arriving in one day at the field of Mars, where the comitia were held, often prevented the members of the rustic tribes from undertaking such journeys.

Nothing could correct that species of laocracy, but a representation of all the different cantons of Attica, by deputies, who should have resided constantly at Athens, invested with full powers by their constituents. But this arrangement was impracticable there, because of the nobility, who would never have agreed with the plebeians on the nature of such an investiture. We have only to observe what passes in all national diets and assemblies, to be convinced that the nobles always consult their own interests more than those of the people.

The nine annual archons had so little influence at Athens, that the direction of great affairs devolved on the demagogue, who was neither magistrate, judge, nor dictator, but a simple citizen honoured with the confidence of the people. To him they delivered a ring, regarded justly as the great seal of the republic; and this fatal deposit is known to have been in the hands of the famous Cleo during the Peloponnesian war, as we learn from a passage in the *Knights* of Aristophanes.

In fact, the demagogues of Athens were ministers of the finances, and first secretaries of the treasury. It was as such that Pericles disposed of the public

lic money in buildings and negociations, until he acquired the reputation of the greatest politician in Greece.

Having studied the principles of war, while commanding successively the fleets and armies of the republic, he adopted finally the system of those writers on tactics, who believed that all battles should be avoided, where chance has an influence beyond the reach of calculation. When a nation, said they, is not desirous of making conquests, it is easy to avoid decisive actions, and stop the progress of an enemy either by strong camps and fortified places, or by harassing them with cavalry, like those of the Thessalians; and Polybius, among others, regards such measures as irresistible.

This mode of defence, however, can never be combined with a popular government, where citizens are inspired with great audacity, and temerity is often necessary to preserve the state from being continually attacked by neighbouring powers, either for the course of some trifling rivulet, or the passage of a bridge. But as it is in the nature of rashness to be blind, the Athenians, in opposition to all the rules of prudence, dared to carry the war into Sicily, while they were blocked up at home by an army of Spartans.

The Greeks, who could never refrain from introducing extraordinary fables amidst serious matters, pretended, that Neptune, angry with the Athenians, had sworn to inspire them with bad counsels, whenever they deliberated. On this Minerva took an oath no less solemn, that she would make all the bad counsels of Neptune prove successful. Never was this fable more completely contradicted than in the expedition against Sicily, whence neither ship nor man ever returned.

The sad necessity of depending on foreign grain, made the Athenians attempt every thing to conquer that island, where vast plains and a rich soil would have assured their continual subsistence. But in proportion to the great importance of the enterprise, it required to be conducted with wisdom, and not according to the impulse of a temerity unexampled among mankind.

One fault in particular was then committed, and has since been repeated an hundred times by different nations. No calculation had been made of the difficulties to be encountered in transporting over sea a body of cavalry sufficient to act against the Sicilians, who had an excellent breed of horses. When Scipio carried the war into Africa, he knew previously, that on landing, he should be supported by the Numidian cavalry of Masinissa. But the Athenians never once reflected on such matters; and, blinded by the empire of the sea, they placed on it alone the most sanguine hopes of success. In reality, no fleet more completely equipped or better exercised than that of the Athenians ever appeared on the Mediterranean: it wanted nothing but to be invincible. Had the conquest of Sicily succeeded, they would next have attempted, says Thucydides, to subdue Africa on one side, and Italy on the other, to render themselves successively masters of the ancient world. It is difficult to ascertain at the present time, whether this was a secret of state revealed by Thucydides, or only a simple conjecture he had hazarded. However chimerical such a plan might have been considered, yet it was afterwards realized by the Romans, who began by taking possession of Sicily; that island led to the conquest of Africa, and Africa was the key of Asia.

The

The politicians of antiquity were generally of opinion, that the too great influence of orators in the deliberations of the state, was the greatest defect of the Athenian government. Their language was sometimes compared to the song of the Syrens, and at others, to the noise of thunder. In this manner they subdued the mind, chained the will, and determined the opinions of the multitude, as the load stone attracts iron. The republic resembled a ship, of which the elegant demagogues were captains, the senate pilots, and the people sailors.

Yet it would seem that the body politic might have been directed by other springs than those of eloquence. In agitating the question, whether or not war should be declared against Macedonia, the solution of the problem did not require the *Philippics* of Demosthenes, who was forced to acknowledge afterwards, that he had been mistaken in his conjectures.

The cause of our weakness during this war, says he, arises from our deliberating in open air. All Greece is informed of whatever we propose either to execute or decline, and nothing remains secret at Athens. The chest of finances, destined for theatrical expences, is always well provided, but the other for military supplies, is as difficult to be filled as the urn of the Danaides. Philip of Macedon, on the contrary, has no other treasurer, general, or counsellor than himself; his artifices are infinite: his celerity beyond belief; he is seen all at once encamped with an army in some place, before even its march is known: and that army is commanded by a man devoured by the most insatiable ambition. Bursting from obscurity by dint of daring every thing, his body is constantly exposed to accidents of all kinds, and they have already torn away some of its members. But mutilated in this manner, he is still seen darting into the flame of combats, and provoking even the god of war in the centre of dangers.

It is surprising to hear Demosthenes reciting, after all these events, what he should have said before they took place. The true cause of the ill success of that campaign was the too great ardor of the Athenians in the battle of Chaeroneia. Having never engaged the Macedonian infantry by land, and unacquainted with its discipline and armour, they would have acted more prudently by remaining on the brow of mount Parnes, to defend the defiles towards Alopus, where, according to Xenophon, they were almost impenetrable.

Rome was saved by a general, who had the art to avoid a battle; and the Athenians required some such hero, instead of Lyficles, the most ignorant tactician of his age. The farther he penetrated into the plains of Boeotia, the more he augmented the force of the Macedonian phalanx, which was never more formidable than in an open country; while on a broken surface, like the north of Attica, its great evolutions, called in Greek *exeligmes*, became impracticable.

At Athens, the right of making peace or war belonged alone to the people, in a general assembly of the nation. To communicate precise ideas of the great interests of the country to the least informed of the citizens, that part of national policy was reduced to some maxims, so short as well as simple, that a child of ten years could get them by heart, and comprehend their meaning.

We must never allow the Persians, said they, to make conquest in Europe, the Lacedæmonians to aggrandize themselves, or the Thebans to become

come too powerful. Our navy must always be maintained on a respectable footing: commerce protected; manufactures encouraged, and above all things the popular government preserved, without which Attica would cease to be a flourishing country. Holland in the same manner must soon become uninhabitable, whenever it has the misfortune to be subjugated.

Macedonia never entered into the head of him who compassed these fundamental maxims. Buried in a profound sleep, that country had little appearance then of ever being roused into activity. Had any person spoken to Pericles of the future grandeur of Macedonia, he would no more have credited the supposition, than Cardinal Richlieu the present state of Russia. So true is it, that revolutions always arrive from a quarter, where they have been least apprehended by those who affect to be politicians.

The general interest of Greece required that Macedonia should be smothered in its cradle; and that must have taken place, had the Lacedæmonians joined their forces to those of the Athenians at the battle of Chæronæa. But never did any people on earth commit a greater or more irreparable fault than the Lacedæmonians on that occasion. They remained quiet spectators, while Philip vanquished the Athenians without perceiving that they were threatened with the same fate: and when desirous of checking the efforts of Macedonia, they received the most memorable defeat that ever happened to any nation. At the battle of Selasia, their army was entirely lost, as well as their country and capital, where the Macedonians entered in triumph; while the king of Lacedæmon embarking in a small vessel, fled to Egypt, never more to return.

Such were the fatal effects of the insidious policy of the Spartans, who betrayed the Athenians at Chæronæa; and never could they be prevailed on to afford the smallest succour against the common enemy of their country, and the destroyer of liberty.

La Promenade de la Nuit.

LE sommeil fuit mes paupieres; mes sens sont douloureusement agités; les feux de l'Etna semblent dévorer mon sein, et les glaces des contrées stériles du nord arrêtent le cours de mon sang! ... Je ne sais si je vis, ou si je touche à mon heure dernière, mes pensées sont tristes comme le tombeau. ... Tout conspire à me rendre ma demeure effrayante. Courage de l'ame, soutenez mon corps chancelant! Fuyons!. . Ah! je respire... Air salutaire, silence majestueux de la nuit, voile imposant des célestes demeures, astres multipliés pour prouver l'immenité d'un pouvoir créateur, frappez ma vue étonnée, et ranimez mon ame brisée sous le poids de la douleur. ... Quelle est donc la mélancolie qui succede à mon trouble! Je ne souffre plus: les pleurs qui tombent sur mes joues soulagent mon cœur oppressé. ... O nuit: image du calme de notre ame, quand les passions fougueuses l'abandonnent, puis-je déjà te regarder comme le symbole de ma situation présente? Suis-je en effet morte à l'amour! Quel est ce sentiment pénible qui s'élève encore dans moi? de quels souvenirs ma mémoire veut-elle s'occuper? Je me préserverai de tes prestiges séducteurs, espérance trompeuse! des jouissances plus réelles que tes biens imaginaires, seront dé-

formais mon partage. Fuis de ma pensée, objet cher et funeste ; fuis ! j'éteins pour toi ma sensibilité, si souvent renaissante.... La solitude, le sombre aspect de cette forêt, ce valon tranquille qui borne ma vue, le bercail où reposent les innocentes brebis ; tout ce qui n'est pas toi enfin suffit à mon bonheur. La rosée dont s'humectent mes vêtemens me fait participer au breuvage des fleurs. L'odeur suave qui s'échappe de leur sein, m'annonce que ma main peut en cueillir sans le secours de mes yeux Qu'entend je ? Philomèle égrie sa compagne par ses chants variés ! Elle aime donc aussi ! L'amour seul peut donner cette harmonie aux accens qui m'attendrissent.... Evitons le charme qui me poursuit.... Cherchons ces ruines effrayantes, dont l'aspect est pénible même pendant le jour. Là mon oreille ne sera frappée que du son aigu qui annonce la demeure de l'oiseau funebre : il ne sait point aimer ; ses croassemens ne peignent que la fureur et non le sentiment de l'amour....

Eh quoi, je pleure encore, et mes larmes ne sont plus douces ! Rapprochons-nous de cet asyle, qu'un toit ne couvre point, mais que la fidélité rend sûr au berger qui repose. Paisibles animaux, que l'avarice nourrit et conserve pour le glaive destructeur, ah ! venez près de moi ! je saurai vous garder et vous défendre. Aussi douce que vous, je souffre sans me plaindre. La mort, que dis-je ! la douleur, plus cruelle encore, assiege sans cesse ma frêle existence ; et la raison, ce don fatal qu'on préfère à votre heureux instinct, vient ajouter à mes maux, en me les faisant prévoir. Brebis intéressantes pour les cœurs sensibles ! vous ignorez le sort qui vous attend. Tranquilles, vous paissez sur l'herbe fleurie, et vous vous retrouvez avec plaisir dans l'onde pure qui reproduit votre image. Hélas ! son cristal n'offre à mes yeux que mes traits altérés par le chagrin ! ... Sombres idées, éloignez vous. Sageffe, fille du ciel ; chaste amitié, partage des humains vertueux, venez, je vous livre mon cœur. Douce bienfaisance, guide mes pas vers la cabane de l'homme indigent. ... J'y vole, à travers les sentiers parsemés de ronces et d'épines. Mon ame s'élève au-dessus de ma propre foiblesse.... Montre-moi ta pâle lumière, sœur du soleil, ô Phébé ! conduis-moi à l'humble demeure d'où partent des gémissemens douloureux.... Je vais soulager les peines de mes semblables ; les miennes cessent ; et le repos, qui suivra cette course précipitée, laissera reparoître sur mes lèvres le sourire de la paix et du plaisir.

NEGLECT.

AH! why is my heart so oppress'd?
And why from my friends do I fly?
I know not the cause of my grief,
And yet every breath is a sigh.

The day steals in sorrow away,
And at night I'm a stranger to sleep;
I quit the gay circles of glee,
And when I should smile, then I weep.

Once, when an affliction would rise,
I'd give a full vent to my grief,

And

And my sorrows in time would subside,
 But now I am shut from relief.
 The morning when beaming so bright,
 Could chase from thy cheek the *big* tear;
 But now morn and evening, alike
 Perceive its humidity there.
 Along the green valley I've stray'd,
 To list to the *whip-o-will's* note;
 Its sadness would chord with my own,
 'T would follow me home to my cot:
 But now, though she chirp in the grove,
 Or fill the deep vale with her moan,
 Alas! I regard not the strain,
 So dismally dull am I grown.
 Ah! sore I have found out the cause,
 Young *Anselm*, the stranger, I fear,
 Whom all the fair maidens admire,
 And whose pipe they delighted to hear,
 Unfeeling and cold as he is,
 He has found out the way to my heart;
 The laurel of conquest *he* wears,
 But *I* the keen arrow's deep smart.
 A *rose* to soft blushing was mine,
 It bloom'd by the side of a stream,
 By which all dejected I roam'd,
 And weeping made *Anselm* my theme:
 Its beauty suspended my woe,
 I kiss'd its soft bosom at morn;
 But, ah! when I sought it at eve,
 The rude winds had left but the thorn,
 Just so the fair blossom of youth
 Is blasted and withers away;
 Beneath the cold storm of Neglect,
 'Tis thus that it hastes to decay,
 Oh! come, ere the chill hands of Death
 This frame to the valley consign,
 And deign, if thou canst not *approve*,
 To *pity* a passion like mine:
 For soon will this body so frail,
 To the grave by the shepherds be borne;
 And soon will my spirit so sad,
 To the hands of its MAKER return.
 The valley perhaps may be cold,
 And the sod may lie hard on my breast,
 But the cheek of the spirit shall glow
 That enters the region of rest!

CLARA.

Extract from "*Moral Reflections on the Death of*
MARIE ANTOINETTE."

LET those whom long-adopted sorrows own,
On whom the cruel strokes of fate descend,
On whom the happy race of mortals frown,
And hard affliction strips of many a friend.
Those, who at Cynthia's melancholy hour,
While the slow night-clock knells its mournful sound,
Have wak'd to weep with unavailing power,
The cureless pang of many a mental wound.
Let the wrapt Mother who with frenzied mind,
Saw her lost Cherub feed the craving Tomb,
Or her whose heart its peerless Lord resign'd,
And gave to cankering Grief her virgin bloom.
Let all who fondly clasp the Form of Woe,
And boast that ev'ry featur'd Ill is theirs;
On Gallia's Queen one patient hour bestow,
And turn to Heaven with penitence and prayers.
Did'st thou, mad Mourner, grace yon lili'd throne,
Fair as the youthful Poet's pictur'd dream,
While round thy brow the light of Genius shone,
And warm'd a nation with its dazzling beam?
What though Affliction's petrifying sway,
Could bid thy heart its wonted pulse forego,
Bid the pierc'd nerve of quiv'ring life decay,
And leave a breathless "Monument of Woe."
Has grinning Infamy and pointing Scorn,
The menial Tribe thy generous mansion fed;
With impious hand each tortur'd fibre torn,
And ugr'd the stroke 'till scepter'd beauty bled?
Oh no! vain ingrate, nature's boundless page
To the chill'd sense no equal horror shows,
One dread example blots a letter'd age,
That scene accurs'd a polish'd realm bestows.
Then call the roses to thy faded cheeks,
With the Mind's lustre light that languid eye,
Clothe thy vex'd soul with resignation meek,
And bid the murmuring lingering accent die.
Why should the wretch upon whose visual orb
The Lord of Brightness never pour'd his ray,
Repine when darkness folds her mighty robe,
As the swift transit of the changeeful day!
Can the poor worm, who clasps its speck of earth,
While on its head the crushing bolt is hurl'd,

Like

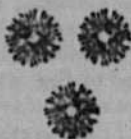
Like yon bright offspring of celestial birth,
 Command the plaudit of a pitying world !
 Say wast thou sent to fill this stormy scene,
 Free'd from the icy touch of withering care ?
 Then think of loyal-Galia's worship'd Queen,
 And learn thy little drop of woe to bear.
 Oh then, thou selfish mourner cease to grieve,
 If to thy heart one orphan'd hope remains,
 With grateful lips the precious drop receive,
 As the sweet solace of a world of pains.

*Lines wrote by the late QUEEN of FRANCE the night
 before her suffering.*

TO bid the world a long farewell,
 To sink in death's uncertain sleep,
 Why does the heart with terror swell,
 Why do these eyes for sorrow weep ?
 In that same moment thousands more,
 Their round of toil and grief shall close,
 That house of joy shall peace restore,
 There shall the weary find repose.—

For me, Affliction's mournful Child,
 By many a furrow'd feature known,
 Death beckons with an aspect mild,
 And points to a Celestial Throne ;
 For there no more th' accused Fiend,
 Shall hiss its venom'd slander round,
 But Seraphs from their Glory bend,
 To soothe with harp of silver sound.

Then unsubdu'd my soul shall dare,
 What more of horrors yet remain,
 For the last pang my foes prepare,
 Shall give my widow'd Lord again ;
 Not unsubdu'd-for ah ! to leave,
 My Orphans—Victims of their rage !
 My latest pray'r, Oh Heaven, receive,
 Oh shield from Wrong their Helpless age.



CHRONICLE.

TRIAL OF THE QUEEN OF FRANCE.

REVOLUTIONARY TRIBUNAL, Paris, Oct. 15.

MARIE ANTOINETTE is, this moment I am writing, seated on the criminal chair since nine o'clock this morning; the following is an extract from the Act of Accusation,

Act of Accusation, or Indictment.

MARIE ANTOINETTE stands charged, 1st, with having dilapidated and lavished the Finances of the Nation, in concert with the execrable Calonne, by causing to be transmitted to the Emperor several millions, which still serve to carry on the war against France.—2dly, With having in imitation of Brumhaud and De Medecis, who also called themselves *Queen's of France*, conspired against the Liberty of the French Nation.—3dly, With having fought to starve the People in 1789.—4thly, With having excited the murders of October 5 and 6.—5thly, With having in concert with Bailly and La Fayette, caused the Patriots to be butchered in the *Champs de Mars*. 6thly, With having prevailed upon the Swifs to fire on the People on the 10th of August.—7thly, with having like another *Agrippa*, forgotten that she was a mother, in order to commit incest with her son.

Marie Antoinette heard the reading of the Act of Accusation, without seeming to be in the least moved.

[Here the Interrogatory began.]

President.—“What is your name?”—QUEEN.—“Marie Antoinette, of Lorraine and Austria.”

President.—“Your quality?”—QUEEN.—“I am the Widow of Louis Capet, King of the French.”

[Here the Witnesses were called in.]

Laurent Lecointre, Deputy to the National Convention, deposed against the accused, for having formerly been the wife of the *ci-devant* King of France; and for being the person who, at the time of her removal to the Temple, had charged him with a Memorial to the Convention, in order to gain over twelve or fourteen persons, which she mentioned, to what she called her service. The Convention, on that occasion, passed to the order of the day, upon the ground that he should address himself to the Municipality.

The deponent then entered upon the detail of the festivals and orgies which took place at Versailles, from the year 1789; the result of which had been, a dreadful dilapidation in the finances of France. The witness gave a detail of what preceded and followed the assemblies of the Notables, till the epocha of the opening of the States General; the state of the generous inhabitants of Versailles; their greivous perplexities on the 23d of June, 1789, when the artillery-men of Nassau, whose artillery was placed in the stables belonging to the accused, refused to fire upon the people.—At length, the Parisians having shaken off the yoke of tyranny, this revolutionary movement re-animated the energy of their brethren at Versailles.

They

CHRONIQUE.

PROCES DE LA REINE DE FRANCE.

TRIBUNAL REVOLUTIONNAIRE, Paris, 15 Octobre.

MARIE ANTOINETTE est en ce moment que j'écris, assise sur la Chaise criminelle depuis 9 heures ce matin. Voici un extrait de l'acte d'accusation.

Acte d'Accusation.

MARIE ANTOINETTE est accusée, 1° d'avoir dissipé et prodigué les finances de la nation de concert avec l'exécrable Calonne, en faisant transmettre à l'Empereur plusieurs millions qui servent encore à faire la guerre contre la France—2° D'avoir, à l'imitation de Bruneau et de Medecis, qui s'appelaient aussi Reines de France, conspiré contre la liberté de la nation Française—3° D'avoir cherché à enflammer le Peuple en 1789—4° D'avoir excité les meurtres du 5 et du 6 d'Octobre—5° D'avoir, de concert avec Bailli et Lafayette, fait égorger les patriotes dans le champ de Mars—6° D'avoir engagé les Suisses à tirer sur le peuple le 10 Août—7° D'avoir, comme une autre Agripine, oublié qu'elle était mère, pour commettre un inceste avec son fils.

Marie Antoinette entendit la lecture de l'acte d'accusation sans aucune apparence d'émotion.

[Ici commença l'interrogatoire.]

Le Président.—“ Quel est votre nom ? ”—La Reine, “ Marie Antoinette de Lorraine et d'Autriche.

Le Président.—“ Votre qualité ? ”—La Reine, “ Je suis la Veuve de Louis Capet Roi des Français.

[Ici on appella les témoins.]

Laurent Lecointre, Député à la Convention Nationale, a déposé contre l'accusée, d'avoir été l'Épouse du ci-devant Roi de France, et d'être la personne qui lorsqu'elle a été transférée au Temple, l'avait chargée d'un mémoire à la Convention, afin de gagner 12 ou 14 personnes, qu'elle mentionnait, à ce qu'elle appelait son service. La Convention, en cette occasion, a passé à l'ordre du jour, sur le principe qu'il devait s'adresser à la Municipalité.

Le déposant a alors entré dans le détail des fêtes et orgies qui ont eu lieu à Versailles depuis l'année 1789 : dont le résultat avait été une épouvantable déladation dans les finances de la France. Le témoin a fait un détail de ce qui a précédé et suivi les Assemblées des Notables jusqu'à l'époque de l'ouverture des États Généraux ; de l'état des généreux habitants de Versailles ; de leurs grièves perplexités le 23 de Juin 1789, quand les canoniers de Nassau, dont l'artillerie était placée dans les écuries appartenant à l'accusée, refusèrent de tirer sur le peuple. A la fin les Parisiens ayant secoué le joug de la tyrannie, ce mouvement révolutionnaire ranima l'énergie de leurs frères à Versailles.

They formed the very hardy and courageous project of freeing themselves from the oppression of the despot, and of his agents. On the 28th of July, the citizens of Versailles formed a wish to organize themselves into National Guards, like their brethren of Paris. They nevertheless proposed to consult the King; the negociator was the *ci-devant* Prince de Poix. Endeavours were made to prolong the matter; but the organization having been made, the staff was appointed; D'Estaing was named Commandant General, and Governor second in command.

The witness here entered into the detail of the facts which preceded and followed the arrival of the regiment of Flanders. The accused, on the 29th of September, lent for some officers of the National Guard, and made them a present of two colours; a third remained, which they were told was destined for a battalion of pretended guards, paid for the avowed purpose, as it was declared, of relieving the inhabitants of Versailles, who were thus caajoled; at the same time that it was affected to pity them, they in reality were abhorred.

On the 29th of September, 1789, the National Guard gave a repast to its brave brethren, the soldiers of the regiment of Flanders. The public journals gave an account at the time, that at the repast of the citizens, nothing passed contrary to the principles of liberty; but that the feast given October the first, by the *Gardes du Corps*, had no other aim than to provoke the National Guards against the *ci-devant* soldiers of Flanders, and the *Chasseurs des trois Evêches*.

The witness observed, that the accused appeared at this latter part with her husband; that they were loudly applauded there; that the air of *O Richard! O my King!* was played; that the health of the King and Queen was drank, as well as that of her son; but that the health of the Nation, which had been proposed, was rejected. After this orgy, they removed themselves to the castle of the *ci-devant* Court, called *Marble*; and there, in order to give the King a just idea of the manner with which they were disposed to defend the interests of his family, if occasion required it, a person named Percival, Aid-de-Camp to D'Estaing, mounted the first; after him, a grenadier of the regiment of Flanders; a third dragoon having also attempted to scale the said balcony, and not being able to succeed, would have destroyed it. With respect to the said Percival, he took the cross with which he was decorated, in order to give it to a grenadier, who, like him, had scaled the balcony of the *ci-devant* King.

Upon the request of the Public-Accuser, the Tribunal observed, that a mandamus should be issued to bring forth Perceval D'Estaing.

The witness added, that on the 3d of the same month of October, the *Gardes du Corps* gave a second repast. It was there that the most violent outrages were committed upon the National cockade, which was trodden under foot.

The deponent here detailed what happened at Versailles on the 5th and 6th of October. He observed, that on the day of the 6th of October, D'Estaing being informed of the movements which were making in Paris, went to the Municipality of Versailles, in order to obtain permission to carry away the *ci-devant* King, who was then hunting, and who was entirely ignorant of what was passing, with a promise to bring him back when tranquillity should be restored. The witness deposited upon the desk, the pieces relative to the facts contained in his declaration, which were added to the process.

The

Ils formèrent le projet hardi et courageux de se libérer de l'oppression du despote, ou de ses agens. Le 28 de Juillet les Citoyens de Versailles formèrent le dessein de s'organiser en Gardes Nationales comme leurs freres de Paris. Ils proposerent néanmoins de consulter le Roi ; le négociateur était le ci-devant Prince de Poix. On tâcha de prolonger l'affaire ; mais l'organisation ayant été faite, l'Etat Major fut appointé ; D'Estaing fut nommé Commandant Général, et Gouverneur second Commandant.

Ici, le témoin entra dans le détail de l'action qui précéda et suivit l'arrivée du Régiment de Flandres, le 29 de Septembre. L'accusée envoya chercher quelques Officiers de la Garde Nationale, et leur fit présent de deux drapeaux, il en restait un troisième, qui, à ce qu'on leur dit, était destiné pour un bataillon de prétendues Gardes payées pour l'effet avoué, ainsi qu'on le déclara, de secourir les habitans de Versailles qui furent enjôlés de cette manière, et dans le tems même qu'on effectait de les plaindre, ils étaient réellement abhorrés.

Le 29 de Septembre 1789, la Garde Nationale donna un repas à ses braves freres, les soldats du Régiment de Flandres. Les journaux publics rendirent compte alors, qu'il ne passa rien dans le repas des Citoyens de contraire aux principes de la Liberté ; mais que le festin donné le 1er d'Octobre par les Gardes du corps, n'avait point d'autre but que de provoquer la Garde Nationale contre les ci-devant soldats de Flandres, et les Chasseurs des trois Evêchés-

Le témoin a observé, que l'accusée parut avec son mari sur la fin du repas ; qu'ils furent hautement applaudis ; qu'on y joua l'air, *O Richard ! O mon Roi !* qu'on y but à la santé du Roi et de la Reine, ainsi qu'à celle de leur fils ; mais que la santé de la nation, qu'on avait proposée, fut rejetée. Après cette orgie, ils se rendirent au Château de la ci-devant Cour appelée Marlie ; et là, afin de donner au Roi une juste idée de la manière dont ils étaient disposés de défendre les intérêts de sa famille, si l'occasion l'exigeait, un nommé Perceval, Aide-de-Camp de d'Estaing, monta le premier ; après lui un Grenadier du Régiment de Flandres ; un troisième, un dragon ayant aussi tenté d'escalader le balcon, et n'ayant pu réussir, voulait le détruire. A l'égard du dit Perceval, il prit la croix dont il était décoré pour la donner à un Grenadier, qui comme lui, avait escaladé le balcon du ci-devant Roi.

A la requisition de l'Accusateur public, le Tribunal a ordonné, qu'un mandat soit émané Pour amener Perceval d'Estaing.

Le témoin a ajouté, que le 3 du même mois d'Octobre, les Gardes du Corps donnerent un second repas, dans lequel les plus violens outrages furent commis sur la cocarde Nationale, qui fut foulée aux pieds.

Ici le déposant a détaillé ce qui arriva à Versailles les 5 et 6 d'Octobre. D'Estaing étant informé des mouvemens qui se faisaient dans Paris, se rendit à la Municipalité de Versailles, afin d'obtenir permission d'enlever le ci-devant Roi, qui alors chassait, et qui ignorait entierement ce qui se passait ; avec promesse de le ramener quand la tranquillité serait rétablie. Le témoin a déposé sur le bureau les pièces relatives aux faits contenus dans la déclaration, lesquelles ont été jointes au procès.

The President to the Accused.

"Have you any observations to make upon the witness's deposition?"

Reply.—"I have no knowledge of the greater part of the facts which the witness mentions. It is true, that I gave two colours to the National Guard of Versailles; and it is also true, that we walked round the table on the day of the repast given by the Gardes du Corps; but this is all."

President.—"You acknowledge that you were in the Hall of the *ci-devant* Gardes du Corps. Were you there, when they played the air of *O Richard! O my King!*"—*Reply*.—"I do not recollect."

President.—"Were you there when the health of the Nation was proposed, and rejected?"

Reply.—"I do not think I was."

President.—"It is notorious that the report all over France at that time was, that you had yourself visited the three armed corps at Versailles, for the purpose of engaging them to defend what you called the Prerogatives of the Throne?"

Reply.—"I have nothing to answer."

President.—"Did you not, before the 14th of July, hold nocturnal meetings, at which Polignac assisted; and was it not there deliberated upon the means of sending money to the Emperor?"

Reply.—"I never assisted at any such meetings."

President.—"Have you any knowledge of the famous Bed of Justice, held by Louis Capet in the midst of the Representatives of the People?"

Reply.—"I have."

President.—"Was it not D'Espremeuil and Thouret, assisted by Barentin, who revised the articles that were proposed?"

Reply.—"I am entirely ignorant of this matter."

President.—"Your answers are not accurate; for it was in your apartments that the articles were revised."

Reply.—"It was in the Council that this affair was determined."

President.—"Did not your husband read his speech to you, half an hour before he entered the Hall of the Representatives of the People, and did you not engage him to pronounce it with resolution?"

Reply.—"My husband had great confidence in me, and that made him read his speech, but I made no observations."

President.—"What were the deliberations upon surrounding the Representatives of the People with bayonets, and assassinating half of them if possible?"—*Reply*.—"I never heard mention of such a thing."

President.—"You cannot have been ignorant that there were troops in the Champ de Mars. You must know the cause of their being assembled?"

Reply.—"I knew at the time that troops were assembled, and I am absolutely ignorant of the motive."

President.—"But enjoying the confidence of your husband, you must have known the cause."

Reply.—"It was to restore public tranquillity."

Jean Baptiste Lapierre, ci-devant Aide-Major of the National Guard, deposed, that being on guard in the Chateau the 20th June, 1791, the day of the flight to Varennes, he had heard a report, that the Aristocrats were to carry off the Queen and the Royal Family during the night, but that notwithstanding his vigilance he had seen nothing. *The*

Le Président à l'Accusé.

Avez vous quelques observations à faire sur la déposition du Témoin ?

Réponse.—Je n'ai pas connaissance de la majeure partie des faits que le témoin mentionne. Il est vrai que j'ai donné deux paires de drapeaux à la Garde Nationale de Versailles ; et il est vrai aussi, que nous avons fait le tour de la table le jour du repas donné par les Gardes du Corps ; mais c'est tout.

Le Président.—Vous avouez que vous étiez dans la Salle des ci-devant Gardes du Corps. Y étiez vous quand ils jouèrent l'air de, "Où Richard ! Où mon Roi !"

Réponse.—Je ne m'en rappelle pas.

Le Président.—Y étiez vous quand la santé de la nation fut proposée et rejetée ?

Réponse.—Je ne crois pas que j'y fusse.

Le Président.—Il est notoire, que le bruit courait alors par toute la France, que vous aviez vous même visité les trois corps armés à Versailles, à l'effet de les engager à défendre ce que vous appeliez les privilèges du Trône ?—*Réponse.*—Je n'ai rien à répondre.

Le Président.—N'avez vous pastenu, avant le 14 Juillet, des assemblées Nocturnes, auxquelles Polignac a assisté ; et n'y a-t il pas été délibéré sur les moyens d'envoyer de l'argent à l'Empereur ?

Réponse.—Je n'ai jamais assisté à de pareilles assemblées.

Le Président.—Avez vous connaissance du fameux lit de Justice, tenu par Louis Capet au milieu des Représentans du peuple ?

Réponse. J'en ai connaissance.

Le Président.—Ne fut ce pas Despremeuil et Thouret, assistés de Barentin, qui revirent les articles qui furent proposés ?

Réponse.—J'ignore entièrement cette affaire.

Le Président.—Vos réponses ne sont pas exactes ; car ce fut dans votre appartement que les articles furent revus.

Réponse.—Ce fut dans le Conseil que cette affaire fut décidée.

Le Président.—Votre mari ne vous lut il pas sa harangue une demie heure avant d'entrer dans la Salle des Représentans du peuple, et ne l'engageât vous pas de la prononcer avec résolution ?

Réponse.—Mon mari avait beaucoup de confiance en moi, c'est ce qui lui fit lire sa harangue ; mais je ne fis nulle observation.

Le Président.—Quelles furent les délibérations pour investir les Représentans du peuple avec des bayonnettes, et en assassiner la moitié, s'il était possible ?

Réponse.—Je n'ai jamais entendu mentionner une pareille chose.

Le Président.—Vous ne pouvez avoir ignoré qu'il y avait des troupes dans le champ de mars. Vous devez connaître la cause de leur assemblée ?

Réponse.—Je l'avais alors qu'il y avait des troupes assemblées, mais j'en ignore absolument le motif.

Le Président.—Mais jouissant de la confiance de votre mari, vous devez en avoir connu la cause.

Réponse.—C'était pour rétablir la tranquillité publique.

Jean Baptiste Lapierre, ci devant Aide major de la Garde Nationale, a déposé, qu'étant de garde dans le Château le 20 de Juin 1791, jour de la fuite à Varennes, il avait entendu dire, que les Aristocrates devaient enlever la Reine et la Famille Royale dans la nuit, mais que malgré sa vigilance il n'avait rien vu.

The Public Accuser—"By what quarter did you depart on the day that you fled?"

Reply—"By the door of the apartment of M. de Villequier."

Public Accuser—"Who opened that door?"—*Reply*—"It was I."

Public Accuser—"Were you on foot, or in a carriage, in crossing the Square du Carrouzel?"—*Reply*—"On foot."

Public Accuser—"Were Bailly and La Fayette informed of your departure?"—*Reply*—"No."

Public Accuser—"Did you meet with La Fayette as you were going away?"

Reply—"We saw him in his carriage in the Square du Carrouzel."

Public Accuser—"What o'clock was it?"

Reply—"Half past eleven at night."

Public Accuser—"Had you seen La Fayette that day?"

Reply—"I do not recollect."

Rouillon, ci-devant Judge of the Revolutionary Tribunal—"All the facts contained in the Act of Accusation are of such public notoriety that it is unnecessary to spend time on them. If my fullest conviction can be of any weight, I will not hesitate to affirm, that I am fully persuaded that this woman is guilty of the greatest crimes; that she has always conspired against the liberty of the French People. The following is a circumstance which I have to relate to you:—On the 10 of August, I was present at the siege of the Chateau of the Tuilleries. I saw under the bed of Marie Antoinette full or empty bottles, from which I concluded that she had herself distributed wine to the Swiss soldiers, that these wretches in their intoxication might assassinate the people." Rouillon then declared, that his intention, and that of the other Patriots was, after having inflicted justice on the *Etat Major* of the Swiss Guards, to proceed to the Convention, to sacrifice the Royal Family, who had taken refuge there. "We met," added he, "Brisot and Guadet, who conjured us not to commit that political crime. I say political crime, for it can never surely be a crime in morals to rid the earth of tyrants."

President—"Have you any observations to make, Marie Antoinette?"

Reply—"I am not acquainted with that gentleman.—I do not know what he means."

Herbert, Substitute of the Procurator of the Commune—"As a Member of the Commune of the 10th of August, I have been obliged to discharge with the prisoners of the Temple, several functions, which have given me an opportunity of being convinced of the spirit of rebellion against the National Authority, which animated those prisoners. This assertion I will prove by facts. Upon examination of the effects of Marie Antoinette, there was found in her pocket a copy of the Ritual. In the leaves of this book was a sort of image, the image employed by the Counter-Revolutionists. On this image was a heart with this inscription, *Coeur de Jéhu miserece nobis*. There was found with Madame Elizabeth, a hat which she said belonged to Louis Capet, though he had only one, which was in his Chamber. I proceeded to facts more important. The true *Sans Culotte*, Simon, requested me to come to the Temple, as he had something to communicate. I went. Simon then told me, "I surprized little Capet alone, in the commission of acts very unnatural." Astonished to see an infant so early instructed in crimes

L'Accusateur Public.—Par quel quartier avez vous partie le jour que vous vous êtes ensuie ?

Réponse.—Par la porte de l'appartement de M. Villéquier.

L'Accusateur Public.—Qui ouvrit la porte ? *Réponse.*—Ce fut moi.

L'accusateur public.—Étiez vous à pied ou en voiture, lorsque vous passâtes le Carrouzel ?

Réponse.—A pied.

L'Accusateur public.—Bailly et La Fayette étaient ils informés de votre départ ?—Non.

L'Accusateur Public.—Avez vous rencontré La Fayette en sortant ?—Non.

L'Accusateur Public.—Avez vous rencontré La Fayette en vous en allant ? Nous le vîmes dans la voiture sur la place du Carrouzel.

L'Accusateur Public.—Quelle heure étoit il !

Réponse.—Onze heures et demie de nuit.

L'Accusateur Public.—Avez vous vu La Fayette ce jour là ?

Réponse.—Je ne m'en souviens pas.

Roussillon, ci-devant Juge du Tribunal Révolutionnaire. Tous les faits contenus dans l'acte d'accusation sont d'une notoriété si publique, qu'il n'est pas nécessaire de passer le tems à les discuter. Si ma conviction la plus parfaite peut être d'aucun poids, je n'hésiterai pas d'affirmer, que je suis pleinement persuadé que cette femme est coupable des plus grands crimes ; qu'elle a toujours conspiré contre la liberté du peuple Français. Ce qui fût est la circonstance que j'ai à vous raconter :—Le 10 d'Aoust j'étais présent au Siège du Château des Thuilleries. Je vis sous le lit de Marie Antoinette des bouteilles vuides ou pleines, dont je conclus qu'elle avait elle même distribué du Vin aux Soldats Suisses, afin que ces misérables, dans leur ivresse, assassinaient le peuple. Roussillon déclara alors que son intention et celle des autres patriotes, était, après avoir infligé justice sur l'état major des Gardes Suisses, de se rendre à la convention pour sacrifier la famille Royale, qui s'y était réfugiée. Nous rencontrâmes, ajouta-t-il, Brissot et Guadet, qui nous conjurèrent de ne pas commettre ce-crime politique, je dis crime politique, car il ne peut surement jamais être un crime en morale de délivrer la terre de tyrans.

Le Président.—Avez vous quelque observation à faire, Marie Antoinette ?

Réponse.—Je ne connais pas ce Monsieur. Je ne fais ce qu'il veut dire.

Herbert, Substitut du Procureur de la Commune. Comme membre de la Commune du 10 d'Août, j'ai été obligé d'exercer auprès des prisonniers du Temple plusieurs fonctions qui m'ont procuré l'occasion de me convaincre de l'esprit de rébellion contre l'autorité Nationale, qui animait ces prisonniers. Je prouverai cette assertion par des faits. Sur l'examen des effets de Marie Antoinette, on a trouvé dans sa poche une copie du Rituel. Il y avait dans les feuilles de ce livre une espèce d'image usitée par les Contre-révolutionnistes. Il y avait sur cette image un cœur avec cette inscription, *Cor Jesu, miserere nobis*. On trouva chez madame Elizabeth un chapeau qui, à ce qu'elle dit, appartenait à Louis Capet, quoiqu'il n'en eût qu'un qui était dans la chambre. Je passe à des faits plus importants. Le vrai sans-culotte Simon, me pria de venir au Temple, attendu qu'il avait quelque chose à communiquer. J'y allai. Simon me dit, j'ai surpris le petit Capet seul commettant des actions très dénaturées. Étonné de voir un enfant instruit si à bonne heure dans les crimes, je demandai qui étaient ceux qui l'avaient inf-

crimes, I asked who had been his instructors? He answered with all the ingenuousness and candour of his age, that he had been taught by his mother and his aunt. "I will not fully your ears," added Herbert, "by reporting the obscenities which this infant has recited. I will merely tell you that there subsisted an incestuous intercourse with his mother and his aunt; that young Capet contracted a rupture in consequence of the debaucheries, in which they had initiated him. I cannot believe, Citizen Jurors, that the sole pleasure of sense, induced these murdering Messalians to be guilty of these excesses. Marie Antoinette had nothing else in view than to enervate by debauchery, the infant whom she expected one day to become a King, that she might govern at her own pleasure, and perpetrate, under the sanction of a debilitated tyrant, all the crimes of another Medicis. I must not forget to remind you, that since the death of Louis Capet, the infant was regarded by his mother and his aunt as King of the Temple. At table he sat at the upper end. They paid him respect and homage, and always walked behind him."

President—"What have you to answer?"

Reply—"I answer that the picture found in the Ritual was no emblem of a Counter-Revolution, but a simple figure of devotion, which had been given to my daughter. As to the hat, my sister assured me, that her brother had given it her when he had been provided with a new one. As to my respect for my son, Mr. Herbert ought to know that a mother always gives her children a preference to herself." To the other parts of his deposition the Queen made no answer.

Public Accuser—"Did not Citizen Michonis bring along with him into the prison an individual who let drop a pink, in which was enclosed a billet?"

Reply—"The fact is true."

Public Accuser—"Who was the man who delivered to you this billet?—Do you know him?—What is his name?—What were the contents of the billet?—Did you answer it?"

Reply—"His name I do not recollect.—The contents of the billet were, that he had been thrown into prison, but had found means to extricate himself; that he offered me money; and that he would return the Friday following.—I answered by pricking on a paper with a pin, that my guards never suffered me to be out of their sight, so that I had no opportunity to write or communicate with any person."

Public Accuser—"Why were you startled upon seeing this individual?"

Reply—"Because I was alarmed at the danger which he ran in getting into my prison."

The Tribunal was going to proceed to hear another witness, when one of the Jury requested the President to demand of the accused to answer with respect to the crimes, the proof of which rested on the declaration of the young Capet.

Reply—"I remained silent on that subject, because Nature holds all such crimes in abhorrence?"—Then turning with an animated air to the people—"I appeal to all mothers who are present in this Auditory—Is such a crime possible?"

The *ci-devant* Count de E'staing, and Citizen Percival being implicated by the deposition of Laurent Lecointre, the Tribunal issued a mandate to bring up these two individuals:

(To be continued.)

••• 14

instruit ? Il répondit avec toute l'ingénuité et la candeur de son âge, qu'il avait été instruit par sa mere et sa tante. Je ne choquerai point vos oreilles, ajouta Herbert, du détail des obscénités, que cet enfant a récitées. Je vous dirai seulement qu'il y avait un commerce incestueux avec sa mere et sa tante; que le jeune Capet s'est rompu en conséquence des débauches dans lesquelles elles l'avaient initié. Je ne puis croire, Citoyens Jurés, que le seul plaisir des sens, ait engagé ces meurtrieres mégalienes à se rendre coupables de ces excès. Marie Antoinette n'avait autre chose en vue que d'énerver par la débauche l'enfant qu'elle espérait un jour devenir Roi, afin qu'elle put gouverner à son plaisir, et perpétrer, sous la sanction d'un tyran débile, tous les crimes d'un autre Medecis. Je ne dois pas oublier de vous rappeler, que depuis la mort de Louis Capet, l'enfant a été regardé par sa mere et sa tante comme Roi du Temple. A table il siégeait au haut bout. On lui rendait respect et hommage, et l'on passait toujours derrière lui.

Le Président. Qu'avez vous à répondre ?

Réponse. Je réponds que le portrait trouvé dans le Rituel n'était point une emblème de la Contre révolution, mais une simple figure de dévotion, qui avait été donné à ma fille. Quant au Chapeau, ma Sour m'a assuré, que son frere le lui avait donné quand il en avait eu un neuf. Pour ce qui est de mon respect pour mon fils, Herbert doit savoir qu'une mere donne toujours la préférence à ses enfans sur elle même. La Reine n'a point répondu aux autres parties de sa déposition.

L'Accusateur Public. Le Citoyen Michonis n'a-t il pas amené avec lui dans la prison un individu qui laissa tomber un œillet dans lequel il y avait un billet ?

Réponse. Cela est vrai.

L'Accusateur Public. Quel était l'homme qui vous livra ce billet ? Le connaissez vous ? Quel est son nom ? Quel était le contenu de ce billet ? Y avez vous répondu ?

Réponse. Je ne me rappelle pas de son nom. Le contenu du billet était, qu'il avait été mis en Prison, mais avait trouvé moyen de se débarrasser; qu'il m'offrait de l'argent; et qu'il retournerait le vendredi suivant. Je répondis en piquant sur un papier avec une épingle, que mes gardes ne me laissaient jamais sortir de leur vue, de sorte que je n'avais pas occasion d'écrire ou communiquer avec aucune personne.

L'Accusateur public.—Pourquoi futes vous surprise en voyant cet individu ?

Réponse.—Parceque j'étais alarmée du danger qu'il courait en entrant dans ma prison.

Le Tribunal allait procéder à l'audition de l'autre témoin, quand un des Jurés pria le président de demander à l'accusée de répondre relativement aux crimes, dont la preuve était fondée sur la déclaration de Louis Capet.

Réponse.—Je gardai le silence sur ce sujet, parceque la nature a tous pareils crimes en horreur.—Alors, se tournant avec un air animé vers le peuple, "J'en appelle à toutes les meres qui sont présentes dans cette auditoire, un tel crime est il possible ?

Le ci-devant Comte d'Estaing, et le Citoyen Percival étant impliqués par la déposition de Laurent Lecointre, le Tribunal a donné un mandat pour les amener tous deux.

(A Continuer.)

•• Noël

•• In our last, we gave a brief summary of the Trial and Execution of the late QUEEN OF FRANCE. But as this extraordinary event will probably engage the attention and interest the feelings of men, even after its political effects shall have ceased, we presume it will not be displeasing to our Readers to be acquainted with its more minute particulars. We have therefore collected the whole of the interrogatories, and depositions of the witnesses, &c. as taken from the best authorities, and mean to give the sequel in some following numbers.

PROVINCIAL REGISTER.

HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY.

THURSDAY, 13th February.

THE House met several times during the late and present week; nothing material being before them, the sittings were short, in order that the Committee for new modeling the Courts of Justice might get through their Bill, which, we understand, will be reported to the House on Monday next.

Thursday 20.—The House met and adjourned occasionally during the last week until yesterday, when Mr. Tascherau, who succeeded Mr. De Lotbiniere the former Chairman of the Committee on the establishment of Courts of Justice, on his being elected Speaker of the House, reported from said Committee, the draft of a Bill for the division of the Province of Lower Canada for amending the Judicature thereof, and for repealing of certain Laws mentioned in said Bill—which was afterwards read for the first time.

A Motion was made for printing the Bill for the division of the Province of Lower Canada, for amending the Judicature thereof, &c.—It was rejected, and the said Bill was ordered to be read a second time Tuesday next. The House then adjourned to Saturday.

Saturday 22.—The House met and adjourned to Monday.

Monday 24.—The Order of the day was read for taking into consideration the Bill for giving like remedies upon promissory Notes as is now used upon Bills of Exchange; a long debate ensued, and the House adjourned upon an amendment proposed.

Tuesday 25.—There was no quorum.

Wednesday 26.—The Bill for the division of the Province of Lower Canada, for amending the Judicature thereof, &c. was read a second time. The House then resumed the consideration of the Note of hand Bill, and a long debate ensued.

Thursday 27.—A Message was received from the Legislative Council with the Bill for the publication of Laws for public information; with several amendments made thereto.

A Call of the House was ordered for the 12th of March.

The House then proceeded to take into consideration the Note of Hand Bill, and after some trifling amendments made thereto, adjourned to Saturday.

* Nous avons donné dans notre dernier Numéro, un court sommaire du procès et de l'exécution de la seule infortunée REINE de FRANCE. Mais comme cet événement extraordinaire engagera probablement l'attention et excitera la sensibilité, même après que ses effets politiques auront cessé, nous pensons ne pas déplaire à nos lecteurs en les informant de ses circonstances plus particulières. Nous avons pour cet effet recueilli des meilleures autorités tous les interrogatoires, et les dépositions des témoins, &c. et nous nous proposons d'en donner la suite dans le prochain Numéro.

REGISTRE PROVINCIAL.

CHAMBRE D'ASSEMBLÉE.

JEUDI, 13 Février.

LA Chambre s'est assemblée plusieurs fois durant la dernière et la présente semaine. N'ayant rien d'important devant elle, ses séances ont été courtes, afin que le Comité établi pour former de nouveaux les cours de justice puisse achever le bill, dont il sera fait rapport à la Chambre Lundi prochain.

Jeudi 20.—La Chambre s'est assemblée et a ajourné occasionnellement durant la semaine dernière jusqu'à hier, que M. Taschereau qui a succédé à M. De Lotbinière, ci devant président du Comité sur l'établissement des Cours de Justice, (le dernier ayant été élu orateur de la Chambre) a fait rapport de la part du Comité, du plan d'un bill pour la division de la Province du Bas Canada, pour amender la judicature d'icelle, et rappeler certaines loix mentionnées dans le dit plan, lequel a été lu pour la première fois.

Il a été fait une motion pour imprimer le Bill pour la division de la Province du Bas Canada, pour en modifier la judicature, &c. Elle a été rejetée, et il a été ordonné que ce Bill fut lu une seconde fois Mardi prochain. La Chambre a ensuite ajourné à Samedi.

Samedi 22.—La Chambre s'est assemblée, et a ajourné à Lundi.

Lundi 24.—L'Ordre du jour a été lu pour prendre en considération le Bill donnant pareils recours sur les Billets promissaires de même que sur les lettres de change; il y a eu sur cela un long débat, et la Chambre a ajourné sur un amendement proposé.

Mardi 25.—Il n'y a pas eu de Quorum.

Mercredi 26.—Le Bill pour la division de la Province du Bas Canada, et pour en modifier la judicature, &c a été lu une seconde fois. La Chambre a ensuite repris en considération le Bill relatif aux Billets promissaires, sur quoi il y a eu un long débat.

Jeudi 27.—La Chambre a reçu un Message du Conseil Législatif et le Bill pour la publication des Loix, avec plusieurs amendemens.

Il a été ordonné de faire un appel nominal de la Chambre le 12 de Mars.

La Chambre a procédé ensuite à la considération du Bill relatif aux Billets Promissaires, et après quelques légers amendemens a ajourné à Samedi.

Division of the Province of Lower Canada, and the Court Terms proposed by the Bill, reported by the Committee, for establishing Courts of Justice.

The Province to consist of Three Districts, viz. Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, and the County of Gaspé to be erected into an inferior District; the Courts in each, and their respective Judges, as follows:

Court of King's Bench for Criminal Causes.

A Chief Justice to preside therein, assisted by three Puisné Judges, to be held at—QUEBEC, last ten days of March and September, } every year.
MONTREAL, first ten days of do. do.

And at—THREE RIVERS, by two of the Judges of the Court of King's Bench, in conjunction with the Provincial Judge to be appointed for that District,—from the 13th to the 16th of March and September every year.

Court of King's Bench for Civil Causes above £ 10 Sterling.

A Chief Justice to preside, assisted by three puisné Judges, to be held at QUEBEC and } the last 20 days of February, April, June, August, MONTREAL, } October, and December, every year.

And at—THREE RIVERS, by two of the Judges of the Court of King's Bench, with the Provincial Judge of the District,—from the 17th to the last days of March and September, every year.

Court of King's Bench for Civil Causes of and under £ 10 Sterling, to be held by one or more Judges of the Court of King's Bench.

At QUEBEC, from 21, to the 31 January,	}	every year.
11, — 19 March,		
21, — 31 May,		
21, — 30 June,		
21, — 31 August,		
21, — 30 November,		
MONTREAL, — 21, to the 31 January,	}	
11, — 19 March,		
21, — 31 May,		
21, — 30 June,		
11, — 19 September,		
21, — 30 November,		

Provincial Court of Three Rivers for Causes of and under £ 10 Sterling to be held by a Provincial Judge for that District from the 1st to the 10th of the Months of February, April, June, August, October, and December every year.

Provincial Court of Gaspé for Causes not exceeding £ 20 Sterling to be held by a Provincial Judge for that District.

At BONAVENTURE, from the 16, to the 31 May.
CARLETON, — 16, — 31 July.
PERCE', — 16, — 31 August.
DOUGLAS TOWN, — 15, — 30 September.

Court of Appeals to be held at Quebec in Four Terms.

From the 10th to the 20th of January and November, } every year.
From the 20th to the 30th of April and July, - - }

The Judges to be the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Chief Justice of the

Division de la Province du Bas Canada, et termes de Cour proposés par le Bill dont le Comité pour établir les Cours de justice a fait rapport.

La Province consistera en trois Districts, savoir, Québec, Montréal, et Trois Rivières, et le Comté de Gaspé sera érigé en un District inférieur. Les Cours et les Juges dans chacun de ces districts seront comme suit :

Cour du Banc du Roi pour causes Criminelles

Un Juge en Chef pour y présider, assisté de trois Juges puinés. Cette cour se tiendra à—**QUEBEC**, chaque année les derniers dix jours de Mars et de Septembre;

A MONTREAL, les premiers dix jours de Mars et Septembre, et **AUX TROIS RIVIERES**, par deux Juges de la Cour du Banc du Roi conjointement avec le Juge Provincial qui sera appointé pour ce District, depuis le 13 jusqu'au 16 de Mars et Septembre chaque année.

Cour du Banc du Roi pour les causes civiles au-dessus de £10 Sterling.

Un Juge en chef pour présider, assisté de trois Juges puinés. Cette Cour se tiendra **A QUEBEC** et } les derniers 20 jours de Février, **A-MONTREAL**, } vril, Juin, Août, Octobre, et Décembre, chaque année, et

AUX TROIS RIVIERES, par deux des Juges de la Cour du Banc du Roi, avec le Juge Provincial du District, depuis le 17 jusqu'aux derniers jours de Mars et de Septembre chaque année.

Cour du Banc du Roi pour causes civiles de et au-dessous de £10. Sterling, sera tenue par un ou plusieurs Juges de la Cour du Banc du Roi.

A QUEBEC, depuis le 21, jusqu'au 31 Janvier.

depuis le 11, ——— 19 Mars.

depuis le 21, ——— 31 Mai.

depuis le 21, ——— 30 Juin.

depuis le 21, ——— 31 Août,

depuis le 21, ——— 30 Novembre.

MONTREAL, depuis le 21, ——— 31 Janvier.

depuis le 11, ——— 19 Mars.

depuis le 21, ——— 31 Mai.

depuis le 21, ——— 30 Juin.

depuis le 11, ——— 19 Septembre.

depuis le 21, ——— 30 Novembre.

Cour Provinciale des Trois Rivières, pour causes de et au dessous de £10 Sterling, pour être tenue par un Juge provincial pour ce District, depuis le premier jusqu'au 10 des mois de Février, Avril, Juin, Août, Octobre et Décembre chaque année.

Cour Provinciale de Gaspé, pour causes n'excédant pas £20 Sterling, sera tenue par un Juge Provincial pour ce District,

A BONAVENTURE, depuis le 16, jusqu'au 31 Mai,

CARLETON, ——— 16, ——— 31 Juillet,

PERCE', ——— 16, ——— 31 Août,

DOUGLAS-TOWN, ——— 15, ——— 30 Septembre,

Cour d'Apels pour être tenue à Québec, en quatre termes.

Depuis le 10 jusqu'au 20 de Janvier et de Novembre, } chaque année.

Depuis le 20 jusqu'au 30 d'Avril et de Juillet, - }

Le Juges seront, le Gouverneur, le Lieut. Gouverneur, le Juge en chef

the Province, Chief Justice of the District of Montreal, the Members of the Legislative and Executive Councils, or any Five of them. Appeals allowed from the Judgment of the other Courts in matters of above £ 100 Sterling.

General Quarter Sessions of the Peace,—four Terms every year.

At Quebec, Montreal,	} from the 10th to the 19th January and July,	
and Three Rivers,		
Gaspé, viz. at Bonaventure,	} from the 21st to the 30th April and October.	
Carleton, Percé, Douglas		
Town.	} Eight days immediately following the	
		Terms of the Provincial Courts there
		held respectively.

The respective periods stated for holding the different Terms are both days inclusive, Sundays and Holidays excepted; and every juridical day of the said Courts is to be a return day.

To the Editor of the QUEBEC MAGAZINE.

During my stay at Burlington I got personally acquainted with most of the Gentlemen who had waited upon His R. H. they all seemed much pleased with him; and several Gentlemen in the neighbourhood, with whom I was accidentally in company, regretted exceedingly their not having had an opportunity of shewing him the same attention. I am,

SIR, your very humble servant,

Quebec, 11th Feb. 1794.

TO HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS PRINCE EDWARD.

SIR. (*Address of the Inhabitants of Burlington.*)

DICTATED by the principles of common civility and politeness, and possibly urged from an unwarrantable anxiety to have an interview with Your Royal Highness. In behalf of the most respectable Gentlemen of this place we have to request you to appoint that hour (commencing after six o'clock, P. M. on account of the business of the Court) which will be most agreeable to you to receive that respectful attention due to your rank. And you may be assured, although in a strange country, that protection is equally at your command with the greatest subject of the United States.

We are, SIR, with the greatest respect, your most obedient servants,

(Signed)

ELNATHAN KEYES.

JOHN BISHOP.

WILLM. PRENTICE.

HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS' ANSWER.

GENTLEMEN,

Burlington, Jan. 30, 1794.

I AM commanded by His Royal Highness PRINCE EDWARD, to return you his best thanks for your polite attention, and at the same time to say, that if half past six o'clock this evening will be a convenient hour to you, he shall esteem himself much flattered in having the pleasure of seeing you.

I have the honor to remain with great respect,

Your most obedient humble servant,

FRED. AUG. WETHERAL, Aid-de-Camp.

A P.

de la Province, le Juge en chef du District de Montréal, les Membres des Conseils Exécutif et Législatif, ou aucun cinq d'iceux. On pourra appeler des jugemens des autres Cours dans les affaires au-dessus de £ 100 sterling.

Séances générales de Quartier de la Paix, quatre termes chaque année,
 A Québec, Montréal, } depuis le 10 jusqu'au 19 de Jan. et de Juillet,
 et Trois Rivières. } depuis le 21 jusqu'au 30 d'Avril, et d'Octobre.
 Gaspé, savoir, a Bonnaventure, Carleton; Percé, } Huit jours suivant immédiatement les
 Douglas-Town. } termes des Cours provinciales y tenues
 respectivement.

Les périodes respectives pour tenir les différens termes comprennent les jours mentionnées, Dimanches et Fêtes exceptées, et tous les jours judiciaires des dites Cours seront jours de rapport.

A l'Editeur du MAGASIN de QUÉBEC.

Durant mon séjour à Burlington, j'ai fait connaissance avec la plupart des Messieurs qui ont rendu visite à Son Altesse Royale. Ils en paraissaient tous très contents; et plusieurs Messieurs du voisinage avec lesquels je me suis trouvé en compagnie par hazard regrettaient beaucoup de n'avoir pas eu occasion de lui témoigner la même attention. Je suis, Monsieur, Votre très humble Servt.

Québec, 11 Février, 1794.

A SON ALTESSE ROYALE LE PRINCE EDOUARD,

MONSIEUR, (*Adresse aux habitans de Burlington.*)

DICTES par les principes de la civilité et de la politesse ordinaire, et possiblement pressés par une anxiété injustifiable d'avoir une entrevue avec Votre Altesse Royale, en faveur des plus respectables Gentilhommes de cette place, nous vous prions de fixer l'heure (commençant après six heures du soir, à cause des affaires de la Cour) qui vous sera la plus agréable pour recevoir l'attention respectueuse due à votre rang, et vous pouvez être assuré que quoiqu'en pais étranger, la protection est également à vos ordres de même que le plus grand sujet des Etats Unis.

Nous sommes, Monsieur, avec plus grand respect vos très Obéissans

Serviteurs,

(Signé)

ELNATHAN KEYES
 JOHN BISHOP
 WILLIAM PRENTICE.

REPONSE DE SON ALTESSE ROYALE,

MESSEURS,

Burlington, 30 Janvier, 1794.

IL m'est ordonné par Son Altesse Royale de vous faire ses sincères remerciemens de votre attention polie, et en même tems de dire, que si six heures et demie ce soir est pour vous une heure convenable, elle s'estimera très flattée d'avoir le plaisir de vous voir.

J'ai l'honneur d'être avec beaucoup de respect,

Votre très obéissant humble Serviteur,

FRED. AUG. WETHERAL.

A P.

A P P O I N T M E N T S.

His Excellency LORD DORCHESTER has been pleased to cause letters Patent to issue appointing the Honorable *Pierre Amable De Bonne* and *James Walker, Esq.* Members of the House of Assembly, Judges of His Majesty's Courts of Common Pleas for the Districts of Quebec, Montreal and Three Rivers in the Province of Lower Canada.—Also, Letters Patent appointing the Honorable *Philippe de Rocheblave Esq.* Member of the House of Assembly, Clerk of the Land Roll or *Papier Terrier* of the Royal Domaine in the Province of Lower Canada.—Also, To re-appoint Mr. Edme Henry a Notary Public for the District of Montreal in the Province of Lower Canada.

MARRIAGES,—THREE RIVERS.

On Monday evening the 17th inst. Mr. *Campion* of Montreal, to Miss *Josette Maillet*, of this Town, a young Lady whose many amiable qualifications will render the married state truly happy.

On Wednesday the 19th, by the Revd. Mr. Stewart, (at Point du Lac) Lieut. *Wm. Fraser* of the Cedars, to the amiable Miss *Jenny Fraser* of this Town.



A P P O I N T M E N T S.

Son Excellence a émané des lettres Patentés par lesquelles l'Honorable *Pierre Amable de Bonne* et l'Honorable *James Walker*, Ecuyers, membres de la Chambre d'Assemblée, sont appointés Juges des Cours de Plaidoyers Communs pour les Districts de Québec, Montréal, et Trois Rivières dans la Province du Bas Canada.—Et aussi des Lettres patentés par lesquelles l'Honorable *Philippe de Rocheblave*, Ecuyer, membre de la Chambre d'Assemblée, est appointé Clerc ou Greffier du Papier Terrier du Domaine Royal dans la Province du Bas Canada.—Aussi, Son Excellence Le Lord Dorchester a ré-appointé M. Edme Henry, Notaire Public pour le District de Montréal dans la Province du Bas Canada.

M A R I E'.—TROIS RIVIERES.

Lundi au soir le 17 du Courant, Mr. *Campion* de Montréal, avec Mademoiselle *Josette Maillet* de cette ville, Jeune demoiselle dont les aimables qualités rendront ce mariage vraiment heureux.

Mécredi le 19 de ce Mois, par le Révérend Mr. Stewart (à la Pointe du Lac) le Lieutenant *William Fraser*, des Cédres, à l'Aimable Madlle. *Jenny Fraser*, de cette ville.

Morts et Naissances à Québec pour le mois de Fév. 1794.

- 1 Homme mariés,
- 5 Femmes, id.
- 1 Grande Fille,
- 1 Petit Garçon,
- 1 id. Filles.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 9 \text{ Morts.} \\ \\ 22 \text{ Naissances.} \end{array} \right.$	12 Garçons,
	10 Filles.