BEAUTIES

OF

SCOTLAND:

CONTAINING

A CLEAR AND FULL ACCOUNT

OF THE

AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MINES,

AND

MANUFACTURES;

OF THE

POPULATION, CITIES, TOWNS, VILLAGES, &c.

OF EACH COUNTY.

EMBELLISHED WITH ENGRAVINGS.

VOL. I.

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EDINBURGH:

PRINTED FOR THOMSON BONAR AND JOHN BROWN, EDINBURGH;

VERNOR AND HOOD; LONGMAN, HURST, REES, AND ORME; CUTHELL AND MARTIN; J. AND A. ARCH; J. HARRIS; W. J. AND J. RICHARDSON; AND CROSBY AND CO.—LONDON.

1805.

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Edinburgh:
Printed by John Brown.

HIS GRACE

THE

DUKE OF BUCCLEUCH.

MY LORD,

IN introducing to the world the First Volume of a Work intended to illustrate the present state of Scotland, it is with the highest satisfaction addressed to a popular and patriotic Nobleman, whose virtues have done honour to the highest rank; whose ample possessions in this country have only afforded an opportunity for the exertion of extensive beneficence; and who has never failed to give countenance and support to every liberal and valuable art.

I have the honour to be,

MY LORD,

Your GRACE'S most obedient,

And most humble Servant,

RO. FORSYTH.

VII 0.42[illegible]

BEAUTIES

OF

SCOTLAND.

MIDLOTHIAN, OR EDINBURGHSHIRE.

THIS County is of an irregular form, approaching however to a four-sided figure. It has been said to resemble a triangle, one of whose angles is cut off*. Its northern boundary, which forms its shortest side, is a deep bay of the sea, or estuary of a river, called in Scotland, like others of a similar nature, a *Frith*. Being the estuary of the River Forth (the ancient Bodotria), it is denominated the *Frith of Forth*. The county extends about twelve miles in a direct line along this Frith. It is bounded on the west by Linlithgowshire, to the extent of nearly 19 miles; to the eastward of Midlothian are the shires of Haddington, Berwick, and Roxburgh, to the extent of 22 miles; on the south, are the counties of Selkirk, Peebles, and Lanark. The southern boundary of the county is very long and irregular, stretching from the south-east, in the parish of Stow, towards the north-

Boundaries.

* M'Farlane's Collection, MS. Advocates Library.

Edinburgh

west, in the parish of West Calder, a distance of little less than 36 miles.

As the Scottish capital is by far the most important object which this county contains, we shall begin our Work with an account of it.

THE CITY OF EDINBURGH

Has of late years been so frequently rendered the subject of description, that little novelty can reasonably be expected to occur in the account to be here given of it. We shall, therefore, render our details concerning it as concise as may seem consistent with the object of our undertaking, which must necessarily be, to give a complete account of whatever is most important in the northern division of the island.

Edinburgh is situated in 55 degrees 57 minutes of north latitude, and in 3 degrees 14 minutes of longitude west from London. It stands near the centre of the northern boundary of the county, and within two miles of the town and harbour of Leith; towards which, by the extension of its buildings, it is rapidly approaching; and which for this and other reasons may be considered as one of its suburbs.

It is extremely difficult to give, by description, a correct idea of the City of Edinburgh, on account of the strange irregularity of the territory upon which it is situated, and of the great diversity of the form and aspect of the buildings of which it now consists.

Topography of Edinburgh.

The Frith of Forth, adjoining to Edinburgh on the north, is from 5 to 7 miles in breadth. Eastward from Edinburgh and Leith is the bay of Musselburgh, which is the largest bay in this estuary or Frith, and advances several miles southward to the town or village from which

it derives its name. The harbour of Leith is situated in an angle, or a sort of peninsula, formed by the ordinary line of the Frith of Forth on the north, and by Musselburgh bay on the east. Edinburgh looks downwards upon the sea on two sides, and stands at nearly an equal distance from Musselburgh bay on the east, and from the general line of the Frith of Forth on the north. From Leith, and the whole shore of the bay of Musselburgh, the country ascends gradually and regularly westward towards the centre and northern part of Edinburgh, which is at the distance of from two to three miles. Between the southern quarter of the city and Musselburgh bay, the mountainous tract, called *Arthur Seat*, is interposed. At the harbour of Leith, the small river, called the Water of Leith, falls into the sea. To the north-west of Leith, along the shore, the country is regular and beautiful; its form is triangular, having the Frith of Forth on the north; on the south, the Water of Leith, diverging from the Frith, and running, like most Scottish rivers and even rivulets, in a deep bed with elevated banks. To the westward, this territory very gradually and slowly continues to widen, and, at the same time, to ascend for some miles, till the southern part of it is crossed by a narrow and lofty ridge in the form of a cock's comb, called *Corstorphine Hills*, and the rest of it begins to slope downwards to the river Amon, on the north-west. Edinburgh

From the Water of Leith, two miles westward from the harbour, the country to the south rapidly ascends to a very considerable height. The ascent terminates in a horizontal ridge, which runs from east to west, and is about 300 feet above the level of the sea. Along the summit of this ridge is situated what is usually called the *New Town* of Edinburgh; which, from its elevated situation, is enabled to overlook, towards the north, the Frith of Forth, with Northern Ridge, or New Town.

Edinburgh. the opposite bold coast of Fife; and on this side, the beautiful intervening territory, which is well cultivated and adorned with numerous villas.

Central Ridge, or Old Town. To the south of the ridge on which the New Town stands is a deep valley; southward from which suddenly ascends another ridge or long hill, upon which is placed the Old Town, or the most important part of the ancient city of Edinburgh. This ridge, whose highest point is on the west, terminates in that quarter in a precipitous and lofty rock, on which the castle is placed; the hill gradually descends towards the east. On the ridge, formed by its summit, the High Street is built, which terminates, on the east, at the valley on which the Palace of Holyroodhouse stands. From the High Street, along its whole length from the Castle to the Palace, a succession of narrow lanes descend down the steep sides of the hill; those on the north terminate in the valley which divides the New from the Old Town, and which, from its anciently having been covered with water, is termed the North Loch; on the south, the lanes from the High street descend into a deep and narrow valley, in which is a street called the Cowgate, which, to a considerable distance, runs parallel to the High Street. The remainder of this low ground, towards the west, is occupied by a broad and ancient street, called the Grass Market. Towards the east it has never been built upon.

Third Ridge, or Southern District. From the Cowgate a new set of lanes ascend towards the south, where a third long ridge, covered with buildings, runs parallel to the High Street; but which is not, like it, formed into a precipitate hill, excepting towards the east, where it approaches Salisbury Craigs. On the south it descends gradually into an extensive valley, where was anciently the South Loch, or Burough Loch; but which being drained, is now called Hope Park, or

the Meadow. The notion that has been frequently entertained that the Cowgate was once covered with water, is satisfactorily shewn by Maitland in his history to be erroneous, as the declivity of the ground is so rapid, that water could not even artificially be made to stagnate there, without the aid of very great and expensive works, which evidently never existed. Edinburgh.

The City of Edinburgh thus stands upon three parallel ridges; two of which are of considerable breadth at the summit, and run in nearly a horizontal direction from east to west. The central ridge, however, is so narrow in its summit, as in most places barely to leave room for the breadth of the High Street. This ridge also differs from the other two in this respect, that instead of running horizontally like them from east to west, its western point is a lofty fortified rock, seen by travellers at a great distance, while it gradually descends eastward, till at the distance of a full mile it sinks into a plain.

To the southward the country from Edinburgh gradually rises with a great variety of surface, and the view is terminated by lofty mountains, which, at one point, are scarcely five miles distant. On the west the territory is more level; so that from Edinburgh Castle a fine plain is seen richly cultivated, and stretching to the distance of 14 miles, where the country gradually ascends, till it forms the elevated tract which looks down upon the course of the river Clyde and the city of Glasgow. Adjoining country.

On the east the vicinity of Edinburgh is so irregular and rugged, as irresistibly to suggest the idea that this has once been the scene of some great natural convulsion. Three hills are chiefly worthy of notice; they consist, like that on which the High Street stands, of rugged precipices, with an elevated summit towards the west, from which Hills near Edinburgh.

Edinburgh. they descend or trail along in a gradual manner eastward. The lowest of these is the Calton-hill.

The horizontal ridge of the New Town terminates suddenly on the east, opposite to the middle of the High Street. The territory on the north-east of the New Town consists of a gradual descent towards Leith; and that on the south-east, after passing a sudden chasm, is occupied by the Calton-hill, which abruptly rises aloft, and exhibits in that quarter a front of precipitous and broken rocks, which incroach upon the North Loch, and press towards the Old Town or centre of the city. On their summit is an observatory; on one side is the Bridewell; and on the brow of the hill is a public walk, which commands an extensive view of a group of the most interesting objects which this world can exhibit—a fertile country, a great city, a fortified castle, a crowded sea-port, a royal palace, and a great extent of ocean; the whole diversified by rugged rocks and precipices close at hand, and by the lofty mountains which border upon the Western Highlands, which form the distant horizon.

The ridge to the southward of the High-street, or Old Town of Edinburgh, terminates, like that on the north, in a sudden chasm on the east, beyond which a lofty precipice ascends. Here, however, every thing is on a grander scale; the rocks are more lofty, and are succeeded by others, which form a singular tract of mountainous territory in the vicinity of the Palace. The chief divisions of these hills are called Salisbury Craigs and Arthur Seat. The former is the most westerly, and is supposed to derive its name from an Earl of Salisbury who accompanied Edward III. of England in an expedition against the Scots. Salisbury Craigs form a semicircular precipice of great height and extent. At the summit of a hill, whose shelving sides are covered with fragments of broken

rocks, the precipice itself is seen from all quarters of the city which it overlooks. Edinburgh.

ARTHUR SEAT, which is to the eastward of SALISBURY CRAIGS, consists of two extensive hills; one of which rises into a lofty peak, which overlooks the surrounding country, and is 819 feet in height above the low water-mark at Leith.

The three ridges on which the City of Edinburgh is built are connected by Bridges built across the low grounds which divide the Old Town, or central ridge, from the New Town on the north, and from the Southern District on the opposite side.

In consequence of its being divided in the way now mentioned, into a sort of three distinct cities, built upon separate parallel eminences, divided from each other by intervening valleys, there is no city of its extent which is less perplexing to a stranger, or where he is less likely to lose his way, than Edinburgh. After the slightest inspection, he cannot possibly mistake one division for another; because the Old Town, the New Town, and the Southern District, are each of moderate extent, and have no more resemblance to one another, than if they had been built by different nations, or in distant quarters of the globe. Edinburgh, a sort of three towns

The western part of the Central Division of Edinburgh rises aloft, and overlooks the whole city. At the summit or precipitous extremity the CASTLE is situated. It consists of an area of about six English acres. Its situation is naturally so strong, that if the supposition were not contradicted by history, we should have regarded it as impregnable before the invention of artillery. It stands upon the summit of a rock, which, on the north, the west, and the south, appears inaccessible, and which is at many places absolutely perpendicular, and is about 300 feet The Castle.

Edinburgh. from its base. One of our plates will afford a correct idea of its aspect. On the east, the only quarter from which the Castle is accessible, it is separated from the buildings of the City by a kind of glacis or space of about 350 feet in length and 300 in breadth, called the CASTLEHILL, which also commands a prospect of the City, and its whole environs, with the sea and the opposite coast of Fife. At the western termination of the Castlehill is the outer barrier of the Castle, beyond which is a dry ditch, with a draw-bridge and gate; the whole commanded by a half-moon mounted with twelve and eighteen pounders. Within the gate is a guard-room; beyond which, on a road winding upwards towards the north, are two gate-ways; the first of which is very strong, and has two port-cullises. Beyond the inner gateway is a battery, mounted with brass guns; near which are store-houses for gun-carriages and other implements of artillery. On the north is a grand store-room and arsenal, which, together with the other magazines in the fort, are capable of containing thirty thousand stand of arms. In addition to those already mentioned, there are some other batteries at different points of the circumference of the rampart or wall by which the brow of the rock is encircled; but the fortifications correspond with none of the rules of art, being built according to the irregular form of the precipice on which they stand. So that to this day the chief strength of the Castle may be considered as consisting in its height and inaccessible situation.

The highest part of the Castle, which is towards the south-east, consists of a number of houses in the form of a square, affording a parade for exercise. The buildings are chiefly laid out in barracks for the officers. The different old barracks in the garrison can accommodate a thousand men; and in addition to these, during the late or ra-

ther present war, a very lofty and extensive range of build- Edinburgh.
ings was erected on the western brow of the rock. These being finished in the modern style, are here a deformity, and have totally destroyed, when viewed from the neighbourhood, the antique and majestic aspect of this part of the fortress. The orders for such works come from England; where we must suppose, either that the general aspect of this ancient fortress is unknown, or that good taste is not considered as requisite in works of this nature. The east side of the square already mentioned, at the summit of the Castle, was anciently used as royal apartments; and some of them appear to have been rebuilt in 1556. In these turbulent times, when it was not always safe for the sovereign to reside in an unfortified place, the celebrated but unfortunate Queen Mary took up her dwelling in the Castle, after her pregnancy was far advanced. Here, in a small room, on the ground floor in the south-east corner of this edifice, she was, on the 19th of June 1566, delivered of a prince; in whose person the crowns of both kingdoms, of which the British Island consisted, were afterwards united—A political event of a most important nature, which the policy or the ambition of the ablest of the English monarchs had long, by force or fraud, unsuccessfully struggled to accomplish.

In an apartment also, in this quarter of the Castle, the Scottish regalia.
crown, the sceptre, and the rest of the ancient regalia of Scotland, were with great solemnity deposited on the 26th of March 1707; but they have long since taken their departure thence; though it is said that nobody can tell how or when. They were probably removed by a secret order from government during one or other of the rebellions of 1715 or 1745; and a British minister, during war, would always find occasion for the gold or jewels which they contained. Indeed, if it was ever seriously thought that

Edinburgh. the preservation of these relicts of ancient royalty, in a place now become a province of a great empire, could have served any valuable purpose, our ancestors adopted a very unskilful mode of accomplishing the object they had in view. To preserve an object of great value, it ought not to be locked up for ever from the eyes of the public, but to be produced occasionally at stated periods; if not to the whole world, at least to a considerable number of magistrates or other officers as representing the public.

Strength of the Castle. Considered as a place of strength, the Castle of Edinburgh has great defects. Its elevation, and the distance from which it would be necessary to assail it by means of batteries of cannon, give it considerable strength against this mode of attack: but the same elevation holds it up as a conspicuous mark for a well-directed bombardment; very few apartments in it are bomb-proof; and the area of the castle is almost entirely rock, whose splinters would double the destruction occasioned by an enemy's bomb-shells. Another defect results from its want of water, of which the natural supply is scanty. It is obtained from a draw-well upwards of an hundred feet deep; and the concussion of the rock, occasioned by a long-continued discharge of artillery, causes the water to subside. This is probably owing to the position of the rock, the layers of which appear to be placed perpendicular to the horizon; so that the whole mass must have only a slight coherence. For the sake of ordinary convenience the garrison is now supplied with water from the pipes which convey water to the city of Edinburgh. Upon the whole, Edinburgh Castle can only be considered as a place of strength in favour of government against an intestine commotion. Against a foreign enemy, supplied with proper artillery, it would afford no protection, and might even prove highly pernicious, as en-

abling him, with a trifling force, to retain the command of a great city and of a fertile territory. Edinburgh.

At the eastern extremity of the glacis of the Castle the High Street of Edinburgh begins, and continues without interruption downwards along the ridge of the hill to the Palace of Holyroodhouse. The upper part of this street is about 140 feet above the level of the North Loch, and almost 180 feet above Holyroodhouse. The street from the castle-gate to the palace-gate is 5570 feet. The descent is regular, and it runs all the way nearly in a right line; at the same time the bendings are sufficient to interrupt the view from one end to the other; and the view is farther broken by some buildings which are still suffered to encroach upon the street. Old Town.

In consequence of the great beauty and elegance of the streets and buildings which have been recently reared, the High Street of Edinburgh no longer produces that admiration which its spaciousness and the loftiness and magnificence of its buildings once excited. A writer of the sixteenth century speaks thus of it: "In this city there are "two spacious streets; of which the principal one, leading "from the palace to the Castle, *is paved with square* "*stones*. The city itself is not built of bricks, but of "square free stones; and so stately is their appearance, that "single houses may be compared to palaces. From the Ab- "bey to the Castle (continues our author) there is a conti- "nued street, which on both sides contains a range of ex- "cellent houses, and the better sort are built of *hewn stone*."

Many specimens of buildings of considerable antiquity remain in the High Street of Edinburgh and adjoining to it. In 1698 a statute of the Scottish Parliament prohibited any house to be built higher than five stories from the ground. All those houses, therefore, which exceed that height, must have been built previous to the sta-

Edinburgh. tute. The law only applies to such parts of a house as front a public street or lane. Hence it frequently happens, in consequence of the singular inequality of the ground, that while the front of a house rises to no more than the statutory height, its back part is eight or ten, or even twelve stories high. All these stories are inhabited by separate families; and in the course of time it sometimes happens that the back of one of these houses comes to front a newly opened street. In which case, however, if it fall into decay, it is generally understood that it cannot be rebuilt of the same height. The habit which the inhabitants of Edinburgh have acquired of living above each other in separate stories, with a common stair from which they all enter, together with the high price which a very small extent of ground brings when sold, induces proprietors, when rebuilding their houses, still to rear them as high as the law will permit, that they may derive the highest possible profit from their property.

Names of the High Street. The High Street of Edinburgh receives from the inhabitants different appellations to distinguish different parts of it. Near the Castle it is termed the *Castle-hill:* somewhat lower down, it is called the *Lawn-market*, from a branch of trade formerly carried on there: at the lower end of the Lawn-market, where stands the ancient Episcopal Cathedral, or Church of St Giles, the street for a considerable distance is called, by way of distinction, the *High Street;* this being the most frequented and public part of it. Farther down the hill, at a place where the city wall anciently crossed it, the High Street takes the appellation of the *Canongate*, which continues downwards to the Palace.

From the upper end of the Lawn-market a street descends down the hill southward, in a winding direction, to the Grass-market and Cowgate. In ancient times, one of

the gates of the city was in the middle of this street. The gate was covered by a stone arch, termed in the Scottish dialect a *bow*; and hence the street receives the appellation to this day of the *West Bow*. Edinburgh.

From the middle of the Lawn-market towards the north, a communication with the New Town has of late years been opened, by means of a great mound of earth, to be afterwards noticed, which crosses the North Loch. At the lower end of the Lawn-market, the street is embarrassed by an old prison, and some houses called *Luckenbooths*, which occupy the middle of it: But the latter are beginning to be removed. Adjoining to them is a small square, called the *Parliament-close*, to the south of the street. The sides of the square are formed by the Cathedral of St Giles on the north; on the south and west, partly by the house where the Scottish parliament anciently sat, and which is now occupied by the courts of law. The remainder of the square, which is not extensive, is completed by private buildings of hewn stone, which, being ancient, rise to a great height; and the centre is adorned by a beautiful equestrian statue of Charles the Second, placed here after the restoration by the magistrates, instead of one which they had been previously making preparations to erect in honour of the usurper Oliver Cromwell. A little below the Cathedral of St Giles, the CROSS OF EDINBURGH anciently stood; and the spot, which is marked by a sort of radiated pavement, still receives the appellation of the *Cross*. Here the Scottish statutes were anciently proclaimed; and here royal and other public proclamations are still made. Here also the principal citizens in former times were accustomed to assemble every day betwixt the hours of one and two afternoon; and for their entertainment a set of bells are placed in the steeple of the adjoining Cathedral, upon which, at that hour, a person, who receives

Parliament Close.

The Cross of Edinburgh.

Edinburgh. a salary from the magistrates, daily plays, in the manner of a harpsichord, a variety of tunes. In consequence of the great extension of the city, and the influx of strangers, the inhabitants have become less known to each other than formerly, and they have relinquished in a great measure the social custom of assembling frequently at the Cross. The practice is now confined to the Wednesday of every week, which is a kind of market-day in Edinburgh; and then the Cross is chiefly frequented by the Leith merchants and the wealthy farmers from the adjoining country. There were formerly three crosses in that part of the High Street of Edinburgh called the *Canongate*. One of them was at the head of St John Street, called *St John's Cross*; another adjoining to the Canongate Church; and the last was in the neighbourhood of the Palace, styled the *Girth Cross*, so called from its being at the limit or boundary of the sanctuary of Holyrood-house. It was at this last cross that the celebrated Marquis of Montrose was executed, by the party of the covenanters, by suspension on a gibbet thirty feet in height.

At no great distance below the proper Cross of Edinburgh, the city is crossed by the two great bridges of communication which connect the Old Town with the northern and the southern districts. These bridges form a most beautiful and elegant street. The central hill is also crossed somewhat lower by another street, which on the south receives the appellation of *St Mary's Wynd*; and on the north, of *Leith Wynd*. Here the city wall had an arched gate, and the place still receives the appellation of the *Nether Bow*. All below this is termed the *Canongate*; which, from its vicinity to the Palace, was once the court end of the town, and still contains many great houses built by the nobility in former times, but which are now occupied by persons of far inferior importance.

The COWGATE resembles the High Street only in the loftiness of its buildings, being too narrow to admit of a side pavement for foot-passengers, and being now rapidly falling into decay, in consequence of the extension of the city into more favourable situations. Edinburgh. The Cowgate.

From the Castle-hill to the Palace, the whole space is occupied, or rather most inconceivably crowded, with buildings in rows down each side of the hill. These buildings are piled up to a great height; and as the lanes (or, as they are called, *closes*) between the rows are seldom more than from six to ten feet in breadth, the lower stories are necessarily extremely dark. The access to the separate lodgings in these huge piles is everywhere by a common stair, exposed to great inconvenience from dirtiness and danger from fire. This mode of building is rendered practicable by the immense quantities of the finest stone of a great variety of kinds found in the vicinity of Edinburgh. The proprietors encourage it, as already mentioned, from views of making the most of their building ground; and private families of moderate incomes account it convenient, from the opportunity which it affords of obtaining houses of every variety of dimensions, and on account of the compactness which it gives to a dwelling, by which fewer servants are rendered necessary. The lanes, however, of this ancient city have some variety. Those which admit a carriage to pass through them are usually termed *wynds*, of which there are several; and in some places small squares are formed, which are usually termed *courts*, as Miln's Court and James's Court in the Lawn-market, and Elphingston's Court in the Cowgate. But none of these are very ancient. Lanes in Edinburgh.

The communications between the High Street of Edinburgh, or the central ridge of that city, and the northern and southern districts, are themselves no small curiosities. Bridges.

Edinburgh. The most remarkable consists of the two bridges, which form one continued street, crossing the High Street, and at right angles with it. In 1763 the North Loch was drained, and the mud removed, for the purpose of discovering a proper foundation for building a bridge of communication across the valley to the high ground on the north. The first stone was laid by George Drummond, Esq. Lord Provost of Edinburgh, on the 21st of October 1763; but the contract for building the bridge was not signed till the 21st of August 1765. The parties to this contract were the Town-Council of Edinburgh and William Mylne architect, brother to the person who built Blackfriars bridge. By this agreement, Mr Mylne became bound to build a bridge of communication between the High Street and the fields on the north side of the city, for the sum of L. 10,140 Sterling. The work was to be completed before Martinmas 1769, and Mr Mylne engaged to uphold it for ten years. A difficulty occurred in the course of the work, which has more than once occasioned no small embarrassment when great buildings were to be erected in Edinburgh. As the north side of the hill on which the High Street stands is extremely steep, it had been found in early times a convenient mode of getting rid of the earth dug from the foundations of houses to tumble it down this declivity towards the North Loch. Hence the whole ground on that side of the hill is formed, not of natural, but of what builders term *travelled earth*. It would appear that Mr Mylne and his workmen had not suspected this circumstance, and in digging the foundation had stopt short when there were still eight feet of unsound soil between them and the natural solid mass, which in that quarter is generally clay. He appears to have committed another error in not raising the piers of the bridge to a sufficient height; and to remedy

North Bridge.

this defect, he piled an immense mass of indigested earth upon his vault and arches, in order to raise the bridge to a proper level. The result was, that the great mass of crude earth having swelled by the rains, on the third of August 1769 burst the side-walls and abutments on the south end of the bridge. The vaults gave way; and five people, who happened to be upon the fatal spot, were buried in the ruins; eleven others were considerably hurt. Had the accident happened a quarter of an hour earlier, many more lives would have been lost; because a great concourse of people at that time returned from attending a methodist sermon, and passed in a body along the bridge. Edinburgh.

The bridge was relieved and repaired, by pulling down the side-walls in some parts, and rebuilding them with chain bars; by removing the vast load of earth laid upon the bridge, and supplying its place with hollow arches thrown between the sides of the great arches; by raising the walls that went across the bridge to an additional height, so that the vaults springing from them might bring the road to a proper elevation, without much covering of earth; by throwing an arch of relief over the small south arch, which was shattered: And as there were rents in the walls, or at least as they had departed from the line at both ends of the bridge, the whole was supported by very strong buttresses and counter-forts at the south end, upon each side of the bridge, and upon which houses are erected; but at the north there is a counter-fort only upon the east side. The expence of the whole amounted to about L. 18,000. The bridge consists of three great arches with several small ones at each end, of the following dimensions: Width of the three great arches, 72 feet each; breadth or thickness of the piers, 13½ each; width of the small arches, 20 feet each; total

Edinburgh. length of the piers and arches, 310 feet; length of the bridge from the High Street to Prince's Street, 1125 feet; height of the great arches from the top of the parapet to the base, 68; breadth of the bridge within wall over the arches, 40; breadth at each end, 50 feet.

South Bridge. The South Bridge, thrown over the Cowgate, is in the same line with the North Bridge; but as the Cowgate is not so low as the North Loch, this bridge is a less elevated structure than the former. To the eye of a stranger, the existence of this bridge is not readily obvious; nothing is seen upon it but a level street with very regular and elegant buildings, of polished stone, on each side. And were it not that an opening is left at the central arch, over the street of the Cowgate, no trace of a bridge would appear. To form this work, which is now the regular communication across the city of Edinburgh from south to north, the lanes called *Niddry's*, *Merlin's*, and *Peeble's Wynds*, were pulled down; and, among others, one of the oldest houses in Edinburgh was removed, being that in which Queen Mary lodged in 1567, on the night after parting for ever from her favourite Bothwell at Carberry Hill. When the foundation of the central pier of the South Bridge was dug, to no less than twenty-two feet deep, many coins of Edward the First, Second, and Third were found. The foundation-stone was laid on the 1st of August 1785. The bridge, consisting of twenty-two arches, was built, the old houses removed, the elegant new buildings on both sides finished, the shops occupied, and the street opened for carriages, in March 1788—an operation of wonderful celerity, which proved a source, not of expence, but of profit to the public. The old buildings were purchased at a trifling cost, their value being fixed by verdicts of juries; while the areas on which they stood were sold, to erect the new buildings on each side of the bridge, for L. 30,000. In-

deed it was remarked, that the building ground on this occasion sold higher than perhaps ever was known in any city, even in Rome during its most flourishing times; being some of it at the rate of L. 96,000 *per* statute acre, and other areas at the rate of L. 100,000 *per* acre, and even as high as L. 150,000 *per* acre. It is recollected with regret, however, that amidst the efforts of public spirit and national good taste, which at this time were displayed in improving and adorning the capital of Scotland, various acts of unnecessary injustice were committed against individuals. Juries were found, who, in their zeal to give aid to the public projects, adjudged the old buildings at an extremely trifling valuation. Thus persons who had expended all they were worth in the purchase or improvement of houses, a thing not uncommon with people of a small capital in Edinburgh, were nearly ruined: But the evil was at length prevented from proceeding farther in this and similar cases, chiefly, it is believed, by the spirited resistance of the late Lord Henderland in behalf of certain minors whose guardian he was. Edinburgh.

Another communication between the centre of the city and the New Town of Edinburgh has of late years been opened, by means of a mound of earth laid from the Lawnmarket across the North Loch. This mound was made passable for carriages in three years. It is above 800 feet in length. On the north it is 58 feet in height, and on the south 92. The quantity of earth above the surface is 290,167 cubic yards: and from the nature of the soil, it is supposed to have sunk to such a degree, that there is now below ground half as much as appears above, or that, in other words, one-third of the whole mass is concealed from the view. Hence, as it stands at present, it amounts to 435,250 cubical yards of travelled earth; and if a cubical yard is held equal to three cart-loads, it will Earthen Mound.

Edinburgh. be found that this mound contains 1,305,780 loads in all. Had the work been performed at the expence of four pence *per* cart, digging, filling, and carrying, which is very moderate, the amount is L.32,643, 15 s. In fact, however, it cost the community nearly nothing. It is said to have originated in the following manner. George Boyd, a shopkeeper in the Lawn-market, who sold tartan, was extremely fond of visiting the New Town to observe the progress of the buildings by which the capital of his native country was about to be so remarkably extended and adorned. Finding it inconvenient to go round by the North Bridge, he prevailed with his neighbours to join with him in contributing a small sum of money to defray the expence of laying stepping stones across the North Loch, which, though drained, was still as at present a sort of swamp or morass. He next persuaded some of the persons employed in erecting houses in the New Town to convey to the same spot their rubbish, and the earth dug out in laying the foundations of their buildings. A tolerable foot-path was thus made, which in the neighbourhood received the appellation of *Geordie Boyd's Brig*. The advantage derived from an undertaking of the same sort, upon a greater scale, was soon perceived. Permission was granted to the builders in the New Town to deposit in this spot the whole earth and rubbish which they had occasion to remove. This was accepted as a privilege, because no place was found so convenient for that purpose. The magistrates obtained the authority of parliament for removing certain houses in the Lawn-market, to open a communication with the Mound by a regular street; and before he died, the original projector of the work had the mortification to see his own shop pulled down for this purpose.

Southern District. The SOUTHERN DISTRICT of Edinburgh is a mixture of ancient and of modern buildings, in which, upon the

whole, the latter predominate. From the Cowgate to the summit of the ridge, the buildings are in the most ancient style; and two streets, called the *Potter-row* and *Pleasance*, are narrow and mean. Nicolson's street, however, which is a continuation of the two bridges, is of a very different character, exhibiting, at least towards its northern extremity, a considerable degree of the substantial elegance which appears in the modern architecture of the city of Edinburgh. George's square also, which is very spacious and regular, consists of buildings reared in the best taste. As the ground declines towards the southern side of this square, which is contiguous to the public walk called the *Meadow*, it is one of the most chearful residences in Edinburgh, on account of its rural prospects, and of its receiving a very large portion of the direct rays of the sun—a circumstance not unacceptable in this climate during nine months of the year. The two lesser squares in this district, Argyle's square and Brown's square, being situated on the northern declivity, have not the same advantages. In general, as no plan was adopted by the public in the original building of the southern district, it has been irregularly executed, according to the accidental views and interests of individuals. As a considerable part of it was reared with a view towards the accommodation of the students attending the University, which is here situated, the houses are in general raised to a considerable height, intended to be possessed by separate families in each story for the accommodation of lodging houses. Edinburgh.

The western part of the southern district is occupied by various hospitals; and beyond these is a very mean suburb called *Portsburgh*, from its vicinity to the western port or gate of the city.

The Northern District of Edinburgh, called the NEW New Town.

Edinburgh. Town, may well be considered as the pride of Scotland. It is equalled in regularity, elegance, and magnificence, by no city in the world. It may be regarded as consisting of two parts: One of these is the New Town as originally designed in 1767, which now wants only a few houses to render it complete; and the other part consists of additional buildings erected or erecting to the east and the north of the former.

The New Town, as originally designed, is situated, as already mentioned, upon the summit of a horizontal ridge. It is laid out in the form of a parallelogram, whose sides measure 3900 feet by 1090. Its principal longitudinal streets are three: *George Street*, *Prince's Street*, and *Queen Street*. George Street, which runs from east to west along the summit of the ridge, and forms the centre, is said to have no rival in Europe. It is 115 feet broad: It terminates in a superb square at each end. The whole houses are of an uniform height, three stories above the street independent of the roof, all executed of the finest hewn stone. In front of the houses there is a sunk area, which gives light to a lower story. The sunk areas are enclosed by an iron railing of an uniform height. The street is furnished, like all the principal streets of Edinburgh, with a broad smooth pavement of hewn stone on each side for foot passengers, and the centre with a strong causeway of basaltic blue stone, here called *whinstone*. It is obtained in abundance from the neighbouring rocks of Arthur Seat, and is used for paving the whole city and suburbs. Parallel to George Street, forming the boundaries of the parallelogram of the New Town on the north and the south, are the two streets or rows, of similar beauty and magnificence, called *Queen Street* and *Prince's Street*. The former of these is a terrace overlooking the

descending grounds to the north; and the latter is a similar terrace looking down upon the North Loch upon the south, beyond which ascend the rugged rocks and fortifications of the Castle, and the crowded and lofty buildings of the Old Town. Edinburgh.

Parallel to George Street, and between it and Prince's Street, a meaner and narrower street, called *Rose Street*, has been judiciously interposed for the convenience of an inferior class of inhabitants. On the north, *Thistle Street* occupies a similar situation between George Street and the Terrace or Row called *Queen Street*.

The New Town has seven streets, by which it is crossed at right angles from Prince's Street on the south to Queen Street on the north. These cross streets are not inferior in elegance to the principal or long streets; they all stand higher in their centre, where they cross George Street at the summit of the ridge, than where they approach at each end to Prince's Street and Queen Street; but the descent is gradual, being totally unlike the precipitous sides of the hill upon which the cross streets and lanes of the Old Town are built. The New Town was begun to be built at its eastern extremity adjoining to the North Bridge; and excepting a few houses in that quarter, it is entirely formed of the most beautiful hewn stone, obtained from the quarries in the neighbourhood, and sometimes from the foundations of the houses. It is a general rule, however, that the newest buildings are the most elegantly and correctly finished; and accordingly, in proportion as it proceeds westward, the New Town greatly improves in the beauty both of the workmanship and the materials of the buildings. Indeed, the front of the northern side of Charlotte Square, which is at the western extremity, exhibits an example of magnificence, good

Edinburgh. taste, delicate workmanship, and substantial materials, which is, perhaps, without example in any city.

Addition to the New Town. In addition to the parallelogram which formed the original plan of the New Town, a project has more recently been formed, and is now carrying into execution, for extending it down the whole declivity to the northward towards the small river called the *Water of Leith*, and eastward towards the town and port of Leith. These new buildings are executed in the same superb style with the western buildings of the New Town. They possess this disadvantage, however, that being situated upon a steep declivity, or side of a hill, the cross streets of communication are little less inconvenient than the precipitous closes and wynds of the Old Town. Besides these, however, as a continuation of Queen Street eastward, a street of equal or superior magnificence to the best part of George's street has been reared, under the appellation of *York Place*; and additional streets in that quarter are opening every year, although the war, by increasing the price of timber, has a tendency to impede their progress.

St James Square. To the eastward of the parallelogram, which formed the original area of the New Town, the ground has a slight ascent, after which it declines rapidly towards Leith on the east, towards the foot of the Calton-hill on the south, and towards York Place on the north. On this high ground *James Square* is situated; but as it was built, not upon a public, but in consequence of a private plan by the proprietor of the ground, the houses are more lofty than those of the rest of the New Town; and beyond the square, the northern, eastern, and southern declivities have been covered with buildings in successive rows, which are seen towering aloft above each other like the seats of a theatre. They possess many of the inconveniences of the crowded buildings in the centre of the city; but

they are attended with this advantage, that to a stranger ascending towards Edinburgh by the principal London road, which is now by Leith, they give to this entrance of the city an aspect of wonderful, and perhaps unexampled magnificence. Edinburgh.

The City of Edinburgh, which we have thus generally described, is nearly seven miles in circumference. It is undoubtedly, upon the whole, an object of no small curiosity. The durability of the materials of which its buildings have been reared, together with the rapid improvements which have taken place within the last forty years, enable it to exhibit at once the dwellings and the accommodation required by the same people in very different states of society, and in remote periods of their history. The houses may still be seen in which the proudest and the wealthiest of the Scottish nobles and gentry formerly found adequate accommodation for a city residence, but which are now occupied by ordinary mechanics and the lowest tradesmen; while in their immediate vicinity, and in full view, a city of palaces has been reared, which marks strongly by contrast the altered state of this part of the British empire.

In consequence of the extreme irregularity of the soil, the vicinity of the Frith of Forth, and the fertility of the adjoining country, it is perhaps impossible to find in the world a situation presenting such a boundless variety as occurs in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, of beautiful, magnificent, and singular scenery. At every step that we advance the prospect alters, and objects already seen appear in different points of view, or new objects ascend into notice. In particular, the views from the western part of Queen Street, from the Calton-hill, from the Castle-hill, from Salisbury Craigs, from a variety of situations on the adjoining hills, and more especially from the towering summit Scenery around Edinburgh.

Edinburgh. of Arthur Seat, are inconceivably magnificent, on account of the new points of view in which they exhibit this large city and the adjoining sea, with its cultivated shores, abounding on both sides in all the necessaries and luxuries of life which a prosperous and skilful agriculture can produce, and also in a great variety of the most valuable mineral treasures. It would be an almost boundless task to point out the picturesque scenes to be seen in the immediate vicinity of Edinburgh. The course of the Water of Leith exhibits a considerable number of them; and from every quarter of the country the city itself, with its towering castle, and its lofty and irregular buildings, forms a conspicuous object. For the sake of strangers, however, and even of many of the negligent and indolent natives, one position ought not to pass unnoticed. It is within view of Queen Street, upon the summit of the high ridge towards the west, already mentioned, called *Corstorphine Hill*. At the summit of one of the eminences of this ridge, Mr Keith of Ravelston has built two walls crossing each other, and in each of the four angles formed by them a seat is placed. To the person seated in each angle, a separate view exhibits itself of the City of Edinburgh and its mountainous precincts; of the Frith of Forth and its islands; of an irregular and beautifully wooded country; and, lastly, of the rich cultivated valley which stretches to the westward of Edinburgh Castle. It is probable that there scarcely exists in the British island a spot from which an equal selection of rich, extensive, and beautiful scenes, can be beheld to such advantage. The good taste with which the spot has been chosen, and the simplicity of the means adopted for the advantageous display of the scenery, cannot be too much praised. It is to be remarked, however, that the most magnificent of all the views of the city of Edinburgh and

View from Corstorphine Hills.

its vicinity, and that which seems most completely to defy imagination to conceive any thing more splendid, is that which is obtained from the most southern eminence of the same ridge. Edinburgh.

From its elevated and airy position, Edinburgh is, upon the whole, placed in a healthy, though inconvenient situation. One remarkable inconvenience which attends a considerable part of it, and which has, in all ages, attracted the notice of strangers, must not here be passed over. In constructing the central part of the city, the important convenience of common sewers was neglected. Hence the practice could not be avoided of casting out in the evening into the streets all manner of filth. About midnight, therefore, a stranger passing along any part of the Old Town, and of those parts of the southern district which are built in imitation of it, never fails to be shockingly disgusted. All is removed by scavengers in the morning; and such is the effect of the situation on which Edinburgh stands, exposing it to every wind that blows, that no inconvenience is produced during the day from this practice of the preceding night, and the salubrity of the atmosphere is in no way affected by it. In the New Town, and in the better quarters of the southern district, the existence of common sewers prevents the practice alluded to. Climate of Edinburgh.

If any inconvenience attend the climate of Edinburgh, it is chiefly that which results from its exposure to high winds. These chiefly blow from the west or the east. A north or a south wind is very rarely of long continuance. The west winds are the most common and the most violent, sometimes raging in Edinburgh with incredible fury. They sweep along an uninterrupted plain of almost 14 miles in length, hemmed in by the Pentland Hills on the south, and by high grounds on the north, till Winds.

Edinburgh. they reach Edinburgh Castle, which is the first object by which, for many miles, they are in any degree opposed. The stream of air divided by the lofty rocks of the Castle hurries along the south and north sides of the city with great violence; houses blown down, large trees torn up by the roots, carriages overturned, and people carried off their feet, and beat down upon the pavement, are, in some seasons, not uncommon circumstances in Edinburgh. Mr Arnot, in his history of this city, remarks, that on Saturday the 7th of January 1778, the Leith guard, consisting of a serjeant and twelve men of the 70th regiment, were all of them blown off the Castle-hill, and some of them severely hurt.

The east winds do not blow with equal violence, but they are attended with the inconvenience of producing a sense of intense cold. They prevail chiefly during the spring months, or in the month of May. The sky is on such occasions usually of a brown hazy appearance, or a damp fog is brought up the Frith by means of them, which often covers the city and the adjoining country. Catarrhs, and other symptoms of cold, are, on these occasions, extremely frequent. In the High Street of Edinburgh, a wind coming from the east, to which in its whole length it lies exposed, is very severely felt; and if the wind is in any other direction, it blows up every lane or close as through a funnel, so that a person passing along the side pavement of the street encounters a severe blast at every few yards distance. Thus the air of this city being continually changed is at all times pure. The inconvenience attending lofty and crowded buildings is greatly diminished, and is even by some persons accounted no evil; as in such a climate a due portion of warmness is thought to be no less necessary to the welfare of the human constitution, than to breathe a free and pure

atmosphere. Certain it is, that in the narrowest lanes and most confined situations of the city, both young and old persons are found who possess abundantly ruddy and vigorous complexions. Edinburgh.

The excellent water with which Edinburgh is supplied, is undoubtedly not a little conducive to the health of the inhabitants. It appears that, as far back as the year 1621, a design had been entertained of conveying water to Edinburgh from a distance, and an act of the Scots parliament authorised the measure; but it was not till 1674 that any effectual steps were taken for that purpose. At that time the Town Council of Edinburgh engaged to pay to Peter Braschie, a German, L. 2950 for bringing in a leaden pipe of three inches diameter water from Comieston, about four miles to the south-west of the city, to a reservoir to be erected on the Castle-hill, from which it was to be distributed to different public wells in the city. A larger pipe of $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter was laid at a future period from the lands of Swanston. Preceding 1767, the reservoir at Comieston received four distinct streams of water from the same number of pipes; and these, at the fullest discharge into the cistern, are estimated from 800 to 900 Scots pints of water (near seven hogsheads) per minute; but at other times, when the discharge into the fountain-head is less, or rather in the usual heat in summer, from 150 to 170. The reservoir at Comieston is elevated 44 feet above the level of the reservoir on the Castle-hill. When the fountain-head at Comieston is full, the great pipe at the Castle-hill discharges 210 Scots pints per minute (nearly equal to 840 English) into the great reservoir in town, which contains 140,472 Scots pints, or 291 tons 3 hogsheads and 6 gallons. This supply of water being found insufficient, in consequence of the increased number of buildings, in 1787 an additional Water.

Edinburgh. new pipe of five inches diameter was laid, and in 1790 another of seven inches. In consequence of these, private families in Edinburgh, for an annual payment of 10s. 6d. or L. 1 : 1s. according to circumstances, are enabled to obtain water, to be conveyed in all quarters of the city into cisterns placed in their cellars or kitchens. In many lofty buildings the water is in this manner conveyed to the highest stories of the houses, to supply the families that reside there. This is rendered practicable by the elevated situation of the city's reservoir on the Castle-hill. After all, however, in unusually dry seasons, the springs sometimes fail to such a degree as to occasion considerable inconvenience to private families. As water is an article of the first necessity, and requisite in a great number of manufactures, it would probably be a wise measure in the municipal government of every city to adopt measures by aqueducts, great pipes, or other works, for obtaining an abundant provision of that article for all necessary uses; so that distillers, brewers, dyers, and all other manufacturers or artists, might be supplied upon moderate terms.

A singular act of prodigality, with regard to the supply of Edinburgh with water, ought not to pass unnoticed. Of late years the Magistrates and Town Council of Edinburgh dug out of the earth the greater part of the leaden pipes which their ancestors had laid at an expence, it is said, of nearly L. 40,000, and substituted cast-iron pipes in their stead. This was done to raise a sum of 6 or L. 7000 by the sale of the old lead. Thus instead of pipes of an almost perpetual endurance, a material is now employed, which must speedily require to be renewed, in consequence of the chemical action of the water upon the iron.

Fuel. There is abundance of fuel, consisting of pit-coal, in the vicinity of Edinburgh, as that mineral is found not

only in the county, but to a great distance along both the shores of the Frith of Forth. The supply, however, is sometimes irregular, from causes which shall be noticed when we come to treat of the county at large. The smoke of the pit-coal has, in the course of time, given to the ancient white free-stone buildings of the city that dusky hue which distinguishes them, and which must always give to a city, the houses of which are built of stone and covered with slates, a more sombre or dull aspect than where the more perishing materials of bricks and tiles are employed. Edinburgh.

The state of society in Edinburgh is such as naturally results from the class of persons by whom it is inhabited or frequented. It is still regarded as the capital of a considerable division of the island; and all those families of the nobility and gentry, whose fortunes do not enable them to encounter the expence of a residence in London, resort to this city for the enjoyment of society, and for the education of their children. Hence persons of title and rank abound in Edinburgh. As Scotchmen are accustomed to wander in quest of fortune to all quarters of the globe, considerable numbers of those who have returned with success from the pursuit are led to resort to the capital of their native country. Many English families have also of late years come hither, whose fortunes, though not adequate to the enormous expence requisite to a splendid establishment in the capital of the island, are yet sufficient to enable them here to gain admission into the society of persons of rank. Of those engaged in business in Edinburgh, the members of the profession of the law take the lead. Including all denominations or orders, they are supposed to amount to between 2000 and 3000 persons, who with their families form a considerable part of the population of Edinburgh. When along with these we State of society.

Edinburgh. consider the numbers connected with the university, amounting to from 1200 to 1500, the character of society in Edinburgh must be evident. It is generally polite and intelligent; and there is probably no city in the world, of the same extent, in which so great a proportion of the inhabitants consist of well-informed persons. The trading part of the community consists chiefly of artists or shopkeepers, employed in supplying the wants and the luxuries of the numerous classes of wealthy inhabitants that have either a temporary or a permanent residence here. The general politeness and intelligence which evidently prevail among all ranks of persons seem to be produced, partly by the literature which is so universally diffused through Scotland, and is more general at the seat of an university; and partly also by the facility with which persons of different ranks intermingle with each other, on account of the moderate extent of the circle of respectable society, which does not enable any class or rank to associate exclusively with its own members.

The lower class of inhabitants in Edinburgh are upon the whole of a very regular and decent character. In the most populous streets of the southern district, where no watch of any kind is ever kept, the utmost safety to property in general prevails; and after midnight there is the deepest silence in the remote streets and lanes. The same may be remarked concerning the rest of the city, with the exception of the great public streets; in which however it is extremely rare that any peaceable passenger encounters an injury.

Luxury. At the same time, Edinburgh is in some respects a place of great luxury, in consequence of its being the resort of so many idle persons in easy circumstances. Excepting by young men and strangers, however, taverns are not greatly frequented, unless when parties of both sexes are

assembled there for the sake of daneing, which in Scotland is a favourite amusement. In private houses, the chief luxury is that of the table. It is carried to a great extent; and in the middle orders of society, very considerable incomes are expended in giving and receiving frequent feasts, at which no expence is spared. The excellence and variety of the different articles of butcher's meat and fish and fowl, which the Edinburgh markets afford, present some temptation to this mode of living. In addition to these, however, few dinners are made by private persons for their friends, in which a variety of dishes are not introduced from the shop of the pastry-cook. This expensive mode of living, with the habits attending it, results from that emulation which naturally arises among all orders of persons in a city, and which here takes this turn from the convivial temper of Scotsmen, added to the numbers of idle people in affluent circumstances assembled at Edinburgh. It is injurious to persons engaged in industry, as retarding the acquisition of independence; and it frequently introduces a taste for pleasure into the minds of young Scotsmen, which, when they go to other countries, too often delays the progress of their fortunes. Edinburgh.

The luxury of dress is also carried to a very considerable height by the middle orders of persons in this city. The beautiful and spacious pavement of hewn stone which adorns the sides of all the principal streets, together with the public walks of the Calton-hill and Leith-walk on the north, and of the Meadow on the south, afford a powerful temptation to the amusement of walking; and accordingly these last, together with the principal streets, especially of the New Town, form places of public parade, where great numbers of well-dressed idle persons are seen on fine weather enjoying the exercise of Luxury of Dress.

Edinburgh. walking, or rather gratifying the vanity of displaying themselves. It follows from this, that all persons are under a sort of necessity of paying more attention to personal appearance than is elsewhere observed, before they venture to appear on the public streets. Such a degree of ceremony prevails, that gentlewomen are absurdly ashamed to be seen with their own children in their arms.

Whisky. But these evils ought probably to be regarded as trifling when compared with those which result from an article of luxury greatly indulged in by the common people of this city, and more or less of every part of Scotland; that is to say, from their favourite liquor *whisky*. Towards the close of the late years of scarcity, when government found it still necessary, by way of precaution, to continue the restraint of the manufacture of this commodity, and to enforce, as formerly, by severe penalties, the prohibition against distillation, the health, the morals, and the circumstances of the common people of Edinburgh and Leith were visibly and rapidly ameliorated. Their families were better cloathed, great numbers of them purchased eight-day clocks and other costly articles of furniture by their accumulations; because their industry was uninterrupted by intemperance, and no temptation to idleness was thrown in their way. The pernicious manufacture of whisky was no sooner restored than this happy train of affairs was altered; and the scenes of misery, too frequent among the common people of great cities, again made their appearance, aggravated by disgraceful instances of intemperance, which appeared at times even in the public streets and highways about the city. It is undoubtedly a misfortune to this country, that the wants of the British treasury should induce government at all to tolerate a pernicious manufacture, which, when obtained at a cheap rate, proves so utterly ruinous to the health and the morals of the lower classes of people,

and more particularly to women of that rank. So general, or rather so universal, is the evil, that a woman of low rank is scarcely to be found, whatever her character in other respects may be, who does not at forty years of age become less or more addicted to the use of spirituous liquors. The temptation is so irresistible, that to purchase this pernicious liquor, great numbers of them reduce themselves and their families to misery. The government of China, we are told, strictly prohibits the manufacture and importation of opium, a drug of a similar quality; and why the British government should account itself at liberty to have less regard for the morals of the people is not obvious. Edinburgh.

Edinburgh contains more objects worthy of attention than most other cities; for this reason, that it not only possesses such public establishments as are common to all great towns, but having been once a seat of government, it contains many buildings and institutions peculiar to the capital of a kingdom.—Having given the above general survey of it, we shall arrange our remaining remarks upon the objects deserving notice in it under the following heads: We shall consider its establishments, 1*st*, For the support of religion; 2*dly*, For literature; 3*dly*, The charitable institutions; 4*thly*, The establishments for public amusement; 5*thly*, The public banks and municipal institutions of this city; and, 6*thly*, Its political establishments. We shall next give an account of the harbour and suburb of Leith, with the commerce, manufactures, and population of the whole; and shall conclude with a very concise view of the history of Edinburgh and Leith. Interesting objects in Edinburgh.

RELIGIOUS ESTABLISHMENTS OF EDINBURGH.

The whole of what is called the *Ancient Royal Borough* or *Royalty of the City of Edinburgh*, is considered as one Ecclesiastical division of the City.

Edinburgh. parish, to which the New Town has been annexed; and this is called the *Parish of St Giles*. Under this parish the Canongate is not included, which forms a separate parish by itself; nor is the greater part of the southern district included, nor the buildings in the New Town beyond the regular parallelogram or plan adopted by the public for that part of the city. These belong to the parish of St Cuthbert's, which includes a considerable part of the adjoining country. The town of Leith has also a distinct ecclesiastical establishment, and is divided into two parishes, called the *North* and the *South*. In Edinburgh and Leith, the regular established clergy of the presbyterian church, who receive salaries from the public, are twenty-four in number. Of these, three belong to Leith, two to the Canongate, and two to St Cuthbert's, commonly called the *West Kirk*. The remainder are allotted to the new and old divisions of the Royal Borough of Edinbugh, the magistrates of which are their patrons. Besides these, however, there are some other churches connected with the establishment, called *Chapels of Ease*; the incumbents of which are supported chiefly, like dissenters, from the revenue collected from the rents of the seats in their churches. Of these chapels of ease, there is one in the parish of St Cuthbert's, two in the Canongate, one in the ancient part of the city of Edinburgh, and one in Leith, besides a chapel in which the Gaelic or Erse language is preached, for the accommodation of the lower class of persons who resort to Edinburgh from the Highlands, and who act in great numbers in the capacity of chairmen, porters, and servants.

St Giles. The CHURCH OF ST GILES, as the ancient Cathedral of Edinburgh, naturally takes the lead in an account of the religious establishments of the city. As already men-

tioned, it is situated in the High Street, and forms the northern boundary of the Parliament Square or Close. It measures in length from east to west, over the walls, 206 feet; at the west end it is 110 feet broad, and in the middle 129, but at the east only 76. It is a beautiful Gothic building, and is adorned with a lofty square tower, the top of which is encircled with open figured stone-work, resembling the ornaments that enrich the circle of an imperial crown. From each side and each corner of the tower rises a slip of stone-work, which, meeting in the top with that which springs from the opposite side, forms four arches, intersecting each other, and completing the figure of an imperial crown, the top of which terminates in a pointed spire. The church is built on a very elevated situation, and the height of the spire is a hundred and sixty-one feet. Edinburgh.

St GILES, abbot and confessor, and patron of this church, was the tutelar saint of Edinburgh. The legend concerning him states, that he was born in Greece in the sixth century, and descended of illustrious parentage. Both his parents being dead, he gave all his wealth to the poor, and left his native country. He travelled into France; and retiring into the deep recesses of a wilderness near the conflux of the Rhone with the sea, he continued there for three years, living entirely upon the spontaneous produce of the earth, and the milk of a deer. He was reputed a person of great virtue and sanctity, and, like other popish saints, various miracles were attributed to him. He founded a monastery in Languedoc, which was long after known by the name of *St Giles*, and induced many to embrace a life of retirement and devotion. In the reign of James II. Preston of Gorton got possession of an arm-bone of the holy man, which he bequeathed to the church of St Giles in Edinburgh, and the relique was History of St Giles.

Edinburgh. kept among the treasures of the church till the reformation. At what time the present fabric was reared does not appear, but it was long in great estimation as a religious establishment, and about 40 altars were founded in it. In 1466 James III. erected it into a collegiate church; of which the chapter consisted of a provost, curate, 16 prebendaries, a minister of the choir, four choristers, a sacristan, and beadle. At the reformation, the sacred utensils belonging to this church were seized and sold by the magistrates of Edinburgh. The money was applied, after repairing the church, to augment the ordinary funds of the incorporation. The church itself was divided by partition walls; and its principal apartments are still used as four separate churches, under the appellation of the *New Church*, the *Old Church*, the *Tolbooth Church*, which is adjoining to the prison, and *Haddow's Hole Church*, so called from a gentleman of that name having been confined in it. To each of these churches two clergymen are allotted. The new church is formed out of the choir of St Giles. It is considered as the principal church of the city; it has been fitted up in an elegant manner, with a gallery which goes along the two sides and one of its ends. In this gallery is a seat or ornamented throne for the king, which is used by the Commissioner to the General Assembly of the church. In the same gallery there are seats for the Magistrates of Edinburgh, and for the Judges of the two Courts of Session and Exchequer, who attend divine service here during the time of session, in their respective robes. The pulpit and the front of the gallery are covered with crimson velvet fringed with gold.

Division of the Cathedral.

The lesser apartments of this church are allotted to other purposes. One of them accommodates the General Assembly during its sittings, and others are made use of as public offices belonging to the incorporation of the

city. In this church, on the 13th of October 1643, the solemn league and covenant was sworn to and subscribed by the Committee of Estates, Commissioners of the Church, and the English Commissioners, Sir Willliam Ermen, Sir Henry Vane, and Mr Marshall. In different quarters of the building are to be found the monuments of the celebrated Lord Napier of Merchesto, inventor of the logarithms, of James Earl of Murray, natural son of King James V. and regent of Scotland, and of the great Marquis of Montrose, all of whom were here interred. Edinburgh.

What is called the COLLEGE CHURCH is the second in point of antiquity in the city of Edinburgh. It is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture, but the plan of the building has never been completed. Only the choir, the central tower, and the cross of the church, have been erected. It was founded by Mary of Guelders, Queen of James II. in 1462. It was a collegiate church, consisting of a provost, eight prebendaries, and two choristers. The body of the foundress is interred in the north aisle of the church. The remaining churches of the city were built since the reformation. College Church.

The OLD and NEW GREYFRIARS CHURCHES form one building, but contain nothing remarkable, excepting that they are built upon ground which formerly belonged to the monastery of the Greyfriars, as they were called, and stand in the midst of the most public cemetry of Edinburgh; in which are to be found many monuments, which have little remarkable in their sculpture, but which mark the spot where the ashes are deposited of a considerable number of distinguished Scottish characters. Here, in particular, is a monument erected to the memory of the celebrated Sir George Mackenzie, still vulgarly denominated in Scotland the *bloody Mackenzie*, first earl of Cromarty, who was public prosecutor, or Lord Advocate, during the turbulent, and, in Scot- Greyfriars.

Edinburgh. land, unhappy times between the restoration and the revolution. There is also a monument to the memory of the unfortunate persons whom he prosecuted, of whom about 100 in number perished in Edinburgh by the hands of the public executioner. They are here denominated by the Presbyterian party *martyrs*.—The following epitaph, on the south wall of this building, upon a stone placed there by the late Hon. John M'Laurin Lord Dreghorn, a Judge of the Court of Session, to the memory of his father, who had been appointed to the mathematical chair in the University of Edinburgh by the advice of Sir Isaac Newton, is worthy of attention on account of the elegance with which it is expressed;

Infra situs est
COLIN M'LAURIN,
Mathes. Olim in Acad. Edin. Prof.
Electus ipso Newtono suadente.
H. L. P. F.
Non ut nomini paterno consulat,
Nam tali auxilio nil eget;
Sed ut in hoc infelici campo,
Ubi luctus regnant et pavor,
Mortalibus prorsus non absit solatium.
Hujus enim scripta evolve,
Mentemque tantarum rerum capacem
Corpori caduco superstitem crede.

It was long a complaint that this burying ground was much too crowded, as the grave-diggers frequently cannot avoid encroaching upon ground unfit to be touched. The climate of Edinburgh, however, and the high winds which prevail here, never suffered any bad effects to result from this circumstance; and considerable relief is now obtained by opening new burying-grounds in

the southern district, and on the Calton-hill; in which last the celebrated David Hume, the historian of England, is interred, and his monument, an unornamented round tower, is conspicuous from the North Bridge. Edinburgh.

The TRON CHURCH, so called from its vicinity in former times to the tron, or public beam for weighing merchandize, was opened for religious worship in the year 1647. It is now a very conspicuous object, by its standing at the point in the centre of the Old Town where the two bridges communicate with each other. Three sides of it have been recently rebuilt; which was done by carrying up the new walls within, and when they were finished, the old walls were pulled down, and the new parts appeared as if they had been moulded within the old. Its old northern front remains, which is very handsome. Tron Church.

LADY ESTHER'S CHURCH was a building of moderate extent, situated in the southern district, near the Infirmary and the High School. It owed its origin to a donation by Dame Margaret Ker Lady Esther in 1674. It has lately been pulled down on account of its having fallen into decay, and is now rebuilding. Lady Esther's Church.

Anciently the Abbey Church of Holyroodhouse was the parish church of the Canongate; but James VII. during his residence in Scotland, having ordered that church to be set apart as a chapel-royal, the inhabitants of the Canongate were under the necessity of building the present church for themselves, which is constructed in the ancient fashion, in the form of a cross. It is a large building, and contains seats appropriated to several of the nobility, who once resided in the Canongate. Canongate Church.

The Church of St CUTHBERT'S is chiefly remarkable within, as a large building well adapted to contain a very numerous congregation, and without as a coarse stone building, which has recently been ornamented with a St Cuthbert's Church.

Edinburgh. spire, but which, in other respects, resembles a great barn, and is totally unsuitable to the situation in which it is placed, being on a detached spot rising from the west end of the North Loch, where it is held up to the view of the whole length of Prince's Street, and forms a contrast to the finished elegance of the private houses in the west end of that street.

St Andrew's Church. The last founded church in Edinburgh is that called St ANDREW'S. It is a handsome oval building, situated on the north side of George Street, in the New Town. It has an elegant portico, supported by four Corinthian pillars towards the street, upon which it slightly encroaches. The tapering spire is a beautiful piece of architecture, and has a chime of eight bells, which are rung upon Sundays and on remarkable holidays. This entertainment is a favourite one in England, but gives little pleasure in Scotland. Upon the bells being placed in this spire, the rents of the houses in the neighbourhood sunk considerably, as the noise made by them was disliked.

The CHAPELS of EASE in Edinburgh have nothing peculiar in their structure. They are modern fabrics, commodiously executed.

Episcopal Chapels. There are several EPISCOPAL CHAPELS in Edinburgh. The principal one is situated in the Cowgate. The foundation of it was laid by Gen. Sir Adolphus Oughton, then commander-in-chief, and grand-master of the free-masons, on the 3d of April 1771. It is a plain handsome building, 90 feet long by 75 broad. It is ornamented with a spire, and has an excellent bell, which once belonged to the Chapel of Holyroodhouse, and which is permitted to be rung for assembling the congregation. The Chapel is attended chiefly by genteel people, or persons of some rank, for the common people of Scotland are almost universally very strict Presbyterians. Their chief cause of

quarrel with the established church is, that its clergy are sometimes suspected of not being sufficiently tenacious of the doctrines of Calvinism, or of not being sufficiently zealous for the pure Presbyterian mode of church government. Hence the *Dissenters*, who are extremely numerous in Edinburgh, consist in general of different sorts of Presbyterians, chiefly distinguished from each other by the degrees of strictness with which they adhere to the Presbyterian opinions. A new sect has, indeed, of late sprung up, to which many of the common people, and some others, have attached themselves, which, in conjunction with the English Methodists, represents forms of church government as of little importance. Edinburgh. Dissenters.

It is to be observed that the principal dissenting Presbyterian clergymen of Edinburgh, are men of uncommon respectability, on account of their distinguished talents, and the enlightened liberality of character which they display. Present state of Religion.

During these last twenty years a very conspicuous alteration has taken place in the religious habits of the inhabitants of Edinburgh. Before that period, during the time of divine service, nobody was to be seen on the streets, and complete solitude prevailed over the public walks in the neighbourhood. Individual exceptions to this occurred, but they were rare; and it would have been accounted a strange breach of decorum to have seen females seeking amusement, by walking abroad at these hours. The state of manners is now greatly changed. The streets are seen covered with people on Sunday during divine service, and numbers of persons of all ranks and of both sexes are to be met with wandering idly about the environs of the city, or into public gardens during the summer. It may be true, that among a people so well educated as the Scots nation generally are, attendance upon public worship, as the means of receiving instruction,

Edinburgh. may not be very necessary: But even in Scotland, in a great city, there are considerable numbers of persons so illiterate, that this rule is not applicable to them. It is likewise to be remarked, that, independent altogether of the utility of public worship as a source of instruction, its influence upon public morals is very great, by keeping up sentiments of devotion, and a conviction of the presence and of the superintendence of an over-ruling Providence. On this account, though men of sense must regard with satisfaction the extinction of that intolerant spirit which too frequently formed a conspicuous feature of the religion of our forefathers, yet they cannot fail to regard with some apprehension the present general decline of the influence of religious sentiments, especially among persons of defective education. It is usually observed in Edinburgh, that the soberest and the best servants are those who attach themselves to some particular religious sect. By doing so, they not only preserve in their own minds those motives for good conduct which religion superadds to the laws of the land, and to the rules of common prudence, but by submitting to that sort of superintendence which the Presbyterian form of church government confers upon the minister and his kirk-session, their conduct becomes, in some measure, exposed to public notice, and they escape from that state of obscurity and want of personal importance which leads the common people in towns so readily to disregard all rules of propriety.

Society for propogating Christian Knowledge.

As connected with this subject, we may here take notice of an institution of great importance; which is the *Society for Propogating Christian Knowledge.* It was indebted for its institution, in 1701, to the zealous aversion to popery which prevailed among our ancestors; and its object was to root out the remains of that ancient religious and political system of superstition from the Highlands

and islands of Scotland, by the best and the most unexcep- Edinburgh.
tionable of all means, that of establishing schools in these remote and barbarous parts of the country, for instructing children in reading and writing, and in the principles of the Protestant religion. The design was approved of by a royal proclamation in 1708; and on the 25th of May 1709, Queen Anne constituted the society into a body corporate, for propagating Christian knowledge, and erecting and maintaining schools. To aid the purpose of the institution, a sum of L. 1000 is annually presented by his Majesty. The society, by a variety of donations, has become very wealthy. It is long since its capital exceeded L. 100,000. The original plan has been enlarged to the instruction of children in trades and manufactures; and for that purpose a new charter was obtained from his late Majesty. The Society has many schools; which have, in a considerable degree, accomplished the object of the persons who originally instituted the society. Its affairs are chiefly under the management of churchmen.

LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

AMONG the Literary Establishments of Edinburgh the UNIVERSITY naturally takes the lead. Having been in- University.
stituted after the Reformation, among a frugal people that had no love for ecclesiastical dignities, it differs greatly from the wealthy foundations which receive the name of *universities* and *colleges* in England, or in the catholic countries of the continent of Europe, The University of Edinburgh consists of a single college, which enjoys the privilege of conferring degrees. It consists of a Principal, with a salary of L. 111 : 2 : $0\frac{2}{3}$, whose office is in a great measure nominal, and of a professor in each of the following departments:

Edinburgh.

Faculty of Theology.

	Salaries.		
Divinity	L. 161	2	0¾
Church History	100	0	0
Oriental Languages	119	12	8

Faculty of Law.

Law of Nature and Nations.—Salary variable, but always above	300	0	0
Civil Law	100	0	0
Scots Law	100	0	0
Civil History and Antiquities	100	0	0

Faculty of Medicine.

Anatomy and Surgery	50	0	0
Practice of Medicine	—		—
Botany	77	15	6⅟₇
Materia Medica	—		—
Chemistry	—		—
Theory of Medicine	—		—
Midwifery	—		—
Natural History	—		—

Faculty of Arts.

Moral Philosophy	102	4	5⅟₇
Rhetoric and Belles Lettres	70	0	0
Greek	52	4	5⅟₇
Latin	52	10	0
Natural Philosophy	52	4	5⅟₇
Mathematics	113	6	8
Practical Astronomy	100	0	0
Logic	52	4	5⅟₇
Agriculture	50	0	0

Of these, the professors of church history and natural

history, astronomy, law of nature and nations, and rhetoric, are in the gift of the crown. The professor of agriculture was nominated by Sir William Pultney, founder of the institution. The remaining chairs are in the gift of the town-council of Edinburgh. Besides these classes here enumerated, the medical professors alternately give clinical lectures upon the cases of the patients in the royal infirmary of Edinburgh; an institution to be afterwards noticed. Edinburgh.

All the professors, excepting the professor of divinity, receive fees from their students. The professors of the Greek and Latin languages have each two classes of more or less advanced students, and attend each class during two hours each day. Each of the professors of the different branches of science delivers to his students a daily lecture, which occupies rather less than an hour, but the professor of anatomy's lecture lasts about an hour and a half. The session of college endures annually from the beginning of November till the month of April; and each professor dismisses his students separately for the session when his course of lectures is finished; so that one class is sometimes dismissed a few weeks before another. The professors have no necessary intercourse with their students, and usually have no personal knowledge of them. There are here no public examinations or disputations; because Scotchmen disregard degrees, excepting the degree of Doctor in Medicine: And to obtain it, nothing more is necessary than to be able to undergo a fair trial, the essential part of which is privately gone about, and the professors make no inquiry about the personal history or connections of the student. The whole students, during their attendance at the university, reside with their relations if they are natives of the city; and if they come from a distance, they procure for themselves such lodg-

Edinburgh

ings as their circumstances afford. The professors in the university of Edinburgh, having only a small salary, or none at all, are under the necessity of attracting students by their literary industry alone, or by the reputation of their talents. The students, on the other hand, have no other inducement to attend any particular class than the improvement which they are sensible they derive from it. Long attendance is not expected; and even the medical degree, which is most valued, can be attained in three years.

Remarks on the mode of education.

This negligent mode of education, in which no sort of authority or discipline is exerted by the professors over their students, and in which every student is allowed to live as he finds convenient while attending the university, without incurring farther expence than the professors' fees, which for the highest class is only three guineas, is well suited to the character and situation of the Scottish nation. In this way great numbers of young persons of a spirited and active character, by employing their time with industry, are enabled to attain such a portion of literature as is sufficient for enabling them to assume a respectable character in the busy departments of life. Their pursuits of fortune are not delayed by a tedious academical course of study; while, at the same time, if at any future period of life they attain to affluence and leisure, they find their original stock of letters sufficient to enable them to prosecute any branch of science with success. At all events, during life, they remain impressed with a sense of the value of intellectual accomplishments. They endeavour to give the best education to their children; and in the possession of riches they are not likely to assume those self-sufficient and purse-proud manners which form the most disgusting effect of sudden and unexpected opulence.

In the meanwhile, it is evident that this kind of education is only suited to young men of limited prospects, who know that their success in life depends upon their industry. Accordingly, now that riches and luxury have begun to abound in Scotland, the sons of men of fortune, unless bred to the profession of the law, are sinking fast, with regard to literature, below the character of their forefathers, among whom learning was very general. To acquire a respectable share of it, and to bestow upon it due encouragement, were formerly considered as essential duties of every man of rank. Edinburgh.

Upon the whole, students at the University of Edinburgh may be said in a great degree to educate themselves and each other. The celebrity of the medical professors, and of the men of letters whom Edinburgh once produced and still contains, has here excited among young persons a powerful spirit of literary emulation or ambition, which has not yet diminished. The students form themselves into clubs or societies for mutual improvement in medicine, natural history, and general literature. Some of these societies have existed for a considerable time, have obtained royal charters, and number among their members many of the most distinguished literary characters. The members write essays, which are publicly read, and the sentiments they contain discussed at their weekly meetings. In some societies, in which elocution is accounted of importance, particular questions are discussed in those branches of science for the investigation of which the society has been instituted; and very eager, and sometimes eloquent, debates occur. As the science of medicine is that on account of which this University is most celebrated, the societies of students in this department are most numerous. Societies or clubs of students.

Some of the most eminent professors are said to have

Edinburgh. Societies of students, if proper?

disapproved of these societies, as having a tendency to withdraw the students from laborious and patient study, to generate a presumptuous disrespect for their teachers, and to render them superficial reasoners, attached to the particular systems of Brown, Cullen, or whatever else is in vogue, rather than able physicians and modest inquirers after truth. There is perhaps some truth in this censure. At the same time, from the distinguished character which men bred at the University of Edinburgh maintain, in all quarters of the globe, it seems probable that the energy of spirit, and the freedom of investigation, to which this mode of education gives rise, greatly overbalance the inconveniences attending it. In this world, good and evil, like light and darkness, are apt to tread extremely close upon the footsteps of each other; and we must remain satisfied with what is good, or at least with what is tolerable, without always requiring what is best.

History of the University.

This University, which is now attended by from 1200 to 1400 students, and consists of the classes already enumerated, arose slowly to its present importance. At first, in 1593, only one professor was appointed, Mr Robert Rollock; but afterwards it was made to consist of a principal, a professor of divinity, four teachers of philosophy, and a professor of Latin, called *Humanity*. Originally each professor continued to teach the same students till they left the University; but the improved plan was soon adopted of confining each professor to one particular branch. By degrees the various other professorships were instituted which have been already enumerated. The medical school was instituted in the course of the late century. Dr Monro Senior, having given lectures privately with great success upon anatomy, was invited by the Magistrates of the City to assume the character of a professor in the University. Other professorships in this branch

of science were instituted in a similar manner, in consequence of the previous success of the first professors in the character of private lecturers. It may be remarked also, that in another department, the chair of rhetoric and belles lettres was not instituted till the late celebrated Dr Hugh Blair had first been able to secure the attendance, in his own house, of a considerable number of students upon his course of lectures. Edinburgh.

The LIBRARY of the COLLEGE was founded before the University by Mr Clement Little, advocate, one of the commissaries of Edinburgh. It has been considerably increased by donations, and every student pays 2s. 6d. at least, for which he receives a ticket, entitling him to borrow books for a year on depositing their value. By the statute establishing literary property, every author, to secure the monopoly of his book, must give a copy to this library. From the nature of the funds by which it is supported, the library is thus rendered more numerous than select; but it is, nevertheless, kept in good order, and contains many valuable books, and some curiosities, such as the Original Contract of Mary Queen of Scots with the Dauphin of France; a Bohemian Protest against the Council of Constance for burning John Huss in the year 1417; with 105 seals of Bohemian and Moravian nobles annexed to it; some oriental manuscripts, &c. College Library.

As the original buildings of the College, or University, were extremely mean, a resolution was adopted to endevour to build a NEW COLLEGE by subscription. The foundation of it was accordingly laid on the 16th of November 1789, and no less than L. 32,000 was very speedily contributed. But it soon appeared that a radical error had been committed in the original project. A plan was adopted, which had been formed by the celebrated architect, Mr Adams, to execute which would require at least New College.

Edinburgh. L. 150,000; a sum not to be collected gratuitously in such a country as Scotland, more especially as it appeared in the progress of the work that great sums were expended upon a sunk story, and that buildings were meant to be erected of an extent altogether superfluous in an university, constituted like that of Edinburgh, to which nothing more is necessary than a moderate structure, containing an anatomical theatre, an apartment for each class of students, and suitable accommodation for the library; all of which, in a place where the materials for building are so abundant, might easily have been accomplished, even in a superb style, at the expence of less than L. 40,000. The result of adopting the extravagant plan chosen by the magistrates of Edinburgh was, that the work soon came to a stand, and speedily assumed the aspect of a cumbrous and mighty ruin, occupying a most conspicuous situation in the city, one of the sides of the southern extremity of the South Bridge. At length, by the aid of royal munificence, the front has been nearly completed; and thus it is rendered a very magnificent ornament to the street in which it is placed, though, like other great buildings in a city, it has the misfortune of being seen to much disadvantage, in consequence of being too closely pressed upon by the dwellings of the inhabitants. After an expenditure of upwards of L. 50,000, it is believed that not one third of the plan of the building is executed.

Botanic garden. As an institution connected with the University, the BOTANIC GARDEN may be mentioned, which is maintained by an allowance from government. It consists of five English acres, and is situated between Edinburgh and Leith, on a very suitable soil, consisting of a light sandy loam. In the centre of the garden a spring of water is formed into a bason, which serves as a residence for the aquatic plants. The garden contains a green-house and hot-houses for exotics. A very great variety of species

of plants is to be found in this garden, carefully arranged, named, and numbered according to the Linnæan system, and a course of lectures is given in it every summer. Edinburgh.

The physicians of Edinburgh, who are an incorporated society, have a hall for their meetings. It is in George Street, opposite to St Andrew's church. These two buildings, from the injudicious manner in which they have been placed, form the principal deformity of that regular and elegant street. On the one side the church encroaches, while over against it the Physicians Hall is injudiciously withdrawn from the street. In itself, however, this last is a handsome low building, 83 feet in length by 63 in breadth. It has a portico in front, which advances nine feet from the body of the building, and is supported by four Corinthian pillars of twenty-four feet in height. The plan was formed under the direction of the late celebrated Dr Cullen, then president of the college, and is considered as a very chaste imitation of the Greek architecture. Physicians Hall.

On the summit of the Calton-hill an OBSERVATORY is situated, to which the public have access at a moderate expence. It was built by Mr Short, the brother and executor of Mr James Short, a celebrated optician in London. Mr Short brought to Edinburgh his brother's apparatus, and particularly a large reflecting telescope. He received some assistance from the contributions of individuals, but the work has been left unfinished. Scotchmen hitherto have in general been unable to devote much of their time to those branches of speculative science which do not directly lead to emolument; and accordingly this establishment remains neglected, because the public feel themselves little interested in its object. Observatory.

It is to be observed that students attending the University of Edinburgh have an opportunity of obtaining assist-

Edinburgh.

Private Lecturers and Teachers.

ance in the prosecution of their education, not merely from the regular professors, but also from a considerable number of men of distinguished talents, who act as private lecturers in the more favourite branches of study. Anatomy and chemistry in particular are thus taught with a degree of success which greatly tends to stimulate the exertions of the regular professors. These last, however, possess always a great advantage in the competition for the attendance of students, on account of the necessity of attending their prelections for the purpose of attaining the academical degree of doctor in medicine.

From the cheapness of education in Scotland at large, and from the facility of obtaining it in Edinburgh in particular, in consequence of its being the seat of the University, men of learning, possessing very moderate means of subsistence, abound here; and accordingly students in easy circumstances find no difficulty in obtaining, at a moderate price, well-informed men who attend them in their apartments, and assist them in their studies, and particularly in preparing them to undergo the examination in the Latin tongue, which is necessary to enable them to encounter the usual examinations previous to obtaining the medical degree. In the mathematics, and every other branch of science and of literature, the means of instruction are found with similar facility.

It is thus by the combination of a variety of circumstances that Edinburgh is rendered a distinguished place of resort for the education of youth; by the example of great literary success; by the united efforts of privileged and unprivileged lecturers and of private teachers; and, last of all, by the city at large containing an assemblage of well-informed persons of all ranks, who respect those literary pursuits to which, at some period of life, most of

them have devoted their attention and their time in a less or greater degree. Edinburgh.

Adjoining to the University, in the southern district of the city, is the ROYAL INFIRMARY. This is an institution of a mixed nature, being partly charitable and partly subservient to the purposes of medical education. It is probably in this last point of view that it is chiefly of importance. Its beneficial effects as an hospital, which are very great, extend merely to the individuals to whom it imparts relief; but by the instruction which it affords the means of annually conveying to a succession of students, who proceed from Edinburgh to exercise the medical profession in all quarters of the globe, this hospital is rendered an object of importance, not merely to Edinburgh or to Scotland, but to mankind. It was first opened for the reception of the sick poor on the 6th of August 1729, upon a capital of only L. 2000. Its good effects having been speedily felt, the contributors were, on the 27th of August 1736, erected into a body corporate, and its funds were gradually augmented by public contributions, by the donations of individuals, and by the sum of L.8000 which in 1755 the Lords of the Treasury granted to it for the expence attending the reception of sick soldiers. It particularly deserves notice, as demonstrating the interest which men of rank and influence in Scotland were formerly accustomed to take in those public institutions which have a tendency to promote public education, that, during the infancy of this institution, the Earl of Hopeton annually bestowed upon it the sum of L. 400; and he continued this bounty no less than 25 years. But the institution owed most to George Drummond, Esq. who was seven times Lord Provost of Edinburgh. When the house was building, he is said to have frequently gone to the Cross of Edinburgh on a Saturday, and to have collected contri-

Royal Infirmary.

Its history.

Edinburgh.

butions from the principal citizens and gentlemen assembled there, wherewith to pay the wages of the workmen employed during the preceding week, and thus to prevent the building from standing still. The managers of the Infirmary have testified their sense of the value of the efforts which this magistrate made in a variety of forms in favour of the institution, by erecting in their hall a bust of him, with this inscription: "*George Drummond, to* "*whom this country is indebted for all the benefits which* "*it derives from the Royal Infirmary.*"

Description of the house.

The house consists of a body and two wings, all of them three full stories in height, with an attick story and garrets. The body of the house is 210 feet long; the breadth at the middle is 36 feet, and at the ends 24 feet; the wings are 70 in length by 24 in breadth. The whole is laid out in a judicious and commodious manner. The access to the different floors is by a large stair-case in the centre of the builing, so spacious as to admit of sedan chairs being carried upward by means of it, and a smaller stair-case at each end. The apartments of the male and female patients are entirely distinct. In them 228 sick people can be accommodated, each in a distinct bed. Besides these, and the apartments for the necessary officers and servants in the house, there are the manager's room, a consulting room for the physicians or surgeons, a waiting-room for the students, and a theatre, where upwards of 200 students may see chirurgical operations. The medical and chirurgical patients are kept in distinct wards. There are wards for female patients undergoing salivation, and cells for mad people. There are also cold and hot baths for the use of the patients, and other baths for the citizens at large; and to these last the patients in the hospital are never admitted. In the disposition of this whole building nothing has been more anxiously studied than ventilation.

The Royal Infirmary is attended by two physicians, who visit their patients daily in presence of the students. The chirurgical wards are attended by members of the incorporation of Surgeons of Edinburgh, called the Royal College of Surgeons. Attendance upon the hospital is considered as a privilege, for which that body stipulated at the first institution of the Infirmary, on account of the experience which it affords an opportunity of acquiring in the performance of difficult operations. This privilege has of late years given rise to violent disputes, and even to very eager litigation. The members of the College of Surgeons formerly attended in rotation, each member taking a month of duty, which was afterwards altered to three months; the whole body, or as many as thought fit, attending at consultations. This arrangement was at length disapproved of by the managers; who, after considerable opposition, succeeded, with the assistance of the courts of law, in establishing a more absolute patronage in themselves, and a more permanent attendance by such surgeons as they may think fit to select for this duty. The managers appear to have been chiefly moved by the consideration that some time and experience are necessary to enable the most skilful surgeon to acquire that coolness and self-command which are requisite in performing operations in a public hall in presence of a great multitude of persons.

Edinburgh. Medical attendance.

Two wards are set apart in the hospital for clinical lectures, or discourses upon the cases of patients. The professor, who gives these lectures for the time, is allowed to select from the rest of the house, and to lodge in the clinical wards, those patients whose cases he considers as sufficiently curious and instructive to afford matter for useful lectures to the students. Journals of all the cases, both in the clinical and other wards, are kept, stating the

Clinical lectures.

Edinburgh. symptoms of the patients, the remedies employed, and the progress and termination of the disease; and every industrious student keeps a journal for himself. About 2000 patients are annually admitted, of whom little more than one in twenty-five die.

High School. Near the Infirmary the Latin School, or what is called the HIGH SCHOOL of Edinburgh, is situated. The first attempt towards its establishment was in 1519, when, for its encouragement, the Magistrates prohibited the books taught in the High School to be made use of in private schools. Before the end of that century, it was established in its present form, and consists of a rector and four masters. Annually in the month of October boys are received into the first class, and remain with the master to whom they first enter during four years; after which they are removed into the rector's class, where they remain one or two years. In this way there are five classes of different years standing, and each master is occupied only with his own class. Once a week the rector visits one of the classes in rotation; the master of which, at the same time, visits and examines the rector's class. The masters have trifling salaries; the stated fees are 5s. quarterly, though 10s. 6d. is the sum now generally given; and the rector receives quarterly 1s. from all the boys in the four junior classes in addition to the fees of his own class. The school-house consists of five apartments, besides a great hall where the boys meet for prayers, and a room in which a library is kept. It is a plain stone building, in the middle of a considerable inclosed area. There is an annual examination of the school in the month of August, at which the Magistrates of the City, the Professors of the University, the clergy, and such men of letters, and relations of the boys, or others as think fit, are allowed to attend. The parents and tutors of the boys are at all times

admitted, when they please, to observe their progress. Edinburgh.
Nearly 500 boys usually attend this school.

The Latin language is taught in the High School of Edinburgh with great success, and usually with a degree of accuracy which is almost unexampled elsewhere. Young men educated in the great schools and universities of England, frequently acquire a command of this ancient language, and an acquaintance with prosody, which has an imposing effect, and gives them the appearance of superior scholars; but they rarely or never attain to that precision in the first principles of the language, and that accuracy in the art of translating it, which is acquired in this school. Hence if they lose for a time their literary habits, the language is apt to be lost to them for ever; whereas persons educated at this seminary, after they appear to themselves and others to have entirely forgotten the Latin language, are usually able to recover it in a few months, to the effect of enabling them to study, through that medium, the treatises necessary to be perused in the pursuit of the learned professions. Character of the school.

Besides this school, a considerable number of private teachers in Edinburgh give instructions in Latin, English, writing, arithmetic, and all other departments of education; and in the Canongate there is a regular parish school for teaching Latin, which has often been under the superintendence of very eminent masters.

In the year 1772, the Board of Trustees for the encouragement of Manufactures, &c. in Scotland, appointed Mr Alexander Runciman, painter, to teach 20 boys or girls drawing, allowing him a yearly salary of L. 120. He was succeeded in this office by Mr Allan, to whom followed Mr Graham. This institution being appropriated for the use of manufactures, is not properly a School of Painting. In this last art, however, very eminent Academy for Drawing.

Edinburgh. teachers are to be found in Edinburgh, but no public establishment exists for its encouragement.

Riding School. Near the University there is also a RIDING SCHOOL, called the ROYAL ACADEMY FOR TEACHING EXERCISES. The teacher of this Academy receives a salary of L. 200 a-year from the crown, and is accommodated with a Riding School of 120 feet in length by 40 in breadth, and stables to a considerable extent.

Royal Society. In Edinburgh there is established, in imitation of that in London, a ROYAL SOCIETY, which has published some volumes of transactions. It contains a number of members of great respectability: but in Edinburgh men of letters are apt to be extremely jealous and unsociable with regard to each other. This illiberality of temper prevents the Royal Society from being of much value. Great numbers of the most accomplished and active men of letters are unconnected with it, while it contains others who have been introduced to it merely by their rank in the world, or the circumstance of having attained to distinguished literary situations by the patronage of men in power, who of late years have, in this country, displayed little of that anxiety to discriminate and bring into notice men of literary talents, which once formed the most honourable characteristic of the nobles and statesmen of Scotland.

Advocates Library. As a literary establishment, the ADVOCATES LIBRARY is highly worthy of notice. Sir George Mackenzie had the merit of projecting this institution, which was founded in 1682. In 1695 the collection was considerably encreased by a donation from William Duke of Queensberry; and it was long usual for men of rank to make presents to it of rare and curious books and other objects. As every advocate at his admission pays a sum of money to the faculty, which at various periods has been augmented,

and now amounts to L150, a part of this money is appro- Edinburgh.
priated to the preservation and increase of the library. The statute of Queen Anne also, which establishes the literary property of authors in their books, requires that a copy of each book shall be given gratuitously to this library. The collection of books is, upon the whole, select, and amounts to nearly 60,000 volumes in all sciences and in several languages. Very eminent men have been keepers of this library, particularly Thomas Ruddiman, Walter Goodall, and David Hume.

Besides printed books, the Faculty are in possession of a valuable collection of manuscripts, consisting of the registers of many of the Scottish monasteries, of illuminated missals, and of many volumes of original papers relating to the affairs of Scotland, as well as copies of others which have been preserved by Sir Robert Cotton, or are extant in the public offices in England. The Faculty are also possessed of a collection of prints.

Among other curiosities, the Faculty possess an entire mummy preserved in the original chest. This was purchased by the late Earl of Morton, Lord Register of Scotland, at the expence of L. 300, and was presented by him to the Faculty.

In 1705 the Faculty purchased and still possess a large collection of coins and medals. They are chiefly Greek, Roman, Saxon, Scottish, and English; but no use is made of them. The books in this library are lent out to the members of the Faculty upon their receipts; and each member may obtain as many books as he thinks fit, subject to the obligation of restoring them at the end of a year.

In Edinburgh five different Newspapers are printed. Of these, two are published twice every week, two others three times, and one weekly. Besides these a Royal

Edinburgh. Gazette is published twice each week. It contains the articles of intelligence published in the London Gazette, together with advertisements relative to bankrupts, whose affairs are under judicial sequestration for the benefit of their creditors.—Circulating Libraries, chiefly filled with novels and romances, abound in Edinburgh: And a considerable trade is carried on by booksellers and printers. The Encyclopædia Britannica, one of the greatest works and most lucrative literary speculations of the present age, is carried on here. It was undertaken by a printer and an engraver, Messrs M'Farquhar and Bell, who employed to write the articles which it contained, such men of letters as they found willing to undertake the task. The third edition of this monstrous book is in 18 vols. 4to; 12,500 copies were sold. A fourth edition, greatly altered and enlarged, is now in the press.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

Heriot's Hospital. Of the Charitable Establishments of Edinburgh, HERIOT'S HOSPITAL is the most distinguished. This magnificent fabric is the finest and most regular specimen of Gothic architecture left by Inigo Jones, whom James the Sixth brought over from Denmark. It is situated in the southern district, on the summit of the ridge opposite to the Castle-hill. The building consists of a square, whose side measures 162 feet on the outside, leaving an open court 94 feet each way in the middle. The north and east sides of this court are decorated with piazzas, and a walk 6½th feet in breadth. This court is paved with square stones, and has a well in the middle. On the north side of the square, and second story, is an effigy of the founder, George Heriot, cut in stone and painted, which the boys, on the first Monday of June, ornament with flowers, and

keep the day as a festival in honour of their benefactor. Edinburgh.
Over the gateway is a spire and clock; and the upper corners of the building on the outside are ornamented with turrets. The windows in number are 200, which are ornamented in such a way that no one is to be found similar to another—a circumstance which to persons of taste constitutes the chief deformity of the building; but which the celebrated architect is said to have been under the necessity of introducing to gratify the whimsical fancy of one of the executors of the founder, Walter Balcanqual, Doctor of Divinity. The chapel, which is on the south side of the building, is extremely beautiful.

This hospital was founded by George Heriot, a goldsmith in Edinburgh. He received from his father, and by his first marriage, L. 214 : 11 : 8 Sterling. In the year 1597 he was appointed goldsmith to Ann of Denmark, the Queen of James Sixth; and thereafter he became jeweller to the King. He afterwards followed King James to London at his accession to the throne of England in 1608. Heriot appears to have married a second wife, with whom he got a dowry of about L. 333. He died in London on the 12th of February 1604, without lawful children. In the infancy of commerce, the profits attending it are very great, and Heriot is supposed to have died possessed of about L. 50,000; an immense sum at that period. He left legacies to two natural daughters, and to friends and relations, to a great amount; the residue of his estate, which amounted to L. 23,625 : 10 : $3\frac{1}{2}$, he bestowed upon the Town Council and Ministers of Edinburgh, for building and endowing an hospital for the maintenance and education of indigent children, the sons of burgesses of that city. As money bore a considerable interest at that period, L. 30,000 Sterling was expended upon building the house, which was finished in the year

Edinburgh

1660. The number of boys maintained in it has been various at different periods, according to the state of the funds of the hospital, and the good management of them. At one period they amounted to 140, and they are still above 100. The boys are instructed in reading and writing English, and in arithmetic and the Latin tongue. On leaving the hospital, and becoming bound as apprentices, each boy is allowed L. 25 as an apprentice-fee, and receives a farther donation of L. 5 at the end of his apprenticeship. A kitchen has recently been fitted up in this hospital under the superintendence of Sir Benjamin Thompson, Count Rumford, with a stove for drying linen, and cauldrons for supplying boiling water with the least possible waste of fuel.

Watson's Hospital.

WATSON'S HOSPITAL, which is instituted for the education of boys, the children or grandchildren of decayed merchants in Edinburgh, is situated in the neighbourhood of Heriot's Hospital. It is a handsome building, and contains about 60 boys, who receive a very excellent education, generally much superior to what is obtained by the children of gentlemen at a considerable cost in boarding schools. They are taught, by the best masters, English, Latin, Greek, and French, so as to be prepared for the university. They are also taught writing, arithmetic, and book-keeping, so as to be qualified for the counting-house; together with geography, with the use of the globes and maps. Such of them as discover an unusual capacity for literature are allowed L. 10 *per annum* for five years after they leave the hospital, to assist them in prosecuting their studies at the university. Others, at fifteen or sixteen years of age, are bound apprentices to different employments; and L. 20 is allowed of apprentice-fee. On producing certificates of their good behaviour, when twenty-five years of age, they receive a

bounty of L. 50. Many of them become opulent citizens, and fill respectable stations in every department of society. The founder, George Watson, was the son of a merchant in Edinburgh, who left his affairs in embarrassment. After acting in various situations, young Watson was appointed accountant to the Bank of Scotland, and afterwards treasurer to the Merchants Maiden Hospital, and to the Society for propagating Christian Knowledge. He died in 1723, bequeathing his property, L. 12,000, to the Merchant Company of Edinburgh to build this hospital. The funds having been better managed, are scarcely inferior to those of Heriot's Hospital, being worth little less than L. 2000 *per annum*. Edinburgh.

The CHARITY WORKHOUSE of Edinburgh is a municipal institution, intended for the support of the aged and infirm poor. It stands in the neighbourhood of the two former hospitals, and consists of a very plain building, which was erected in 1743. The expence was defrayed by voluntary subscription; and the ordinary mode of supporting the establishment is by a tax of 2 *per cent.* on the valued rents of the city, by collections at the church-doors, and other charitable donations, by the labour of the persons residing in it, and by voluntary contributions of the citizens, made in consequence of public intimation of a deficiency of the funds. In the Canongate, and in the parish of St Cuthbert's, there are similar establishments, which are supported in the same manner. Upon the whole, however, this mode of supporting the poor by removing them from society, and collecting them in crowds into a public workhouse, is rare in Scotland; and no man of discernment or humanity would wish to see it generally adopted. It seems indeed the very worst form in which a provision can be made for the poor. It is costly to the public, while it is pernicious to the objects of the charity. Charity Work houses. Remarks on such institutions.

Edinburgh. The original establishment occasions a great waste of capital, and the management, being of public money, never fails to be attended with a certain degree of waste, which, added to the expence of house-keepers and other officers or servants, never fails to render the support of individuals in that situation extremely burdensome to the community. Indeed, a man supported in a workhouse usually receives more from the public, or at least costs more, than he received when in good health, and labouring industriously for his bread, and supporting a family by his wages. In the meanwhile, as he has no inducement to industry, or to exert his remaining strength, the value of his labour is trifling, and what he could have done is so much lost to society. It might afford some justification or compensation for the expence, did it contribute to the comfort and happiness of the poor; but this is never the case. By these establishments, they find themselves removed from their families, and from all the connections and sympathies of social life, and shut up amidst a crowd of strangers, who have no interest in their welfare. Here, without hopes or prospects either for themselves or their kindred, they speedily lose all the affections that rendered life valuable, and with them all sense of character or duty. Thus they become at once worthless and unhappy. The proper and reasonable mode of giving assistance to the poor is by moderate pensions, paid not weekly, which produces improvidence on their part, but monthly, or rather quarterly, always under the condition that they shall not solicit charity. The inducement to such exertions of industry as their health or age permits is thus left entire. They remain objects of compassion to their kindred, and none of the ties which bind them to society are dissolved; their sense of character remains the same, because they are still in the midst of their former friends and neighbours, and the least possible

injury is done to their pride, or their wish to retain the appearance of independence. Public workhouses have sometimes, it is said, been instituted from a principle of frugality, upon the supposition that few persons would cast themselves for assistance upon public charity at the price of removing into such situations: but this policy is as short-sighted as it is cruel and unjust. When a few individuals of decent character have been compelled to submit to this resource, it loses its terrors: the poor lose entirely their spirit of independence; and they learn to regard extravagance and idleness as no evils, as they can always retire into a workhouse at last. Edinburgh.

In the same quarter of the city with the above hospitals is the MERCHANTS MAIDEN HOSPITAL, erected towards the end of the seventeenth century by voluntary contribution; to which the Company of Merchants gave peculiar assistance, and Mrs Mary Erskine contributed 12,000 merks. Its annual revenues are now considerable, amounting to upwards of L. 1400 Sterling. Seventy girls are maintained in it, who receive the profits of their own work, and a trifling sum on their leaving the house. The building is of a very ordinary character.—Near to this is situated the TRADES MAIDEN HOSPITAL, instituted soon after the former, destined for the education and support of the daughters of decayed tradesmen. Mrs Mary Erskine contributed also liberally to this hospital. Fifty girls are maintained and educated in it. Merchants Maiden Hospital.

From the North Bridge is seen, closely adjoining on the north-east of it, the ORPHAN HOSPITAL. It is rendered conspicuous by a spire, clock, and other embellishments. It was planned by Andrew Gardner, merchant in Edinburgh, in 1732. It received countenance from the Society for propogating Christian Knowledge, and was assisted by a liberal subscription. Orphan children Orphan Hospital.

Edinburgh. are received into it, not under seven years of age, from any quarter of the kingdom, and are not continued after fourteen. Its revenues are inconsiderable, being supported chiefly by small benefactions from charitable persons, and by a part of the sums collected at the church doors. It owed much to the care and activity of the late Thomas Tod, merchant in Edinburgh, who was long its treasurer.

Trinity Hospital. In the neighbourhood of the Trinity College Church is the TRINITY COLLEGE HOSPITAL, endowed by the same foundress, Mary of Gueldres. After some disasters at the reformation, it survived the fate which most other religious and charitable establishments underwent at that period. It was destined for the support of decayed burgesses of Edinburgh, and their wives and unmarried children, not below fifty years of age. Forty persons are maintained in it, besides a considerable number of out-pensioners. The persons residing in the hospital are very liberally supported. They are allowed decent cloaths, separate apartments, and a small library.

Dispensary. The PUBLIC DISPENSARY of Edinburgh is a valuable institution, which was founded in 1776 by Dr Andrew Duncan, physician. It is chiefly supported by contributions from humane persons. Its object is to afford medical aid to the poor, whose cases do not require admission into the Royal Infirmary, or whom that institution might not be sufficient to receive. Patients, who are accounted proper objects for this charity, receive advice at the Dispensary from the physicians of that charity, who give regular attendance for that purpose, at a certain hour, four days in the week. A full account of the disease of the patient, taken down in writing by the medical assistant at the Dispensary, is inserted in a register kept for that purpose; and to the history of the case there are afterwards subjoined regular reports of the progress of the

disease during the course of the patient's attendance at the Dispensary, and of the effects resulting from the medicines which are employed. The physicians attend gratuitously; and the principal expence of the institution results from the cost of medicines. Edinburgh.

To the south-west of the Castle, near a suburb called the *Wright's Houses*, on the site of a very ancient building, which was demolished to make way for it, GILLESPIE'S HOSPITAL has lately been erected. Its appellation is derived from the founder, an eminent manufacturer of snuff in Edinburgh. It is intended for the support of aged persons; and those bearing the name of the founder are preferred. It is a neat stone building, executed in a style of moderate expence, with a small tower in the centre and a parapet, and Gothic turrets at suitable distances around the roof. Gillespie's Hospital.

Besides these there are to be found in Edinburgh several charitable establishments, which, though not furnished with costly buildings, are not of a less benevolent or valuable nature. Of these, one of the most distinguished is the Hospital or Workhouse, or ASYLUM as it is called, FOR THE INDUSTRIOUS BLIND; which is supported by the contributions of charitable persons, and by the price of the articles manufactured in it. Here the blind are taught such trades as may enable them to earn a subsistence, or at least aid them in contributing to their own support. They manufacture baskets, matts, &c.; and some of them have been taught to act as weavers, for which purpose they use the fly-shuttle. Hospital for the Blind.

The MAGDALENE ASYLUM also deserves notice; in which a most laudable attempt has of late years been made, by a benevolent society, to reclaim, from vice and misery, women who have degraded themselves by public prostitution, but who think fit to retire thither with the Magdalene Asylum.

Edinburgh. view of abandoning their mode of life, and of supporting themselves by industry. This institution is managed with a degree of care and delicacy which does the highest credit to its patrons. The objects of this charity are kept concealed: they reap the fruits of their own labour; and every effort is made to procure employment for them. In particular, needle-work of all sorts is executed in it in the neatest manner; and linen is washed, at moderate prices, for such persons in the city as think fit to transmit these articles to the society.

Lying-in Hospital. Besides all these charities, there is an Hospital in the city for Lying-in Women, under the care of the professor of midwifery; which is an institution analagous to that of the Royal Infirmary.—There is a Society for the Relief of the Destitute Sick, which has received considerable public countenance, though it has no appropriate building or local establishment.—An institution of a peculiar nature, not unconnected with the present subject,

Repository. called the REPOSITORY, ought not to pass unnoticed. It is a shop or ware-room on South Bridge Street, to which ladies in straitened circumstances have an opportunity of sending for sale curious, beautiful, or useful articles of needle-work, with the price affixed. When a purchaser has been found for the goods, the proceeds are transmitted in such a manner as to prevent its being known to the public by whom the articles were prepared. This institution has been promoted by the Duchess of Buccleugh and many other persons of rank.

PUBLIC AMUSEMENTS.

Theatre Royal. AMONG the Public Amusements of Edinburgh, the THEATRE ROYAL naturally takes the lead. It stands on the east side of the northern extremity of the North

Bridge. It has a mean external appearance. It was opened in 1779 at the rate of 3s. for the boxes and pit, 2s. for the gallery, and 1s. for the upper gallery. It is capable of containing about L. 140. The amusement of the theatre was with great difficulty introduced into Scotland. The presbyterian clergy at all times opposed it with much eagerness; and the magistrates of Edinburgh, in 1727, joined them in endeavouring to expel a company of players from the city; but they were protected by the courts of law. The opposition still continued, however, and the theatre encountered great difficulties: but the tendency of the age gradually prevailed; and in the acts of Parliament for the extension of the royalty, a clause was inserted, enabling his Majesty to licence a theatre at Edinburgh. We do not account it necessary to give a history of this establishment. It is sufficient to remark, that under various managers of much reputation in this department, among whom were Foote, Digges, and Stephen Kemble, Edinburgh has been visited by every theatrical performer of distinction from Garrick downwards. But it is worthy of remark, that, upon the whole, the Scotch have no great fondness for the entertainment of the theatre. The novelty of the appearance of any very distinguished performer excites their attention for a short time, and produces crowded houses; but in general the theatre is little attended by genteel people in the middle ranks of society. It is chiefly supported in Edinburgh by young men, the junior practitioners of the law, and students at the university, and by the families of country gentlemen who reside in Edinburgh during the winter, who go thither occasionally as to a place where they are to display themselves, and to see other persons of their own rank. Neither does this indifference to the theatre, among the Scottish nation, any longer result from religious opinions or

Edinburgh.

Edinburgh. prejudices. Sober families find more pleasure in domestic society, or in the visits of their acquaintances; and when money is to be expended, the social and more substantial pleasure of giving and receiving good dinners or suppers is greatly preferred.

Musical Society. A MUSICAL SOCIETY was first instituted at Edinburgh in the year 1728. It consisted of seventy members, who united for the purpose of holding a weekly public concert. The members of this society gradually increased to about two hundred. A governor, deputy governor, treasurer, and five directors, were annually chosen by the members for regulating the affairs of the society. Their meetings were held in the hall of one of the city incorporations till the year 1762, when they built a concert-room upon a small scale, after the model of the great opera theatre at Parma, of an oval form, with a concave dome, the orchestra being at the upper end. The room was capable of containing 500 persons. Very eminent performers were engaged, who received salaries from the society. Admission was obtained to the entertainments of the concert by special tickets, which were not transferable, and served for the night only for which they were granted. In the admission, which was always gratis, except at the benefit concerts given for the emolument of performers, a preference was constantly shewn to strangers. The society subsisted between sixty and seventy years, and was esteemed one of the most genteel entertainments, conducted at the most moderate expence, of any in Britain. At length, however, its meetings were gradually deserted by the public, and were at last under the necessity of being dropt. This does not appear to have arisen from any impropriety of management on the part of the directors of this institution, but from a change which had gradually

taken place in the state of general society in Edinburgh, to which this institution had ceased to be adapted. Edinburgh.

When the Musical Society was first established, Edinburgh was comparatively a small town. It consisted of little more than two principal streets, the inhabitants of which were well known to each other. The genteel families that inhabited it were few; and most persons of fashion or distinction that had any taste for the fine arts were members of this society. In these circumstances, it could be of little importance, whether the concert, considered as a public amusement, was supported by the sale of tickets authorising admission, or by an annual subscription of those gentlemen whose families and relations were to attend it; the latter mode gave more respectability to the institution, and even to the city. It prevented, what in those times would have been accounted a great disorder, the intrusion of persons of inferior rank; while at the same time, as strangers were sure to be gratuitously admitted, a public opportunity was thus afforded of displaying to foreigners the characteristic hospitality of the Scottish nation. Remarks on the Musical Society.

In this train affairs continued during a considerable time; and the Musical society produced more considerable effects than perhaps ever resulted from any similar institution. A foreign music was not only in a considerable degree substituted, or at least superinduced, to our native and inimitable airs; but it was rendered to such a degree a branch of fashionable education, that the daughters of all gentlemen, and even of tradesmen, were regularly instructed in it. By degrees, however, the state of society in Scotland followed that of the mighty empire to which we had been united. Commerce altered every thing. It became not unfrequent for young men of low birth to rise, by industry, to the possession of opulence, or to re-

Edinburgh. turn, at the middle period of life, to their native country, with fortunes accumulated in the distant provinces of the British empire. Such persons in their early days could have no opportunity of acquiring a taste for the refined music practised in the concert-room of Edinburgh; they could not purchase tickets for money; and they could not obtain, or were too proud to solicit, them from men of rank, in whose power alone they were lodged. But when the pure blood of the ancient Scottish gentry began to mingle itself with the tide which commercial success, or the spoils of Asia, had exalted, it was discovered that an accomplishment acquired by great expence and labour was often under-valued, and might even be neglected with impunity, as contributing little towards success in life, because it was no longer esteemed by the favourites of fortune. In proportion as new men abounded, who had little intercourse with those by whom the concert was managed, that institution became neglected, till at last nobody would undergo, on its account, the trouble of dressing themselves as for a public entertainment.

Upon the whole, however, it is a singular circumstance, that the Scottish nation, who have an ancient, interesting, and beautiful music of their own, and who are at the same time almost universally a literary people, should have so little regard for theatrical and musical entertainments. They have entirely banished instrumental music from their churches; or, in the sarcastic language of Swift, "Sister Peg faints at the sound of an organ:" they have no public establishments for the support of music: and the countenance they give to the theatre is abundantly parsimonious. In ancient times the case was very different. Music, as connected with the animated recital upon the stage of beautiful songs and poetical dialogues, that is

to say, the acting of plays, was held by the polished Greeks in the most extravagant estimation. Their different states were at immense expence in supporting magnificent theatres for plays and musical exhibitions, to which all the people were invited: musicians were held in high esteem, and obtained splendid rewards for their services. The Athenian legislator Solon sung at times upon the stage. The Spartans adhered with no less scrupulous exactness to the music of their ancestors than they did to the laws of Lycurgus. They even punished an artist for attempting to debauch the musical taste of their youth by adding a new string to the lyre. The judicious historian Polybius gravely speaks of a Grecian people, the Cynatheans, as a vile and barbarous race of men, whom all Greece detested, and whose destruction was justly beheld with satisfaction; because, forsooth, they had no taste for music, and no theatrical or musical entertainments. Polybius ascribes their degeneracy and wickedness wholly to this circumstance. Aristotle speaks no less highly of the importance of music; and Plato, in his plan of a republic, allots no less than three years of every young person's life to the study of music. Edinburgh.

All this now seems very marvellous; probably in consequence of the great alteration which has been introduced into the moral world by two things: First, by the weekly lessons of religion or morality which Christianity has instituted; and, secondly, by the diffusion of knowledge which has taken place in consequence of the art of printing. The people at large, in the times of Greece and Rome, had no other opportunities of hearing maxims or sublime sentiments of morality and interesting pieces of history recited, than what was afforded by their theatres, in which the performers appear to have sung the whole of the beautiful poems which they rehearsed. In such a

Edinburgh. state of things, for a nation to be destitute of public theatrical entertainments, in which the best poems in their language might be sung for the amusement and instruction of the people, was justly understood to impose upon them the denomination of *barbarians*; that is, of an illiterate race of men. As poetry is now separated from music, and as written information can readily be obtained without going to listen to a public recital in a theatre, every sort of musical, or even literary, exhibition has greatly sunk from its original value. Intellectual improvement can be obtained by solitary study, with the aid of books, which are cheaply purchased. To these, and to their churches, the people of Scotland have recourse, and neglect those theatrical exhibitions which may amuse the fancy, but have little tendency to convey useful knowledge, or to produce an enlightened understanding.

Assembly Rooms. For dancing in Edinburgh, ASSEMBLY ROOMS have been repeatedly built of increasing dimensions, in proportion to the increase of the population of the city. The first of which we have an account was in a lane, since called the *Old Assembly Close*, on the south side of the High Street: another was thereafter fitted up in an adjoining lane, called *Bell's Wynd*, but was afterwards used as a guard-room: the present principal Assembly Room was finished in 1787 in George Street. It is a clumsy and awkward building, impressing a character of dullness and bad taste upon the part of that beautiful street in which it is situated. Two assemblies are held weekly in this assembly-house during the winter; the one called a *dancing*, and the other a *card assembly*, though the former is the principal amusement at both. The principal ball-room is 92 feet long, 42 wide, and 40 in height. There is a tea-room 52 feet long by 35 in breadth, which serves for the dancing-room of the card-assemblies. There are

likewise two card-rooms 33 feet by 18, and a grand saloon 24 feet square, as also other smaller rooms. Edinburgh.

Besides this a very large room, formerly used as a circus, has been fitted up by an individual, at the eastern part of the New Town, to serve as a concert-room, and occasionally as an assembly room.

A CIRCUS, for exhibiting feats of horsemanship and pantomimical entertainments, has of late years been usually maintained in Edinburgh.—A PANORAMA has also been established between Edinburgh and Leith for the permanent exhibition of circular paintings, intended to represent a full landscape in whatever direction the spectator may turn, and thus to attempt in some measure to impose upon the senses. This contrivance was invented by Mr Barker in Edinburgh; and the first panorama was a view of Edinburgh and its environs from the summit of the Calton-hill.

A chartered society, styled the ROYAL COMPANY OF ARCHERS, still exercises an amusement in Edinburgh, the use of the bow, which, before the invention of gun-powder, was the principal implement of war. Archers.

There are several societies of archers in England, the chief of which are the *Woodmen of Arden* and the *Toxophilite*; but the Scottish Royal Company of Archers is the most remarkable of the kind now existing. It is to England, however, that we must chiefly look for the history and ancient description of this art; as the English archers appear to have been superior to all others, and to have exercised the bow with the greatest success: nor have there been wanting experienced soldiers who have preferred it to the musket. The bow of the Greeks and Romans, as represented in their reliefs, was a mere toy when compared to that employed in Britain; and accordingly this weapon was little used by the ancients. Hence

Edinburgh. Paris in Homer is spoken of contemptuously as an archer; and the bow was chiefly used by the Parthians and Arabs, whose attacks were desultory. The English armies, on the contrary, were remarkable for the advantage which their superior skill in archery gave them over heavy armed cavalry, as at the battle of Cressy; and also over infantry drawn up in phalanx with the formidable weapon the spear, as at the battle of Pinkey.

With regard to the size of the bow, the Irish statute of Edward IV. which directs that the bow shall not in length exceed a man's height, is allowed by archers to be judicious. The arrow ought to be half the length of the bow. Hence, although in the ballad of Chevy Chace we read of arrows a yard long, this could only refer to those used by men of six feet high.

Archers consider an arrow of from 20 to 24 drop weight to be the best for flight, or for hitting a mark at a considerable distance. It is made of any hard wood. For the feathers those of geese are preferred, and that the bird should be two or three years old, and the feathers not plucked but spontaneously dropped. Two out of three feathers in an arrow are commonly white, being from the gander, while the third is brown or grey; and this difference of colour informs the archer if the arrow is properly placed. Arrows were anciently armed with flint or metal heads. By the English statutes, men of perfect age were prohibited to shoot at a mark placed at a shorter distance than 220 yards. The bow was of yew, as the most tough wood; but the Scottish gentlemen now use bows made of cocoa wood, from the West Indies, as of superior quality to the yew.

Arrows were kept in sheaves of twenty-four, and were carried in a quiver or case. The archers carried anciently long stakes sharpened at both ends, which they

stuck into the earth, pointing obliquely towards the ene- Edinburgh.
my, so as to form a rampart on that side. To prevent the bow-string from striking the left arm, the arm was covered with a piece of smooth leather fastened on the outside of the arm, called a *bracer*; and to guard the fingers gloves were worn. The Greeks and Romans do not appear to have drawn the arrow to the ear, like the English, but to the breast.

The English were compelled, by acts of parliament even in time of peace, to erect butts in every parish, and to shoot on every Sunday and holiday. The king and parliaments having thus compelled the inhabitants of their country to become expert archers, their armies had a similar advantage over their enemies to what they would have derived from the exclusive use of fire-arms. In Scotland a similar attention, though, in consequence of the more defective police of the country, not with equal success, was bestowed by the legislature upon this art. Merchants were bound, along with their other goods, to import a certain proportion of bows and arrows; and other sports were restrained lest they should interfere with the practice of archery, which was regularly exercised at what were called the *weapon shawings*. These were assemblages of the people in military array, and properly armed, which were made by the sheriff of each county twice each year or oftener.

The ancient records of the Royal Company of Archers having been destroyed by fire about the beginning of the late century, no authentic traces of the institution of this society now remain. It has been said, however, that it owes its origin to the commissioners appointed in the reign of James I. of Scotland for enforcing the exercise of archery in the different counties. These commissioners having picked out some of the most dexterous archers

Edinburgh. from among the better sort of people, formed them into a company; and upon perilous occasions, the honourable post was assigned to them of defending the king's person as body guards. This rank of the king's principal body guards the Royal Company still claim within six miles of the metropolis of Scotland.

It is certain that, in 1677, this company was recognised by an act of the Scottish privy council, under the title of "His Majestie's Company of Archers;" and by the same act a piece of plate of the value of L. 20 Sterling was ordered to be given to be shot for by them at their annual parades, called *weapon shawings*, and to be called the *king's prize*. But in consequence of their avowed attachment to the royal family of Stuart, the revolution under King William III. nearly put a period to their existence. The royal prize was withheld, and their parades discontinued. Upon the accession of Queen Ann, however, the leaders of the Scottish Jacobites restored the society, that, under pretence of exercising the ancient art of archery, they might have an opportunity of holding public meetings and processions under authority of law. Accordingly, as a society of archers, with the celebrated Sir George M'Kenzie, then Lord Tarbat and secretary of state, and afterwards Earl of Cromarty, as their captain-general, they obtained from Queen Ann, in the year 1703, a charter under the great seal, erecting them into a Royal Company, reviving the laws in favour of archery, authorising them to admit members and appoint their commanding officers, and to meet and go forth under their officers conduct in military form, in manner of *weapon shawing*, as often as they should think convenient. The first time they displayed any military parade was in 1714, amidst the critical state of public affairs during Queen Ann's last illness. On the 14th of June, the Earl of Cromarty, their captain-gene-

ral, although then upwards of eighty years of age, and the Earl of Wemyss, as their lieutenant-general, marched at the head of about fifty noblemen and gentlemen, clothed in uniform, equipped in military array, and distinguished by their proper standards, from the Parliament Square to the Palace of Holyroodhouse, thence to Leith, where they shot for the silver arrow given by the City of Edinburgh, and returned in similar parade; having received from the different guards which they passed the same military salutations or honours that are paid to any body of the king's forces. But next year, the Earl of Cromarty being dead, the Earl of Wemyss headed a procession, in which above an hundred of the nobility and gentry assisted. Edinburgh.

After the rebellion in 1715, the archers discontinued their public parade for some years, but afterwards resumed it. They were justly regarded with jealousy by government, as attached to the unfortunate family of Stuart; nobody being for many years admitted into their society that was not supposed to entertain this sentiment. The unhappy differences upon this subject having subsided, the Royal Company once more revived during the present reign. His Majesty, as a mark of his royal patronage and approbation, renewed the royal prize, which was first shot for upon the 28th of July 1788 by a numerous and respectable meeting, and was won by James Gray, Esq. writer in Edinburgh.

Thereafter the Woodmen of Arden and the Toxophilite admitted the members of the Royal Company to the freedom of their societies, and reciprocal diplomas were in return granted by the Royal Company; so that these three principal societies of archers in Britain are united into one.

The prizes belonging to the Royal Company, and which are annually shot for, are, 1. A silver arrow, given by the

Edinburgh. town of Musselburgh, which appears to have been shot for as early as the year 1603. The victor in this, as in the other prizes except the king's prize, has the custody of it for a year, then returns it with a medal appended, on which are engraved any motto and device which the gainer's fancy dictates. 2. A silver arrow given by the town of Peebles A. D. 1626. 3. A silver arrow given by the city of Edinburgh A. D. 1709. 4. A silver punch-bowl of about the value of L. 50, made of Scottish silver at the expence of the company A. D. 1720. And, 5. The king's prize above mentioned, which becomes the absolute property of the winner. All these prizes are shot for at what is termed *rovers*, the marks being placed at the distance of 185 yards.

Besides these, there is another prize annually contended for at butt or point-blank distance, called the *Goose*. The ancient manner of shooting for this prize was, a living goose was built in a turf butt, having the head only exposed to view; and the archer who first hit the goose's head was entitled to the goose as his reward. But this custom, on account of its barbarity, has been long ago laid aside; and in place of the goose-head, a mark of about an inch diameter is affixed upon each butt; and the archer who first hits this mark is captain of the butt-shooters for a year.

The affairs of the company are managed by a president and six counsellors, who are chosen annually by the whole members. The council are vested with the power of receiving or rejecting candidates for admission, and of appointing the company's officers civil and military.

The Royal Company now consists of above 1000 members, among whom are most of the Scottish nobility of the first distinction. A number of the company meet weekly during the summer season in Edinburgh, in the Meadows, where they exercise themselves in shooting at

butts or rovers: And in the adjoining ground they have a handsome building, erected within these thirty-two years, with suitable offices, whither they adjourn after their exercise, and where they hold their elections and other meetings relative to the business of the society. Edinburgh.

The uniform of the Royal Company of Archers is tartan, lined with white, and trimmed with green and white fringes; a white sash, with green tossels; and a blue bonnet, with a St Andrew's cross and feathers. The company have two standards. The first of these bears on one side Mars and Cupid encircled in a wreath of thistles, with this motto, "*In peace* and war;" on the other, a yew tree, with two men dressed and equipped as archers, encircled as the former; motto, *Dat gloria vires*. The other standard displays, on one side, a lion rampant gules, on a field or, encircled with a wreath; on the top, a thistle and crown; motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*. On the other, St Andrew on the cross on a field argent; at the top, a crown; motto, *Dulce pro patria periculum*.

The GOLF is an amusement said to be peculiar to Scotland. Here it is very ancient. By a statute of James the Second, in 1457, it is prohibited, that it may not interfere with the weapon shawings; that is, with the military exercise of archery. It is commonly played on rugged ground covered with bents, or short grass, upon the seashore, called in Scotland *Links*. The game is usually played by parties of one or two on each side. Each person provides himself with balls and a set of clubs. The ball is extremely hard, and about the size of a tennis ball. The club with which the ball is usually struck is slender and elastic, crooked at the head, which is faced with horn, and loaded with lead to render it heavy. A set of clubs consists of five in number; a play club, a scraper, a spoon, an iron-headed club, and a short club called a *putter*. The Golf.

Edinburgh. second, third, and fourth of these are adapted for removing the ball from the various inconvenient situations into which it may come in the course of the game. The putter is used where a short stroke is intended. The golf is played thus: Small holes are made in the ground at the distance of about a quarter of a mile from each other, and in such a direction as to encompass the whole field. The game is won by the party that lodges his ball in the different holes in succession with the fewest strokes. The art of the game consists, *first*, at the outset from each hole, of striking the ball to a great distance, and in a proper direction, so that it may rest upon smooth ground; and, *secondly*, which is of the greatest importance, when near the hole, of so proportioning the force and direction of the stroke, or *putting* as it is called, that the ball may with few strokes be driven into the hole. The game is played at Leith Links, and upon a piece of ground south from Edinburgh, which receives the appellation of *Bruntsfield Links*. There is a Company of Golfers, who play annually for a silver club, originally given them by the Town-Council of Edinburgh in 1744. This game affords an active, but not a violent, exercise in the open air, and is therefore not unsuitable to the sedentary habits of the citizens of a large town.

Caledonian Hunt. Edinburgh is also in some measure the head-quarters of a Company of Hunters, called the CALEDONIAN HUNT, composed of the first nobility and gentry, who meet occasionally in different parts of the country. Such a company has subsisted at times in Edinburgh ever since the Restoration; but it has repeatedly been broken up, in consequence of the club indulging in habits of extravagance and intemperance, which induced the members to become weary of it.

Horse Races are held at Edinburgh during a week

every summer. To this amusement his Majesty contributes a purse of 100 guineas. The remaining prizes, which amount to 50 guineas each, are contributed by the City of Edinburgh, and by subscriptions of the nobility and gentry. The race-course is upon the shore at Leith, on a place which the tide leaves at low water. The hour of the race is therefore changed every day, as the tide becomes later so as to leave the sands dry. The ground, however, is heavy and fatiguing for horses which do not possess considerable strength. Edinburgh. Leith Races.

We have already mentioned *walking* as one of the amusements of this city; for which it is well suited, in consequence of the beautiful side pavement of its streets. These, in the New Town, are not crowded with passengers, on account of the size of the single houses occupied by genteel families, which prevents that quarter of the city from being very populous, in proportion to the territory which it covers. Around the city also there is a variety of ground well adapted to this exercise. In particular, on the south of the city, where was anciently the Borough Loch, a considerable extent of ground is laid out, under the appellation of the *Meadow*, and is surrounded by a walk sheltered with trees. The walk which surrounds the Meadow is 2770 yards, or upwards of a mile and a half, in length. The extensive territory occupied by Arthur's Seat, Salisbury Craigs, and the Calton-hill, from the free air and the beautiful and extensive prospects which they afford, also presents great inducements to this, which is perhaps the best of all amusements, as farthest removed from the pernicious habits of gaming, which many other amusements are apt to produce; and as being at once the kind of exercise most conducive to health, and most capable of being conjoined with the pleasures or the im-

Edinburgh. provement to be derived either from solitary reflection or from social intercourse.

St Bernard's Well. As an inducement to the same exercise, rather than on account of any medical virtues belonging to it, may be mentioned the mineral spring called ST BERNARD'S WELL, which is situated to the north-west of the New Town, in the deep and beautiful glen or ravine in which the Water of Leith runs. This spring has a slight resemblance in flavour to the washings of a foul gun-barrel, and appears to contain sulphurated hydrogen, which evaporates in boiling, so as to leave the water fit for every ordinary purpose. It had fallen into neglect till about fifteen years ago; when one of the judges of the Court of Session, Lord Gardenstone, who imagined he had derived benefit from its waters, expended a considerable sum in erecting over it a very massy building of free stone, surmounted by a temple in the ancient taste, in which is placed a statue of Hygeia, the goddess of health. But as the statue is colossal, and is too nearly approached by the foot-path which passes the building, it has a clumsy appearance. As it is erected, however, in a romantic situation, beside a small river, whose precipitous and woody banks are in some places finely ornamented, and everywhere beautiful, the new building greatly excited the attention of the public to the supposed virtues of the spring; and it speedily became a place of such general resort, that every morning, during the summer season, the way towards it was seen crowded with persons resorting thither, who certainly derived benefit, if not from the water, at least from the fine air which they breathed, and the exercise they enjoyed. This, like other fashions, however, soon declined; and its decline was hastened not a little by an injudicious attempt to render the use of this mineral spring still more general

than it actually was. A pamphlet was published by a physician, in which the waters of St Bernard's Well were represented as a specific or universal remedy for almost all the maladies incident to the human frame; and an anxious enumeration was given of the most loathsome diseases for which these waters had proved a complete remedy. The result was, that the well was in a great measure deserted; because nobody wished a suspicion to be entertained, that they were afflicted by any of the miserable distempers for which it was represented as a cure. The mischievous pamphlet, however, was gradually forgotten; and St Bernard's Well is frequented, in the summer months, by a considerable number of persons of both sexes, who find it an agreeable termination to an early walk. Edinburgh.

The sands to the eastward of Leith, which when the sea retires are of considerable extent, afford the best opportunity to the inhabitants of Edinburgh for exercise on horseback.

In the New Town there is a TENNIS COURT: and we are under the necessity of mentioning, that in the Grass-market there is a cock-pit, which is at times made the scene of the cruel and contemptible amusement of cock-fighting, and of the practice of gambling which accompanies it. Persons engaged in business, however, or of sober manners, and a respectable character, are ashamed to appear in it, and could not do so without reproach. It is chiefly supported by the gentlemen of the turf, and by a part of the strangers who at all times abound in Edinburgh. The Tennis Court, above mentioned, has of late been used for this barbarous entertainment. Cock-fighting.

Edinburgh.

BANKING COMPANIES.

There are three Banking Companies in Edinburgh established by statute, or by royal charters. These are, the Bank of Scotland, commanly called the Old Bank, the Royal Bank of Scotland, and the British Linen Company.

Bank of Scotland.

The BANK OF SCOTLAND, commonly called the OLD BANK, was erected by Act of Parliament, A. D. 1695. By the statute of erection, the company was empowered to raise a joint stock of L. 1,200,000 Scots, or L. 100,000 Sterling, for the purpose of carrying on a public bank. The smallest share which any person could hold in the bank was declared to be L. 1000 Scots; and the largest sum for which any one was allowed to subscribe was L. 20,000 of the same money. L. 8000 are declared to be the qualification necessary to entitle any one to be elected governor; L. 6000 deputy governor; and L. 3000 for each director. The management of the affairs of the company was vested in a governor, deputy governor, and twenty-four directors; and in choosing these managers, each proprietor was declared to have a vote for every L. 1000 of stock held by him.

The capital or stock of the company being found not large enough to answer the purposes of a commercial country, they, in 1774, obtained an act, enabling them to enlarge their stock. By this act they were empowered to double their original stock, or to raise it in whole to L. 2,400,000 Scots, or L. 200,000 Sterling. Each person already holding shares was allowed to fill up the new capital to be subscribed for, in so far, and to the same extent, as he already held shares in the original stock. What remained not filled up was to be sold to the highest bidder amongst the proprietors of the old stock, provided no one should possess in whole above L. 40,000 Scots of stock;

and if any still remained unsubscribed for, any one might subscribe that inclined. By the same act, too, the double of the former sums was declared to be requisite as qualifications entitling the members to be governors or directors of the company, or to be their electors. Edinburgh.

The office of this company has hitherto been held in a house down a narrow lane at the south side of that part of the High Street called the Lawn-market; but, at a great expence, they have erected for their accommodation a building which will speedily be ready to be occupied, and which is situated to the northward of the High Street, in full view of Prince's Street. This is at once a magnificent and beautiful fabric. At the commencement of the building, very serious difficulties were experienced, in consequence of the same circumstance which formerly annoyed the architect of the North Bridge; but which had been forgotten or overlooked till the recollection of it was on this occasion revived. When a foundation was sought for this building, it was found that the whole earth on that side of the ridge on which the High Street stands was not natural, but had been brought thither when the ground in the neighbourhood was originally laid out for building. The consequence was, that after cutting down the side of the hill in search of solid ground to an immense depth, the hill above gave way, and overwhelmed the foundation that had been cleared out. The rubbish was no sooner removed than the side of the hill again gave way repeatedly; so that the task of digging the foundation was several times renewed. In the meanwhile, the earth above, to some distance towards the High Street, began to open, and to discover marks that the soil was all unsound, and had been undermined. Some very lofty buildings, deprived of the support which they had received from the weight of earth adjoining to their founda- Office of the Bank of Scotland.

Edinburgh. tions, next began to give way. The inhabitants removed, and the houses were under the necessity of being taken down. The great wealth of this company, however, enabled them to avoid the ridicule which would have attended a desertion of their enterprise. A sufficiently firm foundation of natural clay having been at last obtained, the building was rapidly urged. It was reared in the most solid manner. Enormous quantities of mortar and massy stones were buried for ever, and a fabric carried upwards, capable of resisting the incumbent weight of the mountain. The back of the building is towards Prince's Street; and here, while erecting, it had the disadvantage, from its vast height, of having somewhat the aspect of a tower. This effect, however, is now removed by restoring the earth for the purpose of covering up the lower part of it, and by a wall of considerable height in the nature of a curtain, which has been added to augment its apparent breadth. It forms, upon the whole, a beautiful and most superb fabric. As a work of magnitude, it is seen to most advantage from the mound of earth which connects the Old and the New Town, at that part of the mound which is in the direction of the north-west angle of the building. Here the eye is filled by the full view of two sides of the fabric, and by a display of its great height. The result of which is, that as a magnificent and stupendous structure, it seems to have no rival in this country. Its southern front, of which the height is only three stories, is very elegant. If any fault exist, it consists of a superfluity of ornament unsuitable to a structure of such magnitude. The ornaments, however, are chiefly seen on that side where the greatness of the building is concealed; but unfortunately there is placed at the summit of the whole a globe or cupola, which is seen from Prince's Street, and which, from its trifling size and the vast height at which it is placed, has

very much the diminutive appearance of a pin-cushion. Edinburgh.

This banking company has established branches in every considerable town in Scotland, excepting Glasgow, which, in consequence of an amicable adjustment to avoid rivalship, is left to the Royal Bank. By agreement, the latter has a branch at Glasgow, and no branch in any other town in Scotland.

The Royal Bank was established in the following manner: By the articles of union, Scotland was declared to be liable to the same duties which were levied by way of customs or excise in England. As these duties had, in the latter of these nations, been appropriated for the discharge of debts contracted by England before the union, it was found reasonable to give Scotland an equivalent for this additional burthen. The sum, given by way of equivalent, was ordained to be paid for certain purposes, and to certain persons or bodies corporate, mentioned in the articles of union and in posterior statutes. The proprietors of these sums, to the extent of L. 248,550 Sterling, were erected into a body corporate, under the name of the *Equivalent Company*; and the said sum of L. 248,550 was declared to be the joint stock of the company. Upon application by this company, they obtained a royal charter, empowering such of them as inclined to subscribe their shares in the joint stock for that purpose, to carry on the business of banking. By this charter the subscribers to this banking business were, in A. D. 1727, erected into a body corporate, to be called, "*The Royal Bank of Scotland.*" They were vested with the requisite powers, and the management of the company's affairs declared to be in a governor, deputy governor, nine ordinary and nine extraordinary directors. The qualifications of these managers were declared to be, that of the governor to hold stock to the extent of L. 2000; of the deputy governor, Royal Bank

Edinburgh. of L. 1500; of the ordinary directors, of L. 1000; and of the extraordinary directors, of L. 500. The sum originally subscribed was L. 111,000; but by a charter passed in favour of the Royal Bank, A. D. 1738, explaining the privileges formerly bestowed upon them, and enabling them to increase their capital, they were empowered to raise their stock to a sum not exceeding in whole, when joined to their original funds, L. 150,000. By the charter of erection of this company, a share of L. 300 entitles a proprietor to one vote, one of L. 600 to two, of L. 1200 to three, and of L. 2000 to four; and no proprietor can have more than four votes. In consequence of the jealous and narrow policy, which till of late years was so common among commercial companies, when the Royal Bank was first erected, that company purchased up all the notes of the Bank of Scotland of which they could lay hold, and made such a run upon this bank as reduced it to considerable difficulties. To avoid such distresses for the future, the Bank of Scotland, on the 9th November 1730, began to issue L.5 notes, payable on demand, or L.5 : 2 : 6 six months after their being presented for payment, in the option of the bank. On the 12th of December 1732, they began to issue notes with a similar clause. The other banking companies in Scotland found it convenient to follow the example. Bank-notes were universally framed with these optional clauses. They were issued for the most trifling sums, and were currently accepted in payment, insomuch that notes for 5 s. Sterling were perfectly common, and silver was in a manner banished out of the country. To remedy those abuses which had crept into the banking business, an act of Parliament was passed, A. D. 1765, prohibiting all promissory notes payable to the bearer under L. 1 Sterling; and prohibiting and declaring void all the optional clauses.

The BRITISH LINEN COMPANY, with a capital of L. 100,000, was incorporated by royal charter in 1746, with a view to encourage the manufacture of linen in Scotland. By the constitution of this company, its affairs are declared to be under the management of a governor, deputy governor, and five directors. It is declared a necessary qualification in the governor to be possessed of a share in the company's stock to the amount of L. 1000; of the deputy governor, L. 500; and of each director, of L. 300. A share of L. 200 entitles a proprietor to vote in the choice of these managers, of L. 500 to two votes, and of L. 1000 to four votes; but it is declared that no proprietor shall possess more than four votes. Edinburgh. British Linen Company.

This company carries on the business of banking, and issues promissory notes like the two former companies; but the banking business is carried on separately from the linen trade. The Linen Hall remains in the Canongate; but the apartments of the bank are removed to a lane on the south side of the High Street, above what was called the Nether-bow Port.

When the great political and imperial establishment, the Bank of England, was authorised, first by the Privy Council, and thereafter by the legislature, in 1797, to refuse payment of their promissory notes in specie, the Edinburgh public banking companies ventured to do the same from necessity. No bad consequence resulted from the measure; and nobody attempted by legal measures to compel payment in terms of their obligations.

Promissory notes, payable on demand, have also been long issued in Edinburgh by a private banking house, that of Sir William Forbes, Sir James Hunter, and Company; and their notes have possessed a most extensive circulation. When at the commencement of the war occasioned by the French revolution in 1793, the common Private bankers.

Edinburgh. people, who held great numbers of the notes of this house, took a sudden alarm, or rather prejudice, against paper money, and made a run upon the house; the other banking houses agreed, in case it should be necessary, to support it with their whole credit. A proof was thus afforded of the enlightened spirit to which commercial men had attained; which enabled them to perceive, that their own success depends, not, as they formerly supposed, upon the ruin, but upon the increasing riches of each other; and that one part of a community cannot be injured, without the misfortune extending itself in some measure to the whole.

Besides these there are several private banking houses of great reputation in Edinburgh, which do not issue promissory notes for small sums payable on demand, but which carry on the other branches of the banking trade, by transmitting money, discounting bills, and accommodating individuals with *cash accounts*. This last is a practice of great mercantile utility, and is in some measure peculiar to Scotland. It is of the following nature: A merchant, a manufacturer, or other person engaged in business, grants a bond to a banking house, with two or more sufficient sureties, obliging himself to repay whatever sum he shall at any time, below a certain amount, borrow from that house. In consideration of this obligation, the banking house honours the draughts of the merchant occasionally to the extent of the stipulated credit or cash account; and for these sums interest is paid to the banking house at the rate of 5 *per cent*. On the other hand, the merchant makes payments to the banker when it suits his conveniency, even of such small sums as L. 20 or L. 30; and if at any time the balance is in his favour, he receives no higher interest than 4 *per cent*. He does his whole business at that banking house; and if they is

sue notes, he assists, by his transactions, in putting them into circulation. The effect of the whole is, that the banker is secure of ultimate payment by the sureties to the original bond granted by the merchant; while the merchant is enabled to lay out his whole capital in trade, and, in case any sudden demands come upon him, to rely upon the banker for accommodation to the extent of his cash account. Thus established traders, who can find security, can at all times depend upon a reasonable accommodation from banking houses. They are not, as in many cities on the continent, under the necessity of retaining sums of money in a strong box, ready to encounter sudden demands upon them, or to enable them to make purchases that appear uncommonly advantageous: Neither are they exposed to the inconvenience by which merchants, in times of mercantile distress, are apt to be embarrassed, in consequence of the timidity of bankers who decline to discount their bills. A merchant who has a cash account holds a bill that is perpetually good in the estimation of the banker. Edinburgh.

These cash accounts, which are granted to persons of every profession who have frequent money transactions, are extremely favourable to the credit and extension of paper currency. By means of his cash account, every man of business in Scotland is indebted to some of the banking houses. The consequence of which is, that he cannot hesitate to take their notes, because he can always pay with them in full the debt that he himself owes at the bank.—In Edinburgh the employment of a banker is much respected; because this city, being little subject to the vicissitudes of commerce, bankers enjoy a certain profit, and encounter little risk. Excepting in one or two instances, therefore, the bankruptcy of a banker has scarcely occurred; and they are usually, or rather always, very prosperous men.

Edinburgh.

MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS OF EDINBURGH.

By its municipal constitution, Edinburgh is divided into several districts. Of these, the ancient Royal Borough, or *Royalty* as it is called, is the head. It consists of the High Street to the head of the Canongate, of the Cowgate, and Grass-market, with their adjoining lanes. The magistrates of this ancient district, in the character of Barons, or Lords of all the rest, appoint inferior magistrates, who govern the Canongate, the suburbs of Portsburgh and the Potter-row, and the town of Leith, under the appellation of *Baron Bailies*. Edinburgh, strictly so called, that is, the ancient Royal Borough, has a municipal government, consisting of what is called the *Town-Council*. This body consists of thirty-three persons. Of these, twenty-five constitute the ordinary council, which alone manages many of the city's affairs. The remaining eight are extraordinary members.

Town-Council.

The TOWN-COUNCIL is composed of two bodies of men, merchants and tradesmen. Originally no distinction appears to have existed in royal boroughs between these two bodies. The boroughs were in former times countenanced and favoured by our kings, to afford a kind of balance against the overgrown power of the nobles. The whole burgesses possessing property in a town were considered as the king's immediate vassals. His protection was necessary to them against the power of the neighbouring barons; while at the same time, by their numbers, they brought an important accession of strength to the royal cause in all political disputes. Persons living in boroughs, all of whom were probably burgesses in early times, appear to have been considered in the general character of *merchants*, or persons gaining their bread by the sale of commodities. Nor was any distinction made

among them on account of the manner in which they themselves procured the commodities which they sold, whether by their own skill and industry in originally manufacturing or fashioning them, or by importing them from distant countries into the borough. The boroughs were at first governed by town-councils elected by the citizens or burgesses; but factions having arisen in the boroughs, in consequence of this practice, an act of the Scottish Parliament, under James the Third, 1469, cap. 30. authorised, under some restrictions, the old council to elect the new. This statute was probably little regarded; and almost every Scottish borough has a constitution peculiar to itself. As they have a general resemblance, however, an account of that of Edinburgh will afford a tolerable idea of the nature of these municipal constitutions. Edinburgh.

In many respects the magistrates of boroughs are still considered as immediate dependents or servants of the crown, particularly in the forms by which property in boroughs is transferred. A burgess selling his house delivers it to the magistrates, as the king's commissioners or bailies, and they deliver the possession to the purchaser. It was probably under some notion of this sort of their immediately representing the king, that the town-councils of Scottish boroughs assumed the privilege, which they still exercise, of granting charters, styled *seals of cause*, to particular classes of tradesmen, called *crafts*, or *companies of arts*, constituting them into separate incorporations. These incorporated trades gradually grew into importance in the several boroughs; and at last a distinction came to be made between them and the merchants, properly so called, who merely buy and sell, but do not exercise any branch of art or manufacture. The incorporations created by the town-councils appear at last to have insisted upon being allowed to sit, by their representatives, Incorporations.

Edinburgh. in the body which bestowed upon them a political existence. The municipal constitution of Edinburgh, which was not ultimately fixed without many struggles, is so contrived as to preserve a sort of balance between the merchants or persons who sell commodities, and the incorporated tradesmen.

Merchant Company. The merchants of Edinburgh were not erected into a body corporate, distinct from the general incorporation of the borough, till the 10th October 1681; when they received a royal charter, under the name of the COMPANY OF MERCHANTS IN THE CITY OF EDINBURGH. The charter authorises them to elect a president, who is called the *Master of the Merchant Company*, together with twelve assistants, a treasurer, clerk, and officer. The company were empowered to purchase lands, to make bye-laws, to levy a tax upon apprentices and members, chiefly for the support of their poor. This incorporation has no right to elect a representative to sit in the Town-Council; but the principal members of that body, to become qualified for their offices, must be merchants, and consequently members of the Merchant Company.

Fourteen incorporations. The incorporated trades are fourteen in number; and each trade elects, under certain restrictions, a president, called its *Deacon*, by whom it is represented in the Town-Council. They take precedency of each other in the order in which they are here enumerated.—1*st*, The ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS. The surgeons and barbers were erected into a corporation by a charter, or seal of cause, from the Town-Council of Edinburgh, dated 1st July 1505. King James the Fifth, on 13th October 1506, ratified the charter, or seal of cause, in favour of the surgeons. Queen Mary exempted them from serving upon juries, and from mounting guard for the defence of the borough. On 25th February 1557, the surgeons and

apothecaries were united by an act of the Town-Council into one community. After that period the members appear to have abandoned their business as barbers; though they still possessed the exclusive privilege of exercising it. This occasioned an act of council of the 26th July 1682, recommending to this corporation to supply the town with a sufficient number of persons qualified to *shave* and *cut hair*, who should continue dependent upon the surgeons. But in the year 1722, the surgeons and barbers were separated from each other in all respects, except that the barbers are still obliged to enter their apprentices in the register kept by the surgeons. Edinburgh.

By a charter of his present Majesty, dated 14th March 1778, this incorporation was erected of new, under the name of the *Royal College of Surgeons of the City of Edinburgh*. This charter establishes a scheme of provision for the widows and children of the members. By this scheme, besides certain sums belonging to the Royal College, which are allotted to it, each member is obliged to pay L.5 a-year towards it during all the days of his life. If he die before making four yearly payments, neither his widow nor children receive any supply from the fund; but if he survive that period, and leave a widow, she is entitled to L.25 yearly during her widowhood only. If he die a widower, leaving children, they are entitled in whole to L.100. The meetings of this company are held in their own hall in the High School yards. By one of their ancient statutes ratified in parliament, and which is understood to be still in force, no person is allowed to practise pharmacy or surgery in certain of the southeastern counties of Scotland, till he has undergone an examination and been found qualified by this body.

2*d*, The GOLDSMITHS were originally incorporated with the hammermen. The period of their separation is uncer-

Edinburgh. tain; but it was previous to 1581, as in that year a charter from the Town-Council prescribed to them minute and judicious regulations concerning the receiving of apprentices, and working in gold and silver. The importance of this incorporation, considered as manufacturers, has lately declined, in consequence of the superior advantages possessed by the English artists from their great capital, and the division of labour which is established in their manufactories. Hence vast quantities of articles of jewellery goods are imported from England, and sold in the shops here, to supply the demand produced in this city by the great resort of wealthy people from all quarters. Two brothers, Messrs Cunningham, at the head of the Earthen Mound, are understood to be at present the only manufacturers of plated goods in Scotland.—3*d*, The SKINNERS were erected into a corporation by the Town-Council of Edinburgh on or before the year 1586.—And, 4*th*, The FURRIERS were incorporated by the same body; but at what time is unknown.

5*th*, The HAMMERMEN were erected into a corporation by a charter, or seal of cause, from the Town-Council of Edinburgh, of the 2d May 1483. This community at that time comprehended the following crafts: blacksmiths, goldsmiths, saddlers, cutlers, and armourers. There are now comprehended in it the blacksmiths, cutlers, saddlers, locksmiths, armourers, pewterers, sheersmiths, watchmakers, goldsmiths, hookmakers, pinmakers, beltmakers, founders, braziers, coppersmiths, and white iron smiths. This corporation meets in their hall in the Cowgate, called the *Magdalen Chapel*. This chapel is situated near the head of the Cowgate on the south side of the street. It was founded by Michael Macquhan, a citizen of Edinburgh, who, being greatly afflicted by disease and oppressed by age, appropriated the sum of L. 700 Scots towards erecting a charitable foundation, to which

various persons promised contributions which they ne- Edinburgh.
ver paid. Janet Rynd, relict and executrix to Macquhan, was induced to accomplish the design of her deceased husband, by adding L. 2000 Scots to the sum which he had granted. With this money she erected, on the site of a ruinous hospital called *Maison Dieu*, an hospital and chapel for the accommodation of a chaplain and seven poor men; and endowed it with a perpetual annuity of 138 merks Scots, arising out of certain lands and tenements. She dedicated her new foundation to Mary Magdalen; and by her deed of settlement, dated 12th February 1547, she granted it in trust to the incorporation of hammermen in Edinburgh, with whom it still remains. They employ the chapel as their place of meeting; and the small fund appropriated to it they devote to the support of their own poor.

6th and *7th*, The WRIGHTS AND MASONS form a single incorporation; but they have a double representation in the Town-Council. One deacon is annually chosen to represent the wrights, and another to represent the masons. They were incorporated by a seal of cause from the Town-Council, dated 15th October 1475. The privileges granted to this incorporation have been repeatedly confirmed by royal charter. It is commonly known by the name of *the United Incorporation of Mary's Chapel*. It consists of the following crafts: wrights, masons, bowyers, glaziers, plumbers, upholsterers, painters, slaters, sievewrights, and coopers. This community formerly had in Niddry's Wynd a hall, which, having been built upon the ruins of a chapel anciently dedicated to the blessed Virgin, was called *Mary's Chapel*, and gave its name to the incorporation. When the South Bridge was built, the hall was necessarily pulled down. A new one was erected in a lane to the westward of the Bridge, to which the name of Mary's Chapel

Edinburgh. has been transferred.—8*th*, The TAILORS possess several charters from the Town-Council ratified by the Scottish kings; but the time of their first incorporation is unknown.—9*th*, The BAKERS possess a charter from the Town-Council in 1522, which mentions their having been in possession of previous charters, then lost.—10*th*, The FLESHERS are a very old incorporation; but the time of their institution is unknown. It appears, however, that as early as 1488 regulations for them were established by the magistrates. At that time they appear to have been dealers in fish as well as flesh. They reject the appellation of *butchers*, which they account harsh and murderous.—11*th*, The CORDINERS or SHOEMAKERS are one of the oldest incorporations in Edinburgh. Maitland places their institution in 1440.—12*th*, The WEAVERS were incorporated by a charter from the Town-Counil, dated 31st January 1475. The petition for their charter states, that they had framed certain articles "for the honour and "love of God, of his mother the virgin Mary, and of "Saint Sovrane;" and prays a ratification of these articles. Among others care is taken to enact, "that the "priest shall get his meat." It appears that, in the times of popery, each incorporation had an altar in the church of St Giles, together with a priest or chaplain who attended it. The chaplain got his victuals by going about from house to house among the members of the incorporation alternately.—13*th*, The WAUKERS were originally clothiers. Their employment has now descended down to the milling and scowering of cloth. They were incorporated by the Town-Council on the 20th of August 1500. The HATTERS were united with them in 1672.—14*th*, The BONNET-MAKERS were incorporated by the Town-Council in 1530. By the fashion of wearing hats, their business has been ruined. The DYERS were united with this incorporation in the year 1640.—The CANDLE-MAKERS

were incorporated by act of council, 5th September 1517; but they have no representation in the council.—It will also be observed that several new trades remain necessarily unrepresented in the council, as booksellers, printers, engravers, grocers, vintners, and others. Edinburgh.

The Town-Council is elected in the following manner: First the fourteen incorporations meet by themselves; and each incorporation makes out a list (or *leet*, as it is called) of six persons, out of which the deacon of each incorporation must be chosen. These fourteen lists or *leets* are laid before the ordinary council of twenty-four, who strike off three names from the six, and return the lists so abridged to the different incorporations; and this is termed *shortening of the leets*. Out of the leets thus shortened the incorporations choose their respective deacons, who are then presented to the ordinary council of twenty-four; who out of the fourteen deacons choose six of them to be members of the ordinary council, upon which the six council deacons of the former year walk off. The next step in the election is the choice of three merchants and two trades counsellors. This is performed by the ordinary council of twenty-four; but the merchants and trades counsellors of the former year do not, upon the choice of their successors, immediately withdraw, but vote along with them in the remaining steps of the election. There are then thirty members who proceed to the next step of the election, which is to make up *leets*, out of which the lord provost, dean of guild, treasurer, and bailies, must be chosen. For this purpose a list is made up of three persons, one of whom must be elected provost. A similar list is made up for the election of dean of guild; a third, like the former, for the election of the treasurer; and a list of twelve, out of which the four bailies must be chosen—all of which persons, in the *leets* for provost and magistrates, must be merchants. The *leets* being made up, Election of the Town-Council.

Edinburgh. these thirty, and joined to them the eight *extraordinary* council deacons, making in all thirty-eight persons, proceed to the choice of the magistrates for the ensuing year. As the new part of the council, ordinary and extraordinary, is now filled up to this extent,

6 Council deacons
3 Merchant counsellors
2 Trades counsellors, and
8 Extraordinary council deacons

19 in all,

fourteen more members remain to be chosen to make up the full council of thirty-three. Of these the following eleven are chosen on the first Tuesday after Michaelmas (29th September): The lord provost, either a new person elected into that office, or the present one continued; four bailies; four old bailies, their offices borne by the four bailies of the former year of course; the dean of guild, either a new person elected, or the present one of course; the treasurer, either a new person elected, or the present one of course. Hence, if the three offices of lord provost, dean of guild, and treasurer, should all happen to be supplied with new persons, instead of eleven vacancies in the council being filled up on the day already mentioned there would be fourteen, which would render the council complete; for the persons who were formerly provost, dean of guild, and treasurer, would, for the ensuing year, become old provost, old dean of guild, and old treasurer; but if no new persons are elected to be provost, &c. then there are none to fill up the places of old provost, &c. of course; which therefore is done, either at the next or some subsequent meeting, by the ordinary council of twenty-three or twenty-four. The number is thus various; because it so happens that a new provost, dean of guild, and treasurer, do not come into council in the same year, but a

new provost and dean of guild the one year, and new treasurer the other, alternately. Edinburgh.

The office of Lord Provost of Edinburgh has at times been held by men of very great respectability, whose activity and public spirit have much contributed to the improvement of the city. At the same time it is to be remarked, that this city, from the account now given of its municipal constitution, can scarcely be expected to be at all times under the management of its most distinguished inhabitants. The merchants and the trades hold the government between them, and are in some measure balanced against each other. As Edinburgh is not a manufacturing town, but is supported by the families of rank which resort to it, by the practitioners of the law, by the officers of the national government, and by the university established in it, the tradesmen or manufacturers of Edinburgh necessarily hold a place of very inferior importance in the community. With regard to the merchants, they are seldom such properly so called, but merely shopkeepers, such as grocers, booksellers, drapers, &c.; and these hold the higher offices of the magistracy. The persons properly entitled to the designation of merchants belonging to Edinburgh usually have their residence at Leith. It is true, the Leith merchants are members of the Merchant Company, and eligible to the magistracy of Edinburgh; but in consequence, probably, of the distance of their dwellings from the centre of the city, they have never been of any municipal importance, and attain to no higher offices than those of magistrates or bailies of Leith, acting by deputation from the Town-Council of Edinburgh.

In the meanwhile, as the members of the learned professions, especially of the very wealthy and numerous profession of the law, together with the men of property who

Edinburgh. reside in Edinburgh, without devoting themselves to any particular profession, are all excluded from the rank of magistrates of Edinburgh; it sometimes happens that these magistrates possess less weight in the community than their situation might be expected to command. Their conduct and measures are frequently exposed to unmerited obloquy; and they find a difficulty in carrying into effect the most necessary measures. Their political importance, as electors of a member of parliament, is even perhaps hurtful to their respectability; because it operates as a temptation to statesmen, or to men of rank, to interfere in their elections, and to endeavour, if possible, to remove men of independent fortunes or character from the magistracy to make way for their own political or personal adherents.

Police. The POLICE of Edinburgh has hitherto been defective; and the tranquillity of the city has in ordinary times depended more upon the good morals of the inhabitants than upon any arrangement adopted for their protection. Of old, the citizens performed a species of personal service for defence of the town, called *watching and warding*. By this the trading part of the inhabitants were bound to keep watch in person alternately during the night, to prevent or suppress occasional disturbances. In the progress of manners this personal attendance was found extremely inconvenient; and the citizens were convinced that their own case would be promoted, and the city more effectually protected, by a commutation of their services into money, to be paid by them for maintaining a regular guard.

City Guard. Conform to this idea, the Town-Council, in A. D. 1648, appointed a body of sixty men to be raised, whereof the captain was to have a monthly pay of L. 11 : 2 : 3 Sterling, two lieutenants of L. 2 each, two serjeants of

L. 1, 5 s. three corporals of L. 1, and the private men of 15 s. *per* month. No regular fund being provided to defray the expence, the old method of *watching and warding* was quickly resumed; and those on whom this service was incumbent were become so relaxed in their discipline, that the privy council informed the magistrates, if they did not provide a sufficient guard for preserving order in the city, the king's troops would be quartered in it. Upon this forty men were again (1679) raised as a town-guard. This body was, in the year 1682, augmented to 108 men at the instigation of the Duke of York. The appointment of the officers was vested in the king, who was also declared to have a power of marching this corps wherever he thought proper. To defray the expence of this company, the council imposed a tax upon the citizens, and the imposition was ratified by the king. Upon the revolution, the Town-Council represented to the estates of parliament, that they had been imposed upon, or compelled, to establish a town-guard, and complained of it as a grievance which they wished to have removed. Their request was granted; and the citizens had recourse once more to *watching and warding*. So speedily, however, did they repent themselves of the change, that the very next year they applied for the authority of parliament to raise, for the defence of the city, a corps of no fewer than 126 men, and to assess the inhabitants for discharging the expences. Since that period the number of this corps, which is called the *town-guard*, has been very fluctuating, and of late amounts to only 75 private men. From the great extension of the city and suburbs within these last forty years, the city-guard has become completely inadequate to the care of its numerous streets and lanes during the night. In Edinburgh very few shop-keepers of any consequence inhabit the house in which their shops are situated. Thus pro- Edinburgh.

Edinburgh. perty of immense value is left under no other protection than that which an ordinary locked door affords; and hence it has occasionally happened, from there being no watch in the public streets, that very great depredations have been committed, by shops being entered into with false keys. This is the more likely to occur in the most public streets; because, after the shops are shut, Edinburgh is often extremely ill lighted during the night—a circumstance to be ascribed to two causes: the deficiency or mismanagement of the revenue allotted to that object; and the exemption from city taxation which in Edinburgh is enjoyed by almost the whole members of the profession of the law—a privilege established in their favour in former times when lawyers were few, and when the courts of justice, being ambulatory, required to be tempted by such an inducement to fix their residence permanently in one city. It has been proposed of late, and the community at large have assented to the necessity of the measure, that a general system of police should be adopted for protecting, lighting, and cleaning the streets. As the magistrates of the ancient royalty are aware, that a reluctance might exist to entrust to them the funds or the power requisite to carry into effect such an institution, it has been agreed, that the heads of some other public bodies, together with a representation of the more wealthy inhabitants, shall undertake this trust.

Public revenue. The REVENUES of the Incorporation or Town-Council of Edinburgh form a very intricate subject, upon which much has been said and even written. The affairs of all public bodies are usually conducted in a profuse and negligent manner; and as the magistrates of royal boroughs in Scotland are not accountable in any legal process to their fellow-citizens for the management of the revenues with which they are entrusted, it naturally follows, that

the revenues of the city of Edinburgh should in general have undergone the fate of similar public establishments. At the same time, as this borough has frequently been divided by faction, the conduct of its magistrates has often been scrutinized with an unjust asperity, which, however, has in general produced the beneficial effect of preserving it more tolerably correct than is said to have occurred in more obscure boroughs. Edinburgh.

The proper *revenue* of the city of Edinburgh consists partly of certain duties or taxations; such as the impost on wines, the shore-dues at Leith, the duties collected at the flesh, poultry, fish, meal, and other markets; the annuity, or ministers stipend; partly of their landed property, such as Leith and Bruntsfield Links, Calton-hill, and Meadows, with some houses and shops in Edinburgh and Leith; partly of their feu-duties, as those of the mills on the Water of Leith, of the houses in the New Town, &c.; partly of what is paid for private water pipes. Besides these, there is a statutory revenue arising from a tax of two-pence Scots on every Scots pint of ale or beer brewed within the city or imported into it.—The debts of the city are very great; and disputes have of late occurred between different parties in the Town-Council about their amount, in the same way as in Parliament about the amount of the national debt.

The city-treasurer of Edinburgh, who is, in virtue of his office, a member of the Town-Council, is no more than town's cash-keeper. To collect the revenues, and keep a state of them, is the duty of a different officer. As the branches of the city's revenues are various, and many of them consist of very numerous but trifling articles, it was found impossible for the treasurer, during his continuance in office, to acquire a thorough knowledge of the town's affairs. Besides, had he understood them fully, Treasurer and Chamberlain.

Edinburgh. still their multiplicity required a labour and attention incompatible with the management of a separate business. For these reasons the Town-Council, in A. D. 1766, appointed an officer with an adequate salary, whose sole business it should be to collect and keep an accurate state of the city's revenues. This officer is called the CITY CHAMBERLAIN.

Authority of the Magistrates. The Magistrates of Edinburgh still possess very ample powers in the administration of justice. By some of their old charters, particularly by one from James the Third, whom they rescued from imprisonment in the Castle, the most extensive authority, legislative, judicative, and executive, is bestowed upon them; and in consequence of grants from successive sovereigns, which in barbarous times they contrived to interpret very extensively, they issued edicts, tried offences committed against these edicts, and, as executive officers, they saw their own sentences put into execution. They granted monopolies of all sorts; such as the exclusive privilege of keeping stage-coaches to run between Edinburgh and Leith, of japanning, of printing burial letters, of printing newspapers on certain days of the week, and many others. By an edict in March 1695, they prohibited women from selling ale or other liquors, and ordained that no vintner should employ a female servant. They repeatedly prohibited women from wearing plaids under heavy penalties, and from tucking up any part of their cloaths over their heads. They ordained (19th July 1593), that young women, who, as daughters of burgesses, were entitled to the freedom of the city, if they did not enjoy an unspotted fame at the time of their marriage, should forfeit the freedom of the city, both for themselves and their husbands; and by another edict they declared, that such young men as, having finished their apprenticeship, should marry the

daughter of a freeman, should be admitted members of the guild; but if they married the daughter of any other person, or did not marry at all, they should not be received into that fraternity till they had undergone an additional servitude of eight years. During the first rage of the reformation from popery, also, they made various violent and even sanguinary statutes against the adherents of the ancient faith. Edinburgh.

The Lord Provost of Edinburgh is styled *Right Honourable*, and is high sheriff, coroner, and admiral, within the city and liberties, and the town, harbour, and road of Leith. He has a jurisdiction in matters of life and death. He was an officer of the Scottish parliament, is president of the convention of royal boroughs, colonel of the trained bands, commander of the city-guard and of Edinburgh jail. Within the city he has the precedency of all the nobility and great officers of state upon all occasions, walking on the right hand of the King, or of his Majesty's commissioner, and has the privilege of having a sword and mace borne before him. The magistrates are justices of the peace and sheriffs depute; and the Town-Council are patrons of the university, and electors of the city's representatives in Parliament. They have the right of presenting to all offices of trust, honour, or emolument, depending upon the city. Rank, &c. of the Lord Provost.

The Lord Provost and Magistrates have one or other of them an extensive civil, and a still more ample criminal jurisdiction. The courts held by them are, the criminal court, the bailie court, the ten merk court, and the dean of guild court.

The powers of the Lord Provost of Edinburgh and of the Bailies, who are considered as his deputies as judges of crimes, are extremely extensive, though of late they have been less frequently exerted. Instances exist on re- Criminal jurisdiction.

Edinburgh. cord of trials before them for murder, and all inferior crimes, such as house-breaking, theft, forgery, using of false keys, lifting dead bodies from the grave, celebrating irregular marriages, publishing defamatory libels, &c.

Bailie Court. What is called the BAILIE COURT is held by one of the four bailies, who sit for three months alternately. In this court actions for debt are competent to any amount against a party who is an inhabitant of Edinburgh. This court tries frauds against the city's revenue, and has a power of valuing and selling ruinous houses within the borough, that they may be rebuilt in case the proprietors shall refuse to rebuild them.

Ten Merk Court. What is called the TEN MERK COURT is held by one of the bailies. Its name expresses the extent of its jurisdiction; the sum of 11s. 1⅓d. being the highest amount for which any action be brought before it, excepting actions for servants wages. This court meets weekly. A party condemned to make payment must do so immediately, or go to prison.

Dean of Guild Court. The DEAN OF GUILD COURT regulates buildings within borough, and is very necessary in Edinburgh; where the height of the houses, and the manner in which they are crowded together, occasions many disputes. The business of the Lord Dean of Guild, as he is called, is to take care that the buildings within the city be erected according to law; that encroachments be not made upon the public streets; also, to judge between adjoining proprietors concerning the limits of their respective properties; to consider the state of buildings, whether they be in such condition as to threaten damage to those dwelling in them, or to the neighbourhood; and to grant warrant for repairing, pulling down, or rebuilding them, according to the circumstances of the case.

The dean of guild has a council of five appointed to

him, whose opinions he consults; but if it be a matter of much importance, as the ordering a house to be pulled down as ruinous, he does not proceed but upon the verdict of a jury of fifteen men, half merchants half tradesmen, who are specially called for the purpose. Edinburgh.

As the bailies and dean of guild of Edinburgh, who act as judges in those courts, cannot be supposed qualified, from their education or habits, to decide upon the elaborate written pleadings which are frequently laid before them in questions of importance, the Town-Council allows a salary to four ordinary assessors, who are members of the faculty of advocates; and these gentlemen determine all such causes. The magistrate only annexes his subscription, to give authority to the decision. His Majesty's advocate and solicitor are at times consulted as extraordinary assessors. Town's assessors.

As the Town-Council of Edinburgh are superiors of the Canongate, Portsburgh, and Leith, they appoint certain of their own number bailies of these *boroughs of barony*. They are called the *Baron Bailie of the Canongate, Portsburgh, &c.* The one appointed for Leith is called the *Admiral of Leith*; because within that district he has a jurisdiction in maritime affairs. The baron bailies appoint one or two inhabitants of the respective *baronies* their substitutes. These are called *resident bailies*. They hold courts in absence of the baron bailies for discussing civil causes of small moment, and deciding in petty offences. Baron bailie.

Edinburgh has a PRISON adjacent to the church of St Giles, which was built by the citizens in 1561, and destined for the accommodation of the parliament and courts of justice, and for the confinement of debtors and of criminals. By the change of manners, it has long been unfit even for the last of these purposes. Since 1640 this build- Prison.

Edinburgh. ing has been used solely for a jail. The apartments in it are narrow and miserable; but of late years the magistrates have put them within into a state of cleanness, which in former times was unknown. Without, it is one of the greatest deformities of the city. It stands in the middle of the High Street, and exhibits an object which, both from its destination and its architecture, is equally displeasing. An intention has long existed to erect a new prison upon a better plan, adjoining to the courts of justice; but the want of money, which in this world obstructs many good and many evil designs, has hitherto impeded the accomplishment of this object.

In the middle of the Canongate is a court-room for the magistrates of that district and a PRISON. These were built in the reign of James the Sixth. This prison is well aired, and has some decent apartments. Debtors of the better sort are usually taken to it.

Bridewell. On the Calton-hill, to be seen from the North Bridge, is a correction-house or BRIDEWELL, built within these few years. It is a strong stone fabric. The principal part of the building is in the form of the letter D, with a house for the governor at some distance opposite to the northern or rectilineal part of it. The whole is surrounded by lofty walls, betwixt which and the house is an area laid out as a garden.

This is said to be one of the most complete buildings of the kind in Britain. It consists of five stories; the uppermost of which is used as an hospital for sick prisoners and for store-rooms, &c. The other four stories are laid out in the following manner: A passage goes along the middle of the semicircular part of the building with apartments on each hand. The apartments on the outward side of the curvature are smaller than those on the inner side. They are double the number, and are used as separate

bed-chambers for each of the persons confined. The a- Edinburgh.
partments on the inner side of the semicircle, of which there are thirteen in each story, are allotted for labour. They have a grate in front, and look into the inner court. Opposite to them, in the flat side of the building, is a dark apartment with narrow windows, from which, without being seen, the governor can see how the prisoners in the apartments for work are employed. The court, or space in the middle between the flat and semicircular part of the building, is roofed in at the top; and a great part of it is covered with glass, so as to light the whole. On the floor of the area is a stove, which during winter heats the whole apartments allotted to labour. There is also a pulpit, from which a chaplain preaches on Sundays; and the prisoners come into the front apartments to attend the service.

The bed-chambers, looking outwards to the country, are lighted by a long narrow window in each. The window is glazed. The frame in which the glass is fixed is of iron. It turns on pivots fixed at the top and bottom, so as to be opened and shut at pleasure. Each bed-chamber, which is about eight feet long by seven broad, is furnished with a bed and a bible. The frame of the bed is of iron, and the bed consists of a straw mattress of the best quality. The whole floors and partitions of the building are of stone. No wood is used excepting for the doors of the apartments. There are cells, however, for solitary confinement for male criminals, in which the frames of the beds are of wood, lest, by breaking them, tools or weapons of a dangerous nature should be obtained. Large cisterns, supplied with water from the city's reservoir, are placed at the top of the house, from which the water is distributed to the different stories, and to a kitchen, washing house, and baths, on the ground floor.

Edinburgh. The institution is managed with great care. Besides being superintended by the magistrates of Edinburgh, the sheriff of the county once each month visits every corner of it. It is kept in a state of the most perfect cleanness. The prisoners, when first received, are clothed in a uniform belonging to the place; and their own clothes, after being cleaned, are preserved for them till their dismission. They remain during the day in the apartments allotted to labour, from which they are always dismissed as soon as it becomes dark to their bed-chambers. The women spin, and the men pick oakum. Their food consists of oatmeal porridge with small beer for breakfast and supper; and for dinner, of broth made of fat and vegetables, resembling what in Scotland is called *shearer's kail* (reaper's broth.) Those that exert any tolerable industry are allowed bread to their broth, and also a larger portion of porridge. Only one death has occurred in the house during the last four years; and in that case the individual who died had come into Bridewell under a complication of diseases. In truth, the food, clothing, good air, and comfortable lodging, which are enjoyed in this place, are far superior to what the greater number of its inhabitants can expect to obtain on their return to the world at large. To reside here, therefore, is a punishment from moral and not from physical causes; that is to say, because it is attended with the loss of freedom and of society, and because it is a place of infamy.

Royal Exchange. For public business the city of Edinburgh is furnished with an EXCHANGE, on the north side of the High Street, adjoining to the spot where the cross formerly stood. It was begun to be built in 1754, and finished in 1761, at an expence of L. 31,500, including the price of some ruinous houses, which were pulled down to make way for it.

The EXCHANGE is an elegant building of a square fi-

gare, with a court in the centre. The principal part of the building forms the north side of the square, and extends from east to west 111 feet over wall, by 51 feet broad. Pillars and arches, supporting a platform, run aloug the south front, which faces the square, and forms a piazza. In the centre, four Corinthian pillars, whose bases rest upon the platform, support a pediment, on which the arms of the city of Edinburgh are engraved. This building is to the south, or main front, 60 feet; but, by reason of the extreme inequality of the surface, is to the northern 100 feet high. The extreme dimensions of the whole building amount to 182 feet south and north, by 111 feet east and west upon the north front, but upon the south front 147 feet. This fine building has never answered the purpose for which it was intended. Instead of assembling here for business, the merchants and others still continue to meet upon the open street, where the cross formerly was, and where they remain exposed to all the severity of the weather, as their ancestors did before the means of obtaining better accommodation were prepared. In the view which we have given of the High Street, the front of it is seen on the left. The station of the spectator is nearly in front of it. Edinburgh.

Adjoining to the North Bridge, on the steep declivity of the hill, are the MARKETS of the city for the sale of butcher's meat and fish. They ascend by flights of steps one above another. The fish market is lowest; and farther up the hill, but communicating with it by an open stair, is one division of a butcher's market, which communicates in like manner with another division higher up; and that with a still higher area, in which veal and poultry are sold. Above this last is the market for vegetables. The whole is thus laid out in a manner and situation as convenient as the territory on which the city of Markets.

Edinburgh

Edinburgh stands will permit. The markets are kept in good order.

For butcher's meat there are three market-days each week, Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday; and on these days the greatest proportion of business is done. The institution of market-days is of great importance in a borough. On ordinary days, the members of the different incorporations possess the exclusive privilege of supplying the market with all sorts of commodities; and were this privilege strictly adhered to, the natural effects of monopoly would convert every borough into a desart. On market-days strangers are allowed to expose their commodities to sale, and thus to enter into competition with the privileged burgesses; a circumstance which obliges the latter to deal reasonably with their fellow-citizens. And as the magistrates derive a revenue from strangers bringing goods to market, they are led to protect and encourage the institution: accordingly there are market-days established in Edinburgh for all sorts of commodities; Tuesday for oat-meal, in a market-place in the Cowgate; the same day for woollen yarn in the part of the High Street called the *Lawn-market*; Wednesday is appointed for horses and cattle, and also for grain, shoes, &c. in the Grass-market, and wooden utensils on the High Street below the Tron Church, &c.

POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS.

With regard to its Political Establishments, it may be remarked, that Edinburgh to this day exhibits the whole institutions and arrangements peculiar to the capital of an independent kingdom; the person of the sovereign and of a legislature being all that is wanting. In particular, the royal palace of Holyroodhouse, a residence of our ancient

Palace of Holyrood-house.

kings, still remains a monument of the good taste and of the magnificence of our forefathers. Edinburgh.

This building has undergone various changes. The north-west towers were built for a royal residence by James the Fifth. It was afterwards burnt by the English in the minority of Mary Queen of Scots, but was speedily repaired, and was rendered a more extensive building than the present. It consisted of five courts; great part of these, however, were burnt by Cromwell's soldiers. It was ordered to be repaired at the restoration; accordingly the principal part of the present fabric was designed by Sir William Bruce, a celebrated architect in the reign of King Charles the Second, and the work was executed by Robert Mylne, who was interred and has a monument in the park adjoining to it, or rather in the burying ground of the ancient monastery.

Description of the palace.

The Palace is a magnificent stone fabric, consisting of a square, on all sides decorated with piazzas, and a spacious walk. We have given a view of the interior of the square. The western part or front consists of two lofty double towers, joined by a beautiful low building or gallery, adorned with a double ballustrade above, in the middle whereof is a magnificent portico decorated with high stone columns, which support a cupola in form of an imperial crown, underneath which is a clock. Above the porch or principal entry are the royal Scots arms, as borne before the union. The other three sides of the square are lofty and noble, of three stories in height. The great stair-case is equal in grandeur to the rest of the building. The gallery on the north side is 150 feet long; but the breadth is only $27\frac{1}{2}$, and the height 18. This apartment is hung with pictures of a race of an hundred and eleven monarchs through an imaginary series of two thousand years. They are of no value, and many of them are

Edinburgh. much defaced. This is said to have been owing to General Hawley's having thought fit, after the defeat of the royal army which he commanded at Falkirk, to quarter his beaten troops in the gallery of this palace; and they who had fled before undisciplined and ill-armed highlanders here manifested their loyalty by defacing and cutting in pieces what was supposed to be the representations of the Scottish monarchs. The same well-disciplined troops, about a fortnight thereafter, burnt down the royal palace of Linlithgow, after enjoying in it a night's lodging. Here also is the room in which the elections of the Scottish peerage are at present held. It was anciently the royal dining room; adjoining to it is a drawing room and state bed-chamber. The rooms are wainscotted with oak; and the festoons of flowers and foliage over the doors and mantle-pieces are well executed. Near to the long gallery, in what are called *Lord Dunmore's lodgings*, is a celebrated painting of Charles the First, and his queen in a sort of Vandyke riding habit; a horse for his Majesty and a palfry for the Queen are also introduced; the whole in a very masterly manner. Here are also full length pictures of their present Majesties by Ramsay.

This magnificent palace, after having long been applied to no useful purpose, and threatening to fall into decay from being no longer possessed and kept in repair, was recently rendered interesting and conspicuous by becoming the retreat of a part of the first royal family in Europe, whom the terrible career of the French revolution had compelled to retire to this sanctuary for insolvent debtors. The east part, together with the south wing, contains the suit of chambers which the Count d'Artois (*Monsieur*), and the nobility and clergy who attended him, inhabited. These have been fitted up with considerable elegance. Excepting these, the only apartments

which are worth viewing are those belonging to the Duke of Hamilton, hereditary keeper of the palace. Strangers are usually led into Queen Mary's apartments, in the second floor of which her own bed still remains. It is of crimson damask, bordered with green silk tassels and fringes, and is now almost in tatters. The cornice of the bed is of open figured-work, but of a light execution. Close to the floor of this room, a piece of wainscott, about a yard square, hangs upon hinges, and opens a passage to a trap-stair, which communicates with the apartments beneath. Through this passage Lord Darnly and the other conspirators rushed to murder Rizzio. The Queen was then supping, with the Countess of Argyle and Rizzio in attendance, in a closet off her bed-chamber about twelve feet square, the present north-west tower of the palace. Rizzio was forced out of the closet, dragged through the bed-chamber into the chamber of presence, where, being pierced with redoubled wounds, he expired. Edinburgh.

Adjoining to the Palace are to be seen the beautiful Gothic ruins of the Chapel or Church of Holyroodhouse, which is all that now remains of the wealthy Abbey of Holyroodhouse (*domus sanctæ crucis*). We have given a view of the chapel, and have represented entire the inner stone work of the great window, though it was broken down within these few years by a violent gust of wind. The abbey of Holyroodhouse was founded by King David the First, A. D. 1128, and was richly endowed. He bestowed on the canons regular of St Augustine, to which order it belonged, the church of Edinburgh castle, and those of St Cuthbert's, Corstorphine, Duddingston, and Liberton in the county of Midlothian, and of Aerth in Stirlingshire. The priories of St Mary's Isle in Galloway, of Blantyre in Clydesdale, of Rowadill in Ross, and of Crusay, Oronsay, and Colunsay in the Western Isles, Chapel of Holyroodhouse. Ancient abbey.

Edinburgh also belengod to them. King David granted to the canons the privilege of erecting a borough between the town of Edinburgh and church of Holyroodhouse, which still retains the name of the *Canongate*, with a right to hold markets in it. He also gave them portions of land in different parts, with a most extensive jurisdiction, and a right of trial by duel, and the fire and water ordeal. He allotted to them certain revenues, payable out of the Exchequer, and out of other funds, with the fishings, and the privilege of erecting mills on the Water of Leith, which, from the name of the body in which the privilege was vested, are still termed the *Canon mills*.

Besides the grants already mentioned, various privileges were bestowed on this abbey by succeeding sovereigns; so that it was deemed the most opulent religious foundation in Scotland. Its annual revenues at the reformation were 442 bolls of wheat, 640 bolls of beer, 560 bolls of oats, 500 capons, 2 dozen of hens, 2 dozen of salmon, 12 loads of salt, besides a number of swine, and about L. 250 Sterling of money.

At the reformation the superiority of the Canongate, North Leith, and a part of the suburb of Pleasance, and barony of Broughton, were vested in the Earl of Roxburgh. The Town-Council of Edinburgh purchased these superiorities from the earl, A. D. 1636, and obtained a charter of confirmation of the same from King Charles the First, A. D. 1639.

The church of Holyroodhouse suffered considerably when the English burned down the palace upon their invasion by sea, A. D. 1544. However, both church and palace were speedily repaired. At the restoration, King Charles, or rather his brother the Duke of York, afterwards James VII. having resolved to rebuild the palace, and at the same time to give the church a complete re-

pair, ordered that it should be set apart as a chapel royal in all time coming, discharging it from being used as the parish church of the Canongate, which it had hitherto been. It was accordingly fitted up in a very elegant manner: A throne was erected for the sovereign, and twelve stalls for the knights of the order of the thistle; but as it was accommodated with an organ, and as mass had been celebrated in it in the reign of James the Seventh, the populace, giving way to their fury at the revolution, destroyed the ornaments of the inside of the church, leaving nothing but the naked walls. They even broke into the vault which had been used as the royal sepulchre, in which lay the bodies of King James the Fifth, of Magdalene of France his first queen, of the Earl of Darnley, and others of the monarchs and royal family of Scotland. They also broke open the leaden coffins, and carried off the covers, but left the rest. Those walls which could withstand or were spared by the fury of a mob, have since been brought to the ground through the extreme unskilfulness of an architect. Edinburgh.

As the roof of the church was becoming ruinous, the Duke of Hamilton, *heritable* keeper of the palace, represented its condition to the barons of Exchequer, and craved that it might be repaired. To this effect an architect and mason were consulted. The walls of the church were already six hundred years old, and were in a frail condition; yet these persons sagely proposed, instead of putting a light slate roof on it, to cover it with flag stones; to support which, no small quantity of stone-work would be necessary about the roof. They accordingly gave in a plan and estimate of the work, amounting to L.1003, which was approved of by the barons of Exchequer, 7th August 1758. The new roof soon injured the fabric. A report was made to the barons by another architect in A. D.

Edinburgh. 1766, that the church would speedily become ruinous if the new roof was not taken off, as the walls had never been intended for so vast a load. Nothing was done in consequence of this report; and the roof fell in on the 2d December 1768.

King's park. The environs of the abbey of Holyroodhouse were formerly considered as a sanctuary to criminals; and they still afford an asylum for insolvent debtors. Adjoining to the palace there is an extensive park, first enclosed by James the Fifth, all of which is a sanctuary. This is a very singular piece of ground to be in the near neighbourhood of a populous city. It is little else than an assemblage of rude and lofty hills, rocks, precipices, morasses, and bogs, crowded together into a narrow compass. In the memory of people not long since dead, the level stripe at the foot of the hill, which, from the Duke of York's having delighted to walk in it, bears the name of the *Duke's walk*, and was covered with tall oaks; but now there is not a single tree in its whole boundaries. Indeed it is extremely doubtful, if, except at the bottom, there were ever any trees on these hills; the height of the ground and barrenness of the soil being very unfavourable for their growth.

St Anthony's chapel. At no great distance from the palace, at the foot of the greater hills, are still seen, on the summit of a small and rugged hill, the ruins of the Chapel and Hermitage of St ANTHONY. The hermitage was a beautiful Gothic building, well suited to the rugged sublimity of the sequestered spot on which it stands. It was 43 feet long, 18 broad, and 18 high. At its west end was a tower, 19 feet square, and about 40 feet high. The whole, however, is passing rapidly into complete decay, though it has still the aspect of a venerable and romantic ruin.

These hills, over which not only the insolvent debtors

residing in the sanctuary, but the public in general pos- Edinburgh.
sess the privilege of rambling at large, form an object of some curiosity. Some sequestered spots are to be found among them which exhibit a portion of the rudeness and solitude of a wild and uncultivated territory, while at the same time they are actually situated not only in the midst of a populous country, but within a mile of 80,000 people. We have already noticed the varied and extensive prospects which they afford from different points, too numerous to be mentioned in written dessription. One circumstance, however, ought not to pass unnoticed; This park or collection of hills has of late years been subdivided by stone walls of masonry into inclosures of a moderate size. In forming the inclosures, steps or styles have indeed been left for passengers; but these have been formed in such a manner as to render it at all times difficult, and in windy weather not a little dangerous, to pass from one field into another. Thus the benefit of the park, as a place of exercise, is in a great measure lost to valetudinarians. Indeed a considerable effort and some courage are necessary to pass the lofty and slippery styles which have been formed over the stone walls most recently erected.

These hills possess considerable treasures worthy of the investigation of the mineralogist and the botanist. Basaltic columns are to be seen at one spot overhanging a foot-path that leads from Edinburgh to the village of Duddingston. The rocks chiefly consist of the kind of stone here called *urbin-stone*, which is used for paving the streets, and which was at one time sent by sea to London for that purpose. Various mineral strata are found below this rock, with specimens of jasper and other stones. As a considerable variety of climate exists within this park, which includes some fertile valleys, together with a mountain of 700 feet in height, the utmost variety of plants have been discovered in it,

Edinburgh. Dudding-ston loch.

amount of above 400 species. On the south it is bounded and adorned by a lake, called *Duddingston loch*, which in winter is resorted to by young men from Edinburgh for the amusement of skating. This lake produces a very extensive variety of indigenous plants. The chief uses, however, of these botanic treasures has hitherto been, that by decay and resolution, they form at the bottom of the loch or lake a rich black mud, which constitutes an excellent manure. Strong reeds grow at the west end of the lake in great abundance and luxuriance, and cover above four acres of ground. These have been employed by weavers to supply their looms, and form besides a most valuable thatch for any species of houses; which, by the strength and hardness of the fibres, resists the attacks of sparrows, mice, and the common vermin which infest and deface straw roofs. This lake is in summer covered with flocks of coots, which when young form a tolerable variety for the table. They remain till the closing of the ice totally excludes them from the water, when they emigrate to the sea, and return with the first thaw. Wild duck, teal, and water hens, also frequent the lake. Swans, originally imported tame, breed in it prolifically, and form one of its picturesque ornaments. The fish which are found in the lake are, pike, perch, and a profusion of eels; twenty dozen of which have been killed in an evening by the aid of a barbed spear, trident, or rather sexdent.

Mint.

In Edinburgh, as the capital of Scotland, besides a royal palace and park, the whole other remnants or memorials of departed royalty are still found. In the Cowgate the Scottish MINT still exists; and although money is no longer coined there, the succession of officers of the Mint, who have apartments in it, is still kept up; but they are now nothing more than sinecure places. A bell is, however, rung by the proper officer at the hours at which the servants of the Mint in former times repaired to their en-

ployment. Within these few years the gates were shut carefully every evening as in former times, till this practice was complained of as inconvenient by the modern inhabitants. Edinburgh.

There is also a commander in chief, with a suitable staff, usually appointed over the army in Scotland; and he naturally resides at Edinburgh. There is entrusted to him the command of the whole military force stationed in Scotland.—It may also be remarked, that, in addition to the king's troops stationed in the castle, and in barracks to the eastward of the city, there are volunteer corps of inhabitants, who have taken up arms for the national defence, and are regularly clothed and disciplined, to the amount of betwixt three and four thousand effective men. One regiment of 1100 consists of gentlemen furnishing their own uniform, and receiving no pay, who are all dressed on field days in the finest scarlet. There are also several companies of sharp-shooters elegantly dressed, besides a body of volunteer cavalry. The remainder of the volunteer corps receive an allowance from government in proportion to their attendance; but the officers in all the corps are gentlemen who serve gratuitously. Military. Volunteers.

There have been bodies of armed volunteers in Edinburgh at different periods; at the revolution, during the rebellion in 1745, and during the American war. On this last occasion they assumed the appellation of the *Edinburgh Defensive Band*. In the end of the year 1794, in consequence of the war of the French revolution, the system was taken up on a more extensive scale. A regiment of gentlemen was formed, and afterwards in 1797 some other regiments of an inferior class of persons were enrolled and disciplined. During the short interval of tranquillity under Mr Addington's administration, they were all dismissed, but were again resumed upon the com-

Edinburgh. mencement of the present war with Bonaparte. The appearance of the regiments under arms is accounted not inferior to that of the troops of the line; and there is little doubt that, in case of invasion, providing they were not injudiciously employed in distant firing, which might produce disorder, but brought to the charge *aux armes blanches*, without burning gun-powder, their individual sense of character, together with their personal strength, aided by the coolness and intrepidity natural to northern nations, would render them at least a match for any equal number of men that could be brought against them.

Court of Session. There exists in Edinburgh, as in former times, a complete establishment for the administration of justice. The principal courts of law are three in number: A civil, a criminal, and a revenue or exchequer court. The supreme civil court is styled the COURT OF SESSION. This court was established in its present form in 1532. In former times, as Scotland was always in danger of losing its independence by an English invasion, the Scots were accustomed to look for protection and assistance to France; and the institutions of that country were therefore favourite objects of imitation. Hence the Court of Session appears to have been instituted, in some measure, after the model of the ancient French parliaments. This court was appointed to consist of fifteen ordinary judges, seven churchmen, seven laymen, and a president, whom it behoved to be a churchman. Besides these, the lord chancellor had a right to preside and vote in that court when he thought proper; and the king might also appoint three or four peers of the realm *extraordinary lords*, as they were called, with a power to take their seats on the bench, and vote when they thought proper; a privilege which he never failed to exercise. This part of its constitution was a great nuisance. Men, ignorant of the laws in general, and unacquainted with the particular cases in which they interfe-

red, who had no salary for their trouble, and who on these accounts could not be expected to attend the court but when instigated by personal interests or political views, were not ashamed to take their places amidst experienced judges, and to thwart the ordinary course of justice. This pernicious part of the institution was abrogated since the accession of the House of Hanover. The judges of this court are now appointed by the crown from among the body of advocates or barristers of at least five, or writers to the signet of ten years standing; but, in practice, instances of the latter being raised to the bench are extremely rare. The court at present consists of a president and fourteen other judges. Each of the fourteen sits for a week alternately in the *outer house*. The judge so sitting is called the *lord ordinary*; and except certain causes supposed to be of peculiar interest and importance, or to which the law allows unusual dispatch, which can at once be brought before the whole lords, he discusses all the new causes that are put in to the roll during the week that he sits in judgment. These causes are seldom determined upon a single hearing; and the judge has a power of altering his own sentence as often as he inclines. Each of the lords comes once or oftener in the week to the outer house, to hear pleadings, or give judgment upon those causes which came first before him when he sat as lord ordinary; and upon which many written cases, or *representations* as they are called, may have already been laid before him. If the parties do not acquiesce in the lord ordinary's judgment, which in matters of any importance is often the case, application is made for altering the sentence by a printed petition, which is presented to the whole lords. Besides petitions, various printed papers are produced, under the titles of states, cases, proofs, informations, answers, replies, and duplies: yet not notwithstanding these voluminous pa- Edinburgh.

Edinburgh.

pers, the lords will often hear pleadings in the same cause, and these so diffuse as to occupy the court during a whole week, sometimes three weeks. Indeed it is a misfortune attending the mode of conducting business before this court, that its multiplicity is so great as to make it impossible for the judges to do their duty without subjecting themselves to very slavish drudgery.

Jurisdiction of the Court of Session.

The Court of Session, or, as they are called, the Lords of Council and Session, possess a supreme civil jurisdiction, liable, however, since the union, to the review of the House of Lords. This mark of subjection before that period was not imposed upon them; for, by the law of Scotland, no appeal lay from the Court of Session to the Parliament. They do not judge maritime nor consistorial causes, nor those which are proper to a court of freeholders, or the Lord Lyon in the first instance; but the decrees of these different courts are subject to their review. They possess a criminal jurisdiction, not only in those matters which may arise incidentally in civil causes, such as perjury and forgery, but also in the crimes of usury, deforcement, or resistance to the officers of the law, wrongous imprisonment, fraudulent bankruptcy, and others; and although they cannot indeed punish capitally, yet whipping, imprisonment, pillory, and perpetual banishment, are classed among the number of the punishments which they once inflicted.

Their power is chiefly important upon this account, that they act both as judges and jury; and that they act at once as a court of law and as a court of equity, not bound by strict forms when they appear inconsistent with justice. In virtue also of a statute, empowering the Court of Session to make rules for regulating the procedure which occurs before them, and for the speedy execution of justice, they exert a kind of legislative authority. By edicts, call-

ed *acts of sederunt*, they not only regulate the forms of procedure before the court, but, like the Roman prætors, they declare the principles upon which, in certain cases, they intend to administer justice. Thus, by one of these acts of sederunt, they superseded an express act of parliament, which regulated the mode of removing farmers from their possessions, and established a new mode. By other acts of sederunt, they ordained that all bankrupts should continually wear an upper coat, of which the one half should be of yellow cloth, and the other of brown, and upon their heads a party-coloured cap of the same sort. They understand themselves to be in some measure successors of the Scots privy council, and as entitled to provide a remedy for every evil or irregularity that may occur in society, against which no other provision is made. Accordingly they have frequently fixed the prices of provisions, and have given authority to magistrates to compel all inn-keepers and dealers in poultry to declare upon oath at what prices they had sold poultry, dressed or undressed; so that it might be discovered whether the standard prices were conformed to. Upon the death of commissaries in the ecclesiastical courts, and of sheriff-deputes, they have been in use to grant commissions to persons to exercise these offices till they were of new filled up by the crown. Edinburgh.

In ancient times, the great defect in the constitution of this court was that, obtaining their places from the crown, and consequently by means of political influence, and amounting at the same time to a considerable number of persons not under the inspection or controul of a jury, the judges were extremely apt to sacrifice the interests of justice to those of their patrons and kindred. Accordingly Bishop Burnet mentions in his time an instance of a nobleman of high rank, who was accused of anxiously endeavouring to influence the nomination of the judges of the Court of Ses-

Edinburgh.

sion, because he had many important law-suits in dependence. Nor does it appear that justice was administered in this court with a complete purity, excepting by the English commissioners during the usurpation, till the legislative union between Scotland and England.—Here we cannot avoid taking notice of that truly honourable circumstance, which is the highest glory of the English nation, and gives them a moral superiority over every other people; that is, the correct administration of justice which at least in civil causes they at a very early period of their history established in their country. Hence arises their habitual respect for their magistrates, and their fair and equitable conduct in commercial dealings, which ensures at once their prosperity and the tranquillity of their country. Every man acquires an independence, and at the same time a moderation, of character; the natural result of the persuasion, that he has no other master than law and reason, and that every other upright and industrious man enjoys similar security with respect to him. This first and most complete of all political blessings the English nation have gained, not merely for themselves, but they have diffused it wherever their influence has extended. And thus they have given rise to a train of prosperity, not founded upon the character of individual rulers, but upon public and general virtue. It could only be from the circumstance of their possessing the law of England as their rule for administering justice, that the American states, with scarcely a shadow of political government to controul or influence their conduct, were enabled, by the mere habit of giving obedience to law and to reason, to pass through the late tempestuous period of revolutionary politics free from war abroad or a convulsion at home. It is from the same cause that English colonies almost uniformly and rapidly prosper. No sooner did Scotland come into com-

English jurisprudence.

plete contact with the English nation by the treaty of union, and obtain a right of appeal from Scottish courts to a court in which an English judge presided, and in which English lawyers could along with our own appear as practitioners, than the spirit of clanship was banished from the Scottish courts: they immediately assumed the character of impartiality which they found to prevail in the supreme court of review. Accordingly, the defects which now exist in the supreme civil court of Scotland seem to be chiefly these, that the office of a judge in it is intolerably laborious, and that the process is somewhat tedious. Edinburgh.

In England, where a jury, called from among the mass of the people, acts as a constant spy or check upon the judges, and where, in proportion to the extent, the riches, and the population of the country, they are extremely few in number, the judges avoid as far as possible incurring any sort of responsibility, and shelter themselves, either by leaving cases to the conscience of the jury, or by taking care, in the opinions which they deliver, to repose upon the authority of their predecessors. When a previous decision can be pointed out, fixing the rule of judgment in any particular question at issue, the eloquence of counsel is from that instant disregarded: and, in the words of Sir George M'Kenzie, the cause is dispatched in an instant, like a hare seized in her den; because the judge contents himself with getting quit of the matter by stating that to be law which had formerly been called *law*. If the public are dissatisfied with their law as thus established, they are at liberty to have recourse to the legislature for an alteration.

In the supreme civil court in Scotland, the judges, who hold their places for life, not being attended by a jury, upon whom to throw the decision, are anxious to prevent their own determinations from becoming suddenly final. They review them with anxiety, and endeavour to render

Edinburgh. them acceptable to the public, from the intelligence and fairness with which they are pronounced. Hence it is probable, that in this court causes are far more carefully investigated, and an ultimate decision pronounced with more correctness and deliberation, than in the southern part of the island; but this very circumstance prolongs the discussion, rendering it tedious to the parties and laborious to the judges. As almost all the cases of any consequence, also, are finally decided in a court consisting of fifteen men, who are compelled by statute to deliberate in public, such a number of persons cannot fail to entertain, and frequently to express, contradictory opinions. Hence some people have been disposed to regard the court as too much resembling a popular assembly, in which precedents are in danger of being rashly undervalued.

At the same time, as the judges of this court must by its constitution consist of professional men, precedents are respected, though not in that implicit manner that is done by the English judges under the inspection of a jury, and without the countenance of a numerous court. The decisions, therefore, of the Court of Session are quoted in the pleadings of lawyers, and possess considerable authority with the judges; but they are seldom understood so very completely to decide a case as in England, or to render the efforts of eloquence or of reason utterly unavailing.

Something similar may be discovered in the judicial establishments of Greece and Rome. In Athens, the judicial authority appears to have been lodged in very numerous assemblies of the people; the consequence of which was, that they had eloquent pleaders, but that their law never grew up, by a train of precedents, into an established system of jurisprudence. In a new assembly, under the influence of a new orator or pleader, the principle which had been settled was completely reversed, and

laid open for future discussion. In Rome, on the contrary, the judicial authority was vested in a single judge, the prætor, or at most in a few prætors. He decided, like the English judges, upon the law, and remitted the fact to the cognisance of arbitrators, of whom a list was annually made up, and who consisted, like the persons liable to serve on English juries, of nearly the whole citizens of unexceptionable character. As the prætor, like the English judges, did not always venture to encounter public criticism by deciding questions from his own judgment, but sheltered himself under the opinions of his predecessors in office, the Roman law grew up, like the law of England, into a system of great magnitude and of venerable authority. This had never occurred among the Greeks, for the reason already mentioned, that their crowded tribunals daily overturned what their predecessors had established. Edinburgh.

The supreme civil court in Scotland possesses a mixt character between the Greek and the Roman systems of jurisprudence. The tribunal consists of professional men, who are sufficiently few in number to establish by their decisions a system of law possessing considerable influence; at the same time the judges are sufficiently numerous to leave room for the effects of future eloquence, and to prevent the law, upon many points, from becoming absolutely fixed and certain.

The salaries of the judges of this court are not high in proportion to their trouble and their rank. That of the president is at present L. 3000, and of the other judges L. 1280. Such of them as are judges of the criminal court have a further salary on that account.

The practitioners before this court are, as in England, barristers, called *advocates*, and attorneys, who receive the appellation of *agents* or *men of business*. The advocates are persons of liberal education, who undergo exa- Practitioners of the law.

Edinburgh.

minations upon the Scottish and Roman laws: they also pay upon their admission a sum of money, which has been increased at different periods, and at present, including perquisites to inferior officers, amounts to nearly L.170. The agents, who conduct the causes, but are not pleaders, are of different orders. The first class are styled *writers* or *clerks to his Majesty's signet*. They possess the exclusive privilege of writing summonses and other writs which pass in the king's name. They serve an apprenticeship of five years, paying an apprentice fee of L.100, and sums to the society of writers to the signet amounting to an additional sum of L.110. They also undergo an examination at their admission. There is likewise an incorporated society of solicitors before the supreme courts, who serve an apprenticeship of three years, and pay a moderate sum at their admission. In addition to these, every advocate is entitled to nominate a first clerk, who possesses the privilege of acting as an agent before the court.

Writers to the signet, &c.

Character of the practitioners.

It has probably arisen from the competition for respectability to which this division into classes or orders has given rise, that Scotland has been the first country in modern Europe that has produced a class of practitioners in the secondary department of the law, who are generally considered as possessing uncommon respectability, and are extremely jealous of their personal reputation. The writers to the signet, as a body, precede the others in rank; but the emulation of personal respectability produces a considerable degree of equality in the different orders of practitioners before this court. The same character also communicates itself in a very great degree to the inferior officers of the law, to whom the execution of the decrees of the court are entrusted, called *messengers at arms*. We hear much in England of the inhumanity of bailiffs, and of the habitual

cruelty of their characters. In Scotland nothing similar is known. Unless on suspicion of a design to fly from the kingdom, no man's person is arrested for a civil debt till after a full discussion in a court of law. The attorney or agent who obtains the decree against him is a man of character, jealous of his own reputation, and who will not rashly become accessory to any act of severity. The messenger at arms whom he employs naturally participates in the same sentiments, and considers the laws of humanity as paramount to every other obligation. If an insolvent debtor is imprisoned, he can compel his creditors, on a surrender of his property, to afford him subsistence in prison; and, by a formal action, in which he brings proof that the events which occasioned his bankruptcy have not been fraudulent or criminal, and that he has made a fair surrender of his effects, he may obtain a decree of the Lords of Counoil and Session, protecting his person, though not his property, against the effect of any prior debts. Thus no practitioner of the law in Scotland, and no judge when compelling fulfilment of civil obligations, is under the necessity of hardening his mind against the feelings of humanity; because he knows that he is not delivering up a human being to the misery of hopeless imprisonment, as is often done under the law of England in similar cases. Edinburgh

The supreme criminal court of Scotland is called the COURT OF JUSTICIARY. It has a power of reviewing the decisions of all inferior courts; but it is understood that no appeal lies against its decrees to the House of Lords. Anciently the *Justice Ayre*, or Court of Justiciary, was the supreme court, civil as well as criminal; and causes of both kinds were tried in it by juries. It retained its civil jurisdiction some time after the institution of the Court of Session; but it is now abolished. The judges in it formerly were, the Lord Justice General, Justice Court of Justiciary.

Edinburgh. Clerk, and certain assessors added to them by the privy council, who were chosen from among persons not versant in the laws, and whose commissions only lasted during the particular trials upon which they were appointed to preside. A constitution so highly improper was altered by Charles II. and the court modelled into its present form. It now consists of the Lord Justice General, who is always a peer of the most distinguished rank or influence, the Lord Justice Clerk, and four Commissioners of Justiciary, who are also Lords of Session. The office of Lord Justice General bears a similar relation, in the Court of Justiciary, to that of one of the extraordinary lords formerly in the Court of Session, and, like these too, ought to be abolished, were it not on account of the trial by jury used in this court, which renders the office harmless.

The judges of this court go on circuit to the principal districts of the country, where they hold courts twice a-year. Upon these circuits they possess a civil jurisdiction, by way of appeal, in causes below L.12 Sterling, and in these they proceed without a jury.

Form of procedure. In criminal trials before this court the peremptory challenge, that is, the power of setting aside jurymen without assigning a reason, is not allowed to the accused party; but in every other respect the form of procedure is more favourable to him than in England. He must be served a fortnight before his trial with a full copy of the indictment, with a list of the witnesses against him, and of the names of forty-five men, out of whom the jury of fifteen are to be appointed. He is also in every case, contrary to the English law, allowed the assistance of counsel, who, besides examining and cross examining the witnesses, have the privilege of addressing the jury after the counsel for the crown has ended. This last privilege, in cases where men little accustomed to judicial procedure are to be ad-

dressed upon points of law, and questions relative to the import and validity of testimony, is evidently of such importance, that an able pleader by means of it might sometimes find it no difficult matter to render it almost impracticable to obtain a conviction of the party accused, were it not that its effect is in some measure done away by the liberty allowed to the presiding judge of addressing the jury after the pleadings are closed, and of pointing out any fallacy or sophistry in the train of argument that has been employed. The necessity of doing so, however, is apt to give to strangers an unfavourable impression of the character of the judges when compared with that of their brethren in England, where the judge is under the necessity of acting as a kind of counsel for the person accused, on account of his having the assistance of no other counsel. The Scottish practice, however, is incomparably the most favourable for the person standing on his defence; because the judge, if convinced of his innocence, will not oppose him; and there is always a chance that the pleadings of the counsel for the accused party may prevail in the mind of the jury over the opinion of the judge when given on the side of condemnation. Edinburgh.

In the COURT OF EXCHEQUER revenue causes alone are tried. It was established in its present form in consequence of the treaty of union, and trials proceed in the English manner. The judges of this court are, the High Treasurer of Great Britain, with a Chief Baron and other four Barons, who must be either serjeants at law or English barristers, or Scottish advocates of five years standing. All may plead before this court who can practise in the Courts of Westminster Hall or in the Court of Session. Court of exchequer

The whole members of these three courts, with the practitioners before them, constitute an incorporation called the *College of Justice*, which was instituted by James

Edinburgh. the Fifth. The judges of the Court of Session are styled *senators* of this college or incorporation. It includes advocates, writers to the signet, agents, the first clerks of advocates, the clerks of the courts, and the attorneys in exchequer. The whole members of this incorporation, forming the most wealthy and not the least numerous class of persons in Edinburgh, possess the privilege, as already noticed, of paying no taxes to the city of Edinburgh for the support of the clergy, the city guard, lighting the streets, or any other purpose; and it will readily be believed that this privilege has greatly contributed to render the police of Edinburgh defective.

Parliament house. The three supreme courts were long accustomed to meet in the house formerly appropriated to the Scottish parliament, and which was built by the city of Edinburgh. The court of exchequer is now removed to certain apartments in the Royal Exchange. The present parliament house, where the courts of session and justiciary sit, was begun A. D. 1631, and completed A. D. 1640 at the expence of L.11,600 Sterling. The parliament house is built in the shape of the letter L. It is 133 feet long by 98 broad in the widest end, and 60 in the narrowest; and, from the singularity of the area on which it is reared, although the buildings be 60 feet high, yet upon the north and east sides, which are the main fronts, it is but about 40 feet above ground. The great hall is 122 feet long by 49 broad. Over one of its entrances facing the east are the arms of Scotland well cut on stone, with Mercy and Truth on each side for supporters; and this inscription, *Stant bis felicia regna*, importing that these virtues make kingdoms happy; and under the arms this motto, *Unio unionum*, relating not only to the union of the two crowns, but signifying that their influence was necessary to the maintenance of it. The room for the meeting of parliament

had on that occasion an high throne for the sovereign or royal commissioner, with benches on each side for the nobility and bishops, and forms conveniently placed in the middle for the commoners. Without the area there was a pulpit for sermons to the parliament on particular occasions, and behind the pulpit a large partition for others besides the members to hear the sermons and debates of the house, when they thought fit to allow it. It must be observed, that the parliament of Scotland consisted but of *one house*, composed of the *three estates*, anciently the lords spiritual, the lords temporal, and barons and commissioners from the boroughs; but after the revolution, of the lords temporal, the barons or knights of the shire and the boroughs, who sat and voted together. In the east wall of this room is a marble statue of the Lord President Forbes in his robes, erected by the faculty of advocates. The practitioners and others attending the court assemble here; and it forms for the city of Edinburgh a kind of public exchange during the session of the courts, at which men of business of all kinds meet. One or more judges sit in different parts of it to decide the causes that come before themselves. Adjoining to this apartment are the rooms for accommodating the whole court of session or inner house, and the court of justiciary. The lowest floor of the parliament house is entirely under ground. It is laid out in six apartments, in which the advocate's library is accommodated. Edinburgh.

The records of the courts of session and justiciary are preserved in a splendid building called the REGISTER OFFICE. The public records of Scotland have suffered many disasters. When Edward the First almost subdued the kingdom, he carried off or destroyed its ancient records, that no proof or marks of its independence might remain. At a future period, Oliver Cromwell conveyed Register office.

Edinburgh. the greater part of the records then existing to London. Upon the restoration, a vessel carrying back to Scotland a great part of these papers was shipwrecked; but some that came in other vessels arrived safe. The public archives being in general preserved in apartments under ground, or in wooden buildings, the Earl of Morton, then lord register of Scotland, to avoid the danger of this mode of preservation, obtained by a grant from his Majesty L. 12,000 Sterling out of the money arising from the forfeited estates, to be applied towards erecting, upon a plan that should render it indestructible by fire, a building in which the national records might be safely preserved. The sum granted having lain at interest for nine years, a plan of a building was made out by Robert Adam, Esq. architect; and the foundation-stone was laid on the 27th of June 1774 by Lord Frederick Campbell, lord register. This ceremony was performed under a discharge of cannon, in presence of the lord provost and magistrates, the judges of the courts of session and exchequer, and a vast crowd of spectators.

This is accounted by far the most beautiful of Mr Adam's designs. It has been correctly executed, and finished with beautiful hewn stone. It is situated at the east end of Prince's Street, 40 feet back from the line of the street, and looks along the North Bridge. The front is in length from east to west 200 feet, and the breadth of the building is 120 feet, including the diameter of the dome. What is built is only one half of the plan intended. In the centre is a large dome 50 feet in diameter, and 80 in height. At each corner of the front is a little projection with a Venetian window; and on the top a beautiful stone ballustrade, with a small cupola. In the middle is another projection, three windows in breadth, and four Corinthian pilasters, supporting a pediment, within

which there is a representation, in a composition, of the arms of Great Britain. The front is ornamented with a fine entablature of the Corinthian order. The dome is lighted from the top by a window 15 feet diameter, the frame of which is of copper. The roof is divided into compartments richly ornamented with plaster of Paris work. In the walls within are numerous arched divisions, disposed into presses, for holding the records; the access to which is by a gallery that encircles the whole building. Under the dome there has lately been erected an elegant marble statue of his present Majesty by the Hon. Mrs Damer. Edinburgh.

There are two elegant stair-cases leading to the various chambers, where the records are kept and the apartments for the clerks. The number of these divisions, when the plan is completed, exclusive of passages, stair-cases, and water-closets, is ninety-seven, which are all arched below and accommodated with fire-places.

There is also established at Edinburgh an ADMIRALTY COURT; the judge of which has the power of appointing deputies. His decrees are subject to the review of the court of session in civil, and to that of the court of justiciary in criminal cases. He has a jurisdiction in all maritime causes; and by prescription he has acquired a jurisdiction in mercantile causes not maritime. He is declared by statute to be his Majesty's justice-general upon the seas, and in all creeks, harbours, and navigable rivers, beneath the first bridge. Admiralty court.

The COMMISSARY COURT of Edinburgh was instituted by Queen Mary, and is the general consistorial court for Scotland. It consists of four judges, nominated by the crown from among the faculty of advocates. It has an universal jurisdiction in questions of marriage and divorce, and reviews the decrees of local commissary courts. Besides its universal, it has a local jurisdiction over Edin- Commissary court.

Edinburgh. burgh and the four adjacent counties on the south side of the Forth. Its nature is to sanction the appointment of executors, and to ascertain debts contracted relating to the last illness and funeral charges of persons deceased, or obligations arising from testaments, or claims of persons requiring aliment out of the effects of a person deceased. Its decides in actions of scandal, and upon all debts which do not exceed L. 40.

Lyon court. The LYON COURT was anciently of much importance. The *Lord Lyon, king at arms*, was an officer of high rank and antiquity. His office and station in Scotland are similar to that of garter king at arms in England. At the coronation of his present Majesty, the lord lyon and garter king at arms walked abreast immediately preceding the lord great chamberlain of England. Of old the lord lyon was employed in carrying public messages to foreign states; and it is still his province to assist at declaring war, proclaiming peace, &c. He derives his name from the lion rampant, the armorial bearing of the Scottish kings, which he bears on his variegated robes. He was anciently installed into his office with the ceremony of a coronation. The officers serving under the lord lyon are, heralds, pursuivants, and messengers at arms. It is the business of the last of these to execute all summonses before the court of session, to apprehend the persons of debtors, and, in general, to perform the executive parts of the law. It is the province of the lord lyon to adjust matters of precedency, to marshal persons walking in public procession, to inspect the coats of arms of the nobility and gentry, to punish those who assume arms not their due, to bestow coats of arms upon persons deserving, to grant supporters to peers, or other persons of distinguished rank, and to take cognisance of offences committed by messengers at arms in the course of their office.

The office of lord lyon is now held as a sinecure, and the business is committed to deputies, who exercise a jurisdiction over messengers at arms, to the effect of depriving them of their office; but the business of heraldry having now fallen into disrepute, genealogies are said to have been sometimes enrolled in the books of the lyon court, and coats of arms granted, in a very negligent manner. Edinburgh.

Edinburgh being the chief town of the county is the seat of a SHERIFF COURT. The Sheriff was anciently the king's lieutenant, and enjoyed an extensive jurisdiction both civil and criminal; but of late years a separate lord lieutenant is appointed, who with his deputies takes the management of military affairs. In former times, the sheriff reviewed the decrees of the baron courts within his territories. He mustered those military companies, or bodies of militia, whose exercises were known by the name of *weapon shawings*. He received, and still continues to receive, from the collectors within his district, the old royal revenues, which he pays into the exchequer. He summons a jury of forty-five persons, out of whom the court of justiciary selects fifteen to sit upon trials held before them. He returns, as member of parliament for the county, the person having a majority of suffrages upon the roll of freeholders. He establishes, by the assistance of a jury, the *fiars*, or rates which must be paid for grain that ought to be delivered when no precise price is stipulated. He has a civil jurisdiction, which, however, does not extend to contests for the property of landed estates; and a criminal one in cases of theft and other crimes of lesser moment. The office is now exercised by a judge called the *sheriff-depute* and by his substitutes. The sheriff-depute is appointed by the crown. He must be a member of the faculty of advocates of at least three years standing. Sheriff court.

Besides these courts there is annually held at Edinburgh

Edinburgh. Convention of boroughs.

a representative assembly called the CONVENTION OF ROYAL BOROUGHS. In ancient times the judgments of the magistrates of boroughs were liable to the review of the chamberlain of Scotland and his court of the four boroughs. This was an officer of great dignity and extensive jurisdiction. He kept the accounts of the royal revenues and expences; and he held circuits, or *chamberlain ayres* (as they were called), in the different boroughs, for the purpose of reviewing the decrees of the magistrates, of hearing complaints against them for mismanagement of the public revenue, and for regulating the police; but the decrees of the chamberlain were themselves liable to be reviewed by the court of the *four boroughs*. This court, in which the chamberlain presided, was composed of certain burgesses of the towns of Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, and Roxburgh, who were appointed to meet annually at Haddington, to decide, as a court of the last resort, upon appeals taken from the chamberlain ayres, and to deliberate and determine upon all matters respecting the common welfare of any of the royal boroughs. When the office of chamberlain was suppressed, the power of reviewing the decrees of magistrates of boroughs was left to the ordinary courts of law. The management of the funds, or property of the boroughs, was left without controul; a circumstance which has given rise to many disputes in Scotland; but the power which the chamberlain and his court exercised of regulating matters respecting the welfare of the boroughs, was transferred to the convention of royal boroughs.

This court was instituted in the reign of King James the Third, and appointed to be held yearly at Inverkeithing. It does not appear, however, from the records of the convention, that it met earlier than the year 1552. By a statute of James the Sixth, this convention was appoint-

ed to meet four times in the year in any borough they thought proper; and, to avoid confusion, it was ordained that only one commissioner should appear for every borough except Edinburgh, which should have two. By a subsequent statute, a majority of the boroughs, or the city of Edinburgh with any other six, were empowered to call a convention as oft as they thought proper; and all the other boroughs were obliged to attend it under a penalty. Edinburgh.

The powers of the convention relate chiefly to the establishment of regulations concerning trade and manufactures; and, in particular, they have repeatedly renewed a kind of commercial treaty with the town of Campvere in the Dutch province of Zealand. As the royal boroughs pay a sixth part of the Scottish land-tax, the convention is empowered to consider the state of trade in the individual boroughs, and to proportion their share of the land-tax accordingly. Like all other political bodies, this convention has at times attempted to extend its powers. They have attempted to assume the important power of regulating and altering the political constitutions of the boroughs, of judging in all questions between boroughs, and between burgesses among themselves, or concerning the election of the magistrates, or their management of the public revenues or other concerns. But upon the most important of these points their authority has been restrained by the courts of law.

In Edinburgh, as the capital of Scotland, are held the meetings of the supreme ecclesiastical court, called the GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE CHURCH. It consists of representatives from all the ecclesiastical bodies in Scotland, and also from the royal boroughs; a considerable majority of which members are clergymen in orders: the rest are laymen, who have been created in some parish what is called *ruling elders*; a term expressive of their being General Assembly of the church.

Edinburgh. laymen or lay elders, and not clergymen, who are teaching elders. This representative body, to which the king annually sends a nobleman as his representative, under the appellation of *high commissioner*, was once of great political importance; but in consequence of a variety of circumstances, it has of late become very manageable, and is of little weight. At the close of this work we shall give an account of the singular republican constitution of which it is the head.

Leith. LEITH is the port of Edinburgh. It stands at the mouth of a small river of that name, and appears to have been anciently called *Inverleith*. This word *Inver*, prefixed to the name of a river, is a frequent appellation in Scotland of a town near the mouth of the river, or its confluence with another river. It is said to be of Gaelic derivation. The field of etymology, however, is very wide, and always leaves room for conjecture. In the present instance, for example, it is just as probable that the word *Inver* is of French as of Gaelic derivation. It may imply that the town is adjacent (*envers*) to the river. The Harbour is formed by the conflux of the Water of Leith with the sea. The depth of the water at the mouth of the harbour is at neap tides about nine, but in high spring tides about sixteen feet. It is entirely a tide harbour; the water in the river being too trifling to give any important aid towards the navigation. About the beginning of the late century, the magistrates of Edinburgh improved the harbour at a great expence, by extending a stone pier to a considerable distance into the sea. In the year 1777 they farther improved it by erecting an additional stone quay towards its west side. It is accommodated with wet and dry docks, and other conveniences for ship-building, which is there carried on to some extent; and vessels come hither to be repaired from various quarters of the East coast of Scotland.

Leith consists of two parishes, called *South* and *North Leith*, from their situation upon different sides of the river. In South Leith, the greatest part of the town is included; and also a considerable country district extending southwards towards Arthur Seat, and including the ancient parish of Restalrig. South Leith contains in its suburbs many fine houses belonging to wealthy merchants, and one or two streets of this description; but in general the town is laid out in an irregular form with narrow streets and lanes, which are usually extremely dirty. As Leith has at all times been dependent upon Edinburgh, its police and other public affairs have been ill conducted. The only market for butcher's meat is a spot which an individual has appropriated to that purpose with a view to derive profit from letting the stalls in it. Leith is also extremely ill accommodated with regard to fresh water. The water in the wells is neither good nor abundant; and the inhabitants have never adopted any rational plan for supplying themselves from a distance. Maitland mentions, that in his time, about the year 1750, they levied money by a voluntary contribution, and brought water in a leaden pipe of an inch and a half bore from a lake in the parish, called *Lochend*. This lake is about 500 yards in length, and half as much in breadth. It is of considerable depth, and is said to abound in perches, pikes, and eels. The water of it, however, was never good, for a reason remarked by Maitland, that it seems to be supplied, not by springs, but merely by the rain and snow which fall upon the neighbouring fields; the water from which merely stagnates in this piece of low ground. When the great improvements, by means of the bridges, were carrying on in Edinburgh, the people of Leith contributed to the expence of these works, on condition that they should receive a share of the new supply of water that

Edinburgh.

Parishes in Leith.

South Leith.

Lochend.

Edinburgh. was about to be brought into Edinburgh; but, as they were to receive no water till Edinburgh was fully supplied, when they were to obtain the superfluity, they were necessarily disappointed; as it could scarcely happen that a large city like Edinburgh, which was rapidly increasing, should ever be found to have too much water. Maitland had suggested to the people of Leith the propriety of bringing their water in pipes from a plentiful spring at the foot of the rocks of Arthur Seat and Salisbury Craigs; but they had disregarded this judicious proposal. The same advice was renewed to them at the time the South Bridge of Edinburgh was building, by the late Earl of Haddington, to whom the right of pasturage of these mountains hereditarily belongs; and his Lordship offered to consent, gratuitously, to their using the springs and cutting the ground for this purpose. But the town-council of Edinburgh had sufficient influence to prevail with the people of Leith to trust to the hope of obtaining a supply of water from Edinburgh. The consequence was, that after laying pipes to Edinburgh, they got no water, and were under the necessity of remaining contented with the bad water of Lochend. This water is growing daily worse, and must probably soon be altogether pernicious and unfit for use. Much bad water from the suburb called Quarry Holes already passes into it; and if the city should extend in that direction, it will be impossible to prevent the natural declivity of the soil from conveying towards it much rain water from the streets.

Restalrig. South Leith has a parish church, in which the cure is served by two clergymen. As Leith once formed a part of the estate of Logan of Restalrig, it was situated in that parish. The ruins of the church of Restalrig are still to be seen about a mile to the eastward of Edinburgh. This

church was founded by James the Third in honour of the Trinity and the Virgin Mary, and was endowed by the three succeeding monarchs. It was furnished with a dean, nine prebendaries, and two singing boys. The building was highly ornamented with statuary and sculpture, representing the objects of religious worship. When the General Assembly of the church, in 1650, zealously ordered all churches to be purified of the relicts of popery, a report was made to them by a committee, that it would be impossible to accomplish the object with regard to this church without injuring the fabric; upon which the General Assembly ordered it to be pulled down, and entirely demolished, as a monument of idolatry! Some fragments of the walls, however, still remain. The church-yard is still sometimes used as a burying place. In the middle of it there is a spacious vault of a circular figure, with yew trees on its top, which was originally the family vault of Logan of Restalrig, and now belongs to the Earl of Murray. In consequence of the zealous mandate of the General Assembly, the inhabitants of South Leith resorted for worship to the chapel of St Mary, which was afterwards declared by authority of parliament to be the parish church of the district. It is a spacious handsome building, and is kept in good order. As it was found insufficient for the inhabitants, they erected, in 1772, a chapel of ease for a clergyman upon the establishment of the church of Scotland. The officiating clergyman is nominated by his audience, and his salary is paid by means of the rents of the seats in the chapel. The dimensions of this building within the walls are 72 feet by 52. Edinburgh.

There is also an episcopal chapel at Leith; and, as in all towns of any consequence in Scotland, there are some meetings of presbyterian dissenters.

Edinburgh. public buildings of any importance excepting a prison, at which a guard is usually stationed from the regiment upon duty for the time in the castle of Edinburgh; and a custom-house for the sake of the trade at the port: neither of which buildings are at all remarkable.

Incorporations of Leith. Mary of Lorrain, queen dowager and regent of Scotland, divided the inhabitants of Leith into four classes, and erected them into incorporations. These were the mariners, maltmen, trades, and traffickers. The first of these consisted of ship-masters and sailors; the second, of malt-makers and brewers; the third, of coopers, smiths, bakers, wrights, &c.; and the fourth, of merchants and shop-keepers. Of these incorporations, that of the mariners now makes the principal figure, in consequence of their possessing considerable funds, and of their occasional interference in the regulation of affairs relative to navigation. Opposite to South Leith church there is a large house belonging to them, called the *Trinity House*, from its having anciently been an hospital dedicated to the Holy Trinity. Some of their poor were formerly kept here; but they have adopted the more judicious mode of supporting them as out-pensioners.

Leith Bank Of late years the principal merchants of this town have established a banking house, called the *Leith Banking Company*, for the accommodation of each other, and of persons engaged in trade. The company issues notes for small sums payable to the bearer, and does business to a considerable extent. This company is at present erecting a stately and elegant building to be used as a banking house. The British Linen Company has also a branch established here.

South Leith is joined to North Leith by a draw-bridge thrown across the harbour. Formerly the connection was formed somewhat higher up the river by a stone bridge of three arches, which appears to have been founded by Robert Ballantyne, abbot of the monastery of Holyrood-

house, about the year 1493. North Leith originally belonged to the parish of Holyroodhouse; but in the year 1630 a part of the parish of St Cuthbert's was annexed to it, and it was made a separate parish. This parish consists of about 170 acres, and includes the villages of North Leith and Newhaven. It is in the parish of North Leith that it has been thought practicable or advantageous to extend the harbour of Leith; and accordingly very extensive works for that purpose are now carrying on, though with what success time only can determine. In the meanwhile, however, they threaten to produce the dangerous effect of augmenting the bar at the mouth of the old harbour, by means of a depositation of sand, which within these two years has been made there by the action of the tides. This accumulation of sand has already considerably narrowed the entrance to the harbour. At Newhaven, which is about half a mile to the westward, and is a small fishing village, the water upon the coast is deeper than at Leith. Hitherto the passage boats from Midlothian to Fife, and which belong to Kinghorn in Fife, have sailed from Leith across the Frith to the harbour of Pitour near Kinghorn. This passage has always been found extremely inconvenient, on account of its being interrupted many hours every day in consequence of the tide retiring from Leith. It has therefore been resolved to remove the passage to Newhaven on the side of Midlothian, where no such inconvenience can exist; and to Burntisland on the opposite coast, which is an excellent harbour. With this view a high road has been opened from Edinburgh directly to Newhaven, instead of the circuitous road by Leith; and a bridge has been thrown over the Water of Leith at the point where this road crosses it.

Edinburgh.

North Leith.

North Leith has a parish church; an old building now about to be pulled down. A part of it was anciently call-

Edinburgh. ed the *Chapel of St Ninians*, and was, like a part of the parish, a dependency of the abbey of Holyroodhouse. The

Citadel. most remarkable object, however, in North Leith is the citadel, or remains of a fortification erected there by Oliver Cromwell. The traces are to be seen of some of the bastions, together with a strong gate, which still forms the entry to the buildings called the *Citadel*. After the restoration, the fortifications were in a great measure demolished; and the site of them granted to the Duke of Lauderdale, then prime minister for Scotland to Charles II. To gratify the rapacity of this unprincipled minister or favourite, the Town-Council of Edinburgh, in the year 1668, were under the necessity of purchasing the area of the fortifications at the price of L.6000 Sterling; at that period in Scotland an enormous sum of money, and sufficient to have purchased a very large land estate.

Battery. Towards the close of the American war, in consequence of an alarm occasioned by the appearance of Paul Jones in the Frith with three armed vessels, a battery of nine guns was erected to the westward of the citadel for the purpose of defending the harbour of Leith. A party of artillery constantly reside at this battery, which is kept in excellent order; and of late a considerable park of artillery has been stationed here.

Newhaven. In consequence of the superior depth of water at Newhaven, it might probably have proved a successful rival to the harbour of Leith, had not such an event been prevented in early times by the influence of the city of Edinburgh, and more lately in consequence of the difficulty of removing the great establishments or houses and warehouses of merchants which have been fixed at Leith. James the Fourth erected at Newhaven a yard or dock for ship-building, and a harbour for the reception of vessels; and it then received its present appellation. A cha-

pel was also erected and dedicated to the Virgin Mary and St James. The people of Edinburgh, having become apprehensive that this port might prove prejudicial to their harbour of Leith, purchased it from King James the Fifth, which necessarily prevented its further improvement. The chapel fell into ruin after the reformation; but its area is still used as a burying ground by the inhabitants. Edinburgh.

On the side of North Leith the sea, or Frith of Forth, has a great tendency to encroach upon the land; and to resist its farther progress, it has of late been found necessary to erect very powerful bulwarks of stone. In the year 1595, the Links, or level ground adjoining to Newhaven, and betwixt that village and Leith, were let at a yearly rent of six merks Scottish money, and in the same year the Links of South Leith were let at thirty merks. The Links of Newhaven must therefore have been one fifth of the dimensions of those of Leith, which form a very extensive territory; whereas at present the Links between North Leith and Newhaven have totally disappeared. A road has only been preserved at a great expence; and what must formerly have been a plain of considerable magnitude is nothing more than a waste, which is twice daily flooded by the tide, and is thickly strewed with fragments of stone, from around which the mould or soil has been completely washed away. Encroachment of the sea.

Edinburgh can in no respect be considered as a manufacturing town; a circumstance which greatly limits the commerce of the port of Leith; because no cargoes can here be procured to carry abroad to those countries from which goods are imported. Notwithstanding that this is true in general, several commodities are prepared in this city and its neighbourhood to a considerable extent in particular branches. The most remarkable of these is the distil- Manufactures.

Edinburgh

Whisky.

lation of ardent spirits from grain; a most pernicious art, which has been carried to higher perfection in Scotland than anywhere else in the world. The Earl of Lauderdale, in his *Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Public Wealth*, observes, "That the progress made of late years in Scotland in the art of distilling spirits, affords a strong illustration and example of the vast resources of human ingenuity in abridging labour by mechanical contrivances.

"In the year 1785, a proposal was made to collect the duty on the manufacture of spirits in Scotland by way of licence, to be paid annually for every still according to its size, at a fixed rate *per* gallon, in lieu of all other duties.

"The London distillers, men the most experienced in their profession, who agreed to the rate of the licence on the gallon, supposed to be equivalent to the former duties, declared themselves from experience satisfied, that the time for working stills with benefit was limited to an extent perfectly well known, and that whoever exceeded these limits would infallibly lose upon his materials and the quality of the goods what he gained in point of time; and in conformity to their opinion, the duty was, in the year 1786, settled upon the supposition that stills could be discharged about seven times a-week.

"Two years after this, in a memorial presented to the lords commissioners of the treasury, the same men alleged, that the Scottish distillers had, by the ingenuity of their contrivances, found means to discharge their stills upwards of forty times a-week: And we since know, from a report made to the lords commissioners of the treasury in the year 1799, that a forty-three gallon still was brought to such a degree of perfection as to be discharged at the rate of once in two minutes and three quarters, which is almost twenty-two times in an hour. It appears from this report, that the operation of distillation was capable

of being performed in a still shorter time, and that the quality of the spirit was nowise injured by the rapidity of the operation." Edinburgh.

It is indeed a singular circumstance to see in the vicinity of Edinburgh, in different places, vast piles of building, consisting of immense granaries, with great works for carrying on the different operations of malting, mashing, and fermenting enormous quantities of grain; and all this in subserviency to a single pot of a moderate size, which is used as a still. The whole art of distilling with that prodigious rapidity to which the Scottish distillers have attained depends upon this simple principle, that water or any other liquid is heated or brought to the boiling point and evaporated with a rapidity proportioned to the shallowness of the liquor. This consideration, as an important practical truth, appears to have been first effectually and completely understood by the Scottish distillers; and in proportion as government increased the duty upon stills, they made their stills broader, and the liquor in them shallower: So that, by running off or forming the spirits with prodigious rapidity, they paid no more duty upon the liquor which they produced when government imposed L. 108 upon every gallon that a still could contain, than they had formerly done when a tax of L. 3 *per* gallon was imposed, or even than they did when the duty was only 30s. The still now resembles a large frying pan of three or four inches in depth, with the cover so adapted as to allow the exhaling spirits very freely to ascend. A fire of prodigious intensity is kept constantly below the still. That the fermented ale in the still may not burn, and thereby give a bad taste to the spirits, it is constantly stirred by an apparatus, whereby metal chains are dragged along and around the whole bottom of the still. There is also a somewhat similar apparatus for breaking the froth On Scotch distillation.

Edinburgh. or scum when the liquor in the still reaches the boiling point. These two sorts of stirring apparatus or tools work within the still, but are moved by means of handles which communicate with the open air by very tight apertures. The still must not be allowed to become dry for a moment; as in this case, not only would the spirits be tainted with a burnt flavour, but from the intensity of the fire under it, the copper bottom would instantly be brought into fusion and destroyed. Hence the most correct attendance is necessary, that before the still is completely emptied, new liquor may be admitted. No rectifying still is used; but the spirits, after being formed by a first distillation, are again thrown into the still, and are understood to come off sufficiently pure. They come over in a full and rapid stream.

Distillation by steam. After all, it is believed that this art has scarcely yet reached its ultimate degree of perfection. On the 2d of August 1802, Mr Charles Wyatt of London appears to have obtained a patent for conducting the process of distillation by forcing the steam of boiling water through the liquor intended to be distilled. From the description given of his process, the patentee does not appear to have exercised it practically, or to have carried it to any perfection; but there is no doubt that it is capable of being improved in such a way as in all probability to supersede the ordinary mode of distillation. In autumn 1801, that is, about eleven months previous to the date of the patent, the editor of this Work applied this mode of distillation to the formation of volatile alkali, and found it to succeed admirably. Its advantages, when applied to the distillation of ardent spirits, would be these, that it would supersede the necessity of that dexterous management, which in the present process is necessary to avoid burning the liquor, and to prevent the foulness of the still. With a moderate expence of fuel, it allows the process to be con-

ducted with the utmost possible rapidity. No pernicious accident can ever occur from the negligence of servants. The still may even be formed of a wooden vessel; and all the operations of stirring the liquor and breaking the froth are avoided. Last of all, the quality of the spirits is secured, so as to be at all times the best possible, on account of the moderate heat employed in their formation. Edinburgh.

The distilleries belonging to Edinburgh are three: One belongs to Mr Stein at Canon Mills; and two are conducted by two brothers, Messrs Haig, the one at Lochrin near the Meadow, and the other upon the Water of Leith below Canon Mills.

From this pernicious though ingenious manufactory we willingly turn to one of a more advantageous nature, which for the welfare of the community, it were much to be wished could supersede the former; that is to say, the trade of brewing ale, which has of late years been carried to great perfection in Edinburgh. Formerly a brewer, who had established his works in the southern district at the Pleasance, Mr Bell, was more celebrated than any other in Scotland for the preparation of malt liquor; but his ale had the fault of being extremely intoxicating. Mr Giles of Leith afterwards acquired great reputation for preparing ale of uncommon beauty, capable of being preserved for a long period. It is understood, however, to be chiefly acceptable to persons of a peculiar taste, on account of its bitterness, arising it is supposed from the large quantity and strong boiling of the hops used in its preparation. But the ale which has acquired the highest reputation, and is now bought up with great avidity in London and other distant markets, is that prepared by two brothers who carry on business separately, Messrs Younger. When properly managed, this ale is as transparent as Sherry, without froth or sediment, and of such a moderate Breweries.

Edinburgh. degree of astringency or bitterness as to be universally acceptable. It were well that, in consequence of its growing celebrity and popularity, it could find its way into general use among the lower class of people to the exclusion of ardent spirits. A most gross and even immoral error in legislation was unfortunately committed in the budget of the year 1803; by which heavy duties were imposed upon malt and ale, while at the same time ardent spirits were taxed proportionally with great mildness. An error of this sort is truly a misfortune to the community; as it discourages a growing manufacture of a most valuable sort, and gives encouragement to one which an enlightened and virtuous government would labour to destroy.

Candles and soap.

Candles and soap are manufactured in Edinburgh and Leith to a considerable extent. It would seem, however, that in those parts of the country in which the ingenuity of men is chiefly directed towards the acquisition of wealth by means of manufactures, greater skill is attained in arranging the different branches, or conducting the detail of business. It is certain at least, that although the soap manufacturers of Paisley must come to Leith to purchase their materials; yet they for many years have been able to supply the public with soap of a superior quality, or at least of a superior appearance, to that prepared at Leith, and to sell it in Edinburgh at the same prices.

Sugar baking.

It is now about half a century since a house for baking sugar was established at Edinburgh, and another at Leith. A manufactory has also long been carried on in Leith, which consists of the preparation of different sorts of glass. In the middle of the century before last, chopin bottles were sold at 4s. 6d. *per* dozen, and other bottles in proportion. Soon afterwards this article was begun to be manufactured in North Leith, where chopin bottles were

sold, A. D. 1707, at 2s. 6d. *per* dozen, and so proportionably. The present old *Bottle House Company* was established A. D. 1746. They began to work in the bottle-house at North Leith; but it being burnt down during the first year of the partnership, the company, in the year 1747, built a new brick-house on the sands of South Leith; and the demand for bottles increasing, they built an additional one A. D. 1764. This business gradually came to be accounted so prosperous, that about the year 1790 a new company was instituted. Both companies prepare crystal as well as green glass, and have a considerable number of furnaces. It is upon the whole understood, however, that a general rule obtains in Scotland with regard to this and to every other branch of trade or manufacture, that it is seldom attended with great profit when it is requisite that it be conducted by a large company of subscribers, who are under the necessity of entrusting the care of the business to managers and other servants. Edinburgh.

Linen was for some time accounted the staple manufacture of Scotland; and, as a branch of domestic industry, considerable quantities of it are still prepared by private families for their own use, though by no means in the same proportion as was done by the more active and thrifty housewives of former times. The market is now chiefly supplied from Ireland: at the same time the manufacture is still advantageously carried on by a few persons in Edinburgh. There is no woollen manufacture in Edinburgh, excepting that of stockings, which, however, are not prepared in sufficient quantities to supply the consumption. The manufacture of carpets and of broad cloth has at different times been carried on, but has been ultimately abandoned. Leather is prepared in different parts of the suburbs and in Leith to a considerable extent; and several citizens have risen to no small degree of opulence by Linen manufacture. Leather.

Edinburgh. this branch of business. A trade has also of late years been carried on to a considerable extent, which consists of the manufacture and exportation of shoes.

Hardware. We are almost entirely supplied with cutlery and jewellery goods from England. Messrs Cuningham near the Earthen Mound are the only persons, as already mentioned, who continue to carry on the business of plating goods. Two or three cutlers prepare surgeons instruments, razors, and other delicate tools, with considerable reputation. Watch-makers, brass-founders, tin-plate workers, and others, carry on business with success; but by no means to such extent as to supply the whole consumption. Between Edinburgh and Leith two considerable iron founderies are established, in which cast iron goods are prepared. A button manufactory has also been established of late years; and a pin manufactory has existed during a considerable period.

Sal ammoniac, &c. In Edinburgh a manufactory has long been successfully carried on of sal ammoniac and Glauber's salts, and muriatic acid or spirit of sea salt. The sal ammoniac is well known to consist of two ingredients, volatile alkali and muriatic acid. The volatile alkali, vulgarly called *spirit of hartshorn*, is obtained by the lixiviation of soot and distillation of the liquor with quicklime. The muriatic acid or spirit of salt is obtained from the residuary liquor which is left in the salt pans in the process of the manufacture of salt from sea water which is carried on upon the neighbouring coast. This residuary liquor, called *bittern*, is of a very mixt nature. It contains large quantities of sulphat of magnesia, together with muriat of magnesia and common salt. Sulphuric acid or oil of vitriol being mingled with it, the muriatic acid comes over in distillation, and leaves a residue, consisting of sulphuric acid united with magnesia and with soda. This residue is crys-

tallized, and sold under the name *Glauber's salts*. They are more bitter and purgative than the true Glauber's salts. Vast quantities of them are exported to London. The muriatic acid being united with the volatile alkali, and evaporated and sublimed, forms the common sal ammoniac. Edinburgh.

Magnesia alba is also manufactured in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh. It is obtained from the bittern or residuary liquor of the salt works already mentioned. Different processes are employed in this manufacture by different chemists. The magnesia is precipitated from the bittern, either by a solution of the purest American pearl ashes or by volatile alkali. In the former mode of proceeding, the solutions are mingled at a heat of about 120 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer; to which they are brought partly by heating the bittern, and partly by mingling it with boiling water. A large quantity of magnesia is made at once; and it is washed by being placed in a wooden frame, or large square vat or chest, with a false bottom; the upper bottom of which consists of a wooden grate covered with a cloth of fine linen. A stream of water is allowed to run slowly through the magnesia during ten or twelve hours, great care being taken all the while to prevent the mass from breaking or falling into holes. If it is allowed to stand till it is cold before the stream of water is turned on it, the whole mass crystallizes, or acquires a gritty texture, and is incapable of being washed. When thoroughly washed, that is, when the water has continued to flow for some time tasteless from it, it is cut into large pieces, and these are dried upon wooden frames in a stove. After the lumps are dried, the crust which forms upon their outside is scraped off, and they are packed in boxes for sale. The part which is scraped off is grated down to powder by passing it through wire-cloth. The powder is sold at Magnesia.

Edinburgh. a cheaper rate than that which is in lumps, because it is not so easily preserved in that state. It is apt to attract moisture from the atmosphere, and to acquire an unpleasant smell; but this may be removed by drying it in a heated apartment. The properties of good magnesia are, that it be extremely white, light, and tasteless. The two former of these properties are easily attained; because it is always abundantly white and light when precipitated by means of a solution of pearl ashes of a due degree of strength, and when not disturbed unnecessarily, or broken down after the precipitation. The most difficult part of the process consists of the lixiviation, or of washing out the salts from the magnesia; and in this part of the process it is said that some London manufacturers still greatly excel the Scotch.

When the magnesia is precipitated from bittern by means of volatile alkali, the process differs chiefly in consequence of the additional labour of preparing the alkali. It is obtained from the urine of cattle, which is preserved in casks or cisterns till it become putrid. It is then distilled with the addition of quicklime, and volatile alkali is produced; which, however, ought to be rectified or purified by a new distillation before it is used. The volatile alkali thus produced does not precipitate magnesia from bittern till it is aerated or united with carbonic acid or fixed air. This is performed by putting about a third of the quantity meant to be used into a shallow vessel of lead, and by passing along the surface of it a stream of smoke from a charcoal fire; an operation which must be performed very gently to avoid evaporation. When this quantity is sufficiently aerated, it is mingled with the remainder of the alkali, and the whole is fit for use. The operation then proceeds in the same manner as with pearl ashes; but care is taken not to allow the washings of the

magnesia to run to waste or to be lost. They are carefully received into casks sunk in the ground, or pits lined with stone well cemented. The liquor washed off from the magnesia consists, in this operation, of a sulphat and muriat of ammonia. When distilled with the addition of quicklime, it yields volatile alkali of a purer sort than can be prepared directly from the urine of cattle, even after a great variety of distillations; because in all these distillations a portion of volatile oil comes over with the alkali, and is never fully got rid of till the alkali has been combined with an acid. The volatile alkali obtained from the washings of the magnesia is in this process treated as before; that is, about a third of it is aerated, or impregnated with fixed air by means of the smoke of burning charcoal or coke of pit-coal. The quantity thus aerated or impregnated, when mingled with the rest of the alkali, renders the whole fit for precipitating magnesia or forming it from bittern. As there is a considerable waste of alkali every time that the operation is repeated, on account of its volatile nature, it is always necessary to keep up the stock by a fresh supply of alkali prepared from urine, which is mingled with the rest at every operation. Edinburgh.

The magnesia prepared in this last mode by means of volatile alkali, is never so light or spongy as that prepared by means of pearl ashes, or by means of soda, which answers equally well, and is sometimes used. The inferior quality of the magnesia, prepared by the second of the above processes, seems chiefly to arise from two circumstances; the first of which is, that the volatile alkali formed in the way now mentioned never is united to a sufficient quantity of fixed air, whose presence always greatly augments the volume or bulk of any quantity of magnesia, to which it attaches itself in the act of precipi-

Edinburgh. tation. The second cause of inferiority results from the impurity of the alkali, which is never entirely freed from foreign matter, consisting of a volatile oil. This magnesia, however, is bought up in London, and supplies the West India market, and that of the continent of Europe.

Oil of vitiol. During a considerable number of years a manufacture of oil of vitriol, or sulphuric acid, has been carried on in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh. Crude sulphur, beat to powder (not sublimed sulphur), is mingled with unrefined saltpetre, and is burned in chambers formed of sheet lead. The chambers are large, and a small quantity of water is placed in the bottom of them, in such a way as to remain there broad and shallow. The chambers have several openings; and into each aperture a porcelain saucer, filled with a mixture of saltpetre and sulphur, is placed. The mixture is set on fire, and the opening instantly closed. The saltpetre maintains the combustion of the sulphur without the aid of the external air, and the smoke gradually unites with the water in the bottom of the chamber. When it is found, by slightly opening the chamber, that the smoke has subsided, the process is again renewed, or new portions of saltpetre and sulphur are put into the chamber and set on fire. A large capital is requisite for this business; because a great number of chambers must be used to conduct it with activity. When the constant burning of portions of sulphur and saltpetre in any chamber has been carried on during five or six weeks, the water or liquor on the floor of the chambers is accounted sufficiently impregnated with the acid. It is then drawn off, and poured into stout leaden boilers, where it is brought to a state of ebullition; at which it is continued till a drop of water, falling upon the liquor, hisses in the same manner as when water is dropt upon heated iron. The liquor is at this time extremely high-coloured. It is next removed into

glass retorts, which are placed in a sand-bath upon a long furnace formed of bricks. In these retorts, which are formed of stout bottle or green glass, the liquor is boiled till it become perfectly transparent, which happens in about thirty-six hours. It is then nearly twice the weight of an equal bulk of water. It is poured into very large bottles, which for safety are enclosed in wicker baskets; and in these it is sold under the appellation of *concentrated oil of vitriol.* Edinburgh.

An article of modern luxury, which has gradually become extensive, has, during a considerable number of years, formed a considerable branch of manufacture in Edinburgh; that is, the construction of coaches or carriages to be drawn by horses. Coaches are said to have been first introduced into Britain A. D. 1580. A coach is mentioned as coming to Scotland in the suite of the English ambassador A. D. 1598; but the first introduction of these carriages for the use of the people was in 1610. At that time Henry Anderson, an inhabitant of *Trail Sound* or Stralsund in Pomerania, offered to bring from that country coaches and waggons, *with horses to draw, and servants to attend them,* provided an exclusive privilege of keeping these carriages was secured to him. To this effect a royal patent was granted him, conferring an exclusive privilege for 15 years of keeping coaches to run between Edinburgh and Leith; for it was only for these towns that this vehicle seems then to have been intended; and it was made unlawful to take more than two pence Sterling for the fare of each passenger. Coaches gradually abounded so much in Scotland, that upon the approach of the king's commissioner to Edinburgh in 1700, he was met eight miles from the city by a train of forty coaches, the greater part of which were drawn by six horses. At that time, however, the art of coach-ma- Coaches, &c.

Edinburgh. king consisted only in repairing coaches that had been made at London; and afterwards a few clumsy carriages were begun to be built. But in the year 1738, Mr John Home, coach-maker, who had carried on the business for some time, went to London, where he completely instructed himself in that art. He returned to Edinburgh provided with suitable working tools, which till then were not so much as known in this city, and he altered his mode of conducting the business; so that instead of one man being employed as formerly to execute the different branches of the work, he allotted distinct hands to the constructing of each part of the carriage; by which means the tradesmen soon became expert in their respective departments.

In this manner the art of coach-making was brought to a degree of perfection, that not only enabled the coach-makers of Edinburgh to supply the nobility and gentry of Scotland with carriages, but also encouraged their exportation, chiefly to the West Indies and the north of Europe.

Household furniture. It is scarcely necessary to remark, with regard to such a city as Edinburgh, that cabinet and upholstery work must necessarily be made to a considerable extent. It is an observation, however, of some importance, that some tradesmen in this department in Edinburgh are said to carry on business to a greater extent than those in the same rank of employment in London. This is ascribed to the degree of equal luxury which prevails in the greater part of the society in Edinburgh; in consequence of which, though very splendid equipages do not so greatly abound, yet genteel families enter into a more general rivalship in those articles of expence which consist of ordinary dress, household furniture, and the luxuries of the table.

Cordage and shipbuilding. In consequence of the demand produced by the shipping at Leith, ropes or cordage are manufactured there

with considerable success; and the business of ship-building, as already mentioned, is carried on with some activity. Edinburgh

With regard to the foreign trade of Leith, it is necessarily laid under great difficulties, and much limited, in consequence of the want of manufactures to supply cargoes to vessels outward bound. It is in consequence of this circumstance that it has been found impracticable to establish any great intercourse with North America; although this trade is highly advantageous to Britain in general, as affording a market for articles of ordinary cloathing and consumption, which it is of importance for a country to prepare skilfully and in abundance, on account of the tendency which their cheapness has to facilitate the progress of population, and the increase of the useful arts. An American vessel in want of a cargo never puts into Leith, where it is in vain to expect one: she proceeds with greater probability of success to the Clyde, which, being at the great seat of the Scottish manufactures, affords a better prospect of a demand for an opportunity of exportation; and still more readily she proceeds to Liverpool, where she can always be certain of obtaining a cargo of salt. Foreign trade.

The trade of Leith chiefly consists in the importation of various articles intended to be consumed in a luxurious country and capital. Immense quantities of timber are for every purpose imported from the shores of the Baltic. It is certain that in former times Scotland greatly abounded in forests in all parts of the country; and even on very high mountains mosses are found containing large trees, which have been preserved unconsumed for ages by being soaked or macerated in the astringent liquor given forth by the moss plants by which they are surrounded. Some of these forests appear to have been suddenly cut down as far Imports. Timber.

Edinburgh. back as the times of the Roman invasion of the island; others existed till within a century and a half of the present date; and it is evident, that in the remotest isles timber trees grew to the sea beach. But our ancestors, partly perhaps to clear the country of what they accounted an impediment to agriculture and to pasturage, and partly with a view to the extermination of the multitudes of banditti by whom it was infested, so totally destroyed the forests, that till within these last fifty years the greater part of Scotland was destitute of valuable plantations; and it has been found extremely difficult to restore timber in the distant islands, and upon exposed situations on the sea shore, and on mountain tops. At present, in consequence of the attention of men of property having been directed to that object, Scotland has become, upon the whole, a well wooded country. Still, however, the plantations are so recent, that in the whole New Town of Edinburgh, upon the erecting of which between three and four millions Sterling have been expended, it is believed that not a single house has been fitted up with Scottish timber; the whole having been brought from the territories of Russia or Denmark.

Flax, &c. From the Baltic also large quantities of tallow, flax, and hemp, are imported. Flax and flax-seed are likewise imported largely from Holland. Tar also continues to be imported from the Baltic, notwithstanding the invention by Lord Dundonald of a mineral substitute for this ingredient, which we shall have occasion afterwards to notice. It is often the destiny of ingenious men to labour more successfully for the future generation than for themselves, or for the age in which they live. This substitute for vegetable tar, which is now neglected, will probably hereafter be regarded as a valuable invention, as it

has a powerful tendency to prevent ship-timber from de- Edinburgh.
cay in all climates, and even between the tropics.

Notwithstanding the large quantities of iron produced by the different furnaces throughout Scotland, considerable quantities of this most valuable of all metals still continue to be imported from Russia and Sweden. In particular, the malleable or soft iron produced in Sweden, where metallurgy has long been well understood, and charcoal of wood is used, cannot yet be dispensed with in this country for the preparation of steel, or of ordinary tools by blacksmiths.

From the south of Europe, particularly from Portugal, Wines.
wine is directly imported into Leith. In former times, claret of the best quality, and other French wines, were imported in abundance; and for fifty years after the treaty of union, government, in consideration of the habits of the people, and of the poverty of the country, avoided enforcing here the payment of the duties upon French wines. They were consequently in very general use, and were attended with the happy effect of preventing the consumption of spirituous liquors. These last gradually came into vogue after port wine had been forced by the revenue laws upon the public. It would seem, that in the northern climates the taste for strong liquors is very powerful; and that if the people are not permitted, or rather encouraged, to use fermented liquors of a generous quality, they will infallibly betake themselves to those of a more ardent and destructive nature, which are the more dangerous as containing the power of intoxication in a very concentrated state.

Oranges, lemons, and dried fruits, are imported to Leith Fruits.
in vast quantities from the Portuguese territories and the Mediterranean. Apples also are imported from England; because upon this eastern coast little fruit is cultivated. A few vessels make voyages to the West Indies, and bring

Edinburgh. home valuable cargoes of the rum and sugar of these islands. But the trade to that quarter still labours under great disadvantages, as already mentioned, in consequence of the want of manufactures in this part of the country.

Population. The population of Edinburgh and Leith has been enumerated at different periods; and its progressive state is worthy of notice. By a paper in the possession of the session clerk of Edinburgh, entitled, "A list of the hail possessors (of houses) in the different parishes," the number of families, in the year 1678, appears to have been as follows:

In the north-west parish	Now called	Tolbooth	513
north ditto		High Church	389
north-east ditto		College	470
south-west ditto		Old Grey Friars	672
south ditto		Old Church	625
south-east ditto		Tron	664
		Total	3333

The Old Town of Edinburgh at that time consisted of the above six parishes only; consequently the preceding list contained every family then living in what was properly to be called the city of Edinburgh; that is, the ancient royalty. On the supposition that there were at that time even six individuals in each family, the total number of souls would amount to 19,998, which gives but a poor idea of the situation and importance of Edinburgh at that period. If we reckon the Canongate to have contained 2500 inhabitants, the parish of St Cuthbert's 7000, and those of South and North Leith 6000 souls, the total number of inhabitants in Edinburgh and its neighbourhood was 35,500 in 1678.

The Rev. Dr Blair communicated a paper, containing

an enumeration of families and examinable persons in the city of Edinburgh, apparently taken in 1722, in which the numbers in each parish of that city were thus stated: Edinburgh

	Families.	Examinable Persons.
Tolbooth parish	701	2418
New Church ditto	581	2447
College Church ditto	876	2857
Tron Church ditto	718	3007
Lady Yester's ditto	683	1852
Old Church ditto	557	1924
Haddo's Hole or Little Church ditto	554	1918
East Grey Friars ditto	651	2245
New Grey Friars ditto	474	1668
Total . . .	5975	20336

Adding the usual proportion of one-fourth of the examinable persons for children, the number of the inhabitants in the city of Edinburgh, in 1722, appears to have amounted to 25,420, or somewhat less than $4\frac{1}{4}$ to each family; and if we allow 15,000 for the suburbs and the environs, the total would be 40,420 souls.

In 1755, at the desire of the late Dr Webster, an actual enumeration of the inhabitants of Edinburgh was made, when the numbers stood thus:

In the Old Town of Edinburgh . . .	31122
In the Canongate	4500
In St Cuthbert's or West Kirk parish	12168
In South Leith	7200
In North Leith	2205
Total . . .	57195

Soon after the Statistical Account of Scotland was set on foot, the ministers and elders of six parishes of the

Edinburgh. city of Edinburgh (the High Church, Old Church, Little Church, Lady Yester's, Old Grey Friars, and St Andrew's) and the parishes of St Cuthbert's, South and North Leith, with the view of promoting this work, made an enumeration of the inhabitants within their respective bounds. The number in six of the ten parishes in Edinburgh being in this manner actually ascertained, sufficient data were from thence supposed to be afforded for estimating the number of families and of individuals in the remaining four parishes; and the result of this enumeration and calculation is exhibited in the following table of the population of Edinburgh and its environs in 1791.

	Families.	Males.	Females	Total.
High Church parish.	476	951	1294	2245
Old Church ditto	496	920	1251	2171
Little Church ditto	498	882	1254	2136
Lady Yester's ditto	583	961	1128	2089
Old Grey Friars ditto	878	1534	1892	3426
St Andrew's, New Town, ditto	1243	2905	4301	7206
Tolbooth Church ditto . . .	500	933	1378	2311
Tron Church ditto	467	875	1283	2158
College Church ditto	662	1349	1710	3059
New Grey Friars ditto . . .	631	1351	1566	2917
Total in the city of Edinburgh	6434	12661	17057	29718
In Canongate parish	1552	2700	3500	6200
In St Cuthbert's ditto	7133	15571	17376	32947
In South Leith ditto	2893	5494	5938	11432
In North Leith ditto	642	1059	1350	2409
Total . . .	18654	37485	45221	82706
In Edinburgh castle	—	624	223	847
In the hospitals, charity workhouse, infirmary, and prison of Edinburgh	—	—	—	1333
Total.	—	—	—	84886

In consequence of the act of the 41st Geo. III. 1800, entitled, "An Act for taking an Account of the Population of Great Britain, and the Increase or Diminution thereof," an enumeration took place of the inhabitants of Edinburgh; of which the following was the result: Edinburgh.

	Families.	Males.	Females.	Total.
St Andrew's parish	1932	4294	6679	10973
Canongate ditto	1391	2361	3316	5677
College Church ditto	789	1431	1833	3264
St Cuthbert's ditto	7007	13313	16323	29636
Charity Workhouse	—	28	46	74
Grey Friars, New	764	1201	1340	2541
Ditto, Old	536	966	1264	2230
High Church	440	779	1152	1931
Tron Church	567	809	1311	2120
Lady Yester's	573	898	1227	2125
Leith, South	2873	5279	6765	12044
Ditto, North	804	1355	1873	3228
Magdalene Asylum	—	1	27	28
New North Church	463	758	1130	1888
Old Church	526	790	1130	1920
Royal Infirmary	—	—	—	190
Tolbooth parish	328	896	1783	2679
Tolbooth, Canongate	—	12	—	12
Total	18993	35361	47199	82560

On this last occasion, it was ascertained that the number of inhabited houses, in the city and town of Edinburgh, consisted of 9002; those uninhabited, amounted to 383; the number of persons chiefly employed in agriculture, amounted to 1540; a circumstance which arises from including in the enumerations the inhabitants of the parishes of South Leith and St Cuthberts, and the gardeners of these districts. The number of persons chiefly employed in

Edinburgh trade, manufactures, or handicraft, amounted to 13,920. All other persons, not comprised in the two preceding classes, amounted to 66,910.

The summary of these enumerations or calculations of the population of Edinburgh and suburbs is, that it amounted in A. D.

1678	to	35,500
1722		40,420
1755		57,195
1775		70,430
1791		84,886
1801		82,560

It is to be remarked upon this last enumeration, that it represents the population as inferior to what it had been when the numbers of the people were investigated with a view to the compilation of the Statistical Account of Scotland under the patronage of Sir John Sinclair. At the same time it may be observed, that during these ten years a very considerable number of additional buildings had been erected in Edinburgh, and nobody doubts that the population has encreased. To account for the discrepancy in the two enumerations, it is necessary to remark, that when the Statistical Account was compiled, the families in St Cuthbert's parish were not enumerated, but calculated from the proportions between the families and individuals in the city of Edinburgh; a circumstance which appears to have occasioned an error to the amount of between 2 and 3000. In the next place, the population of the castle, amounting to nearly 900, is not included in the enumeration under the statute. Lastly, it is to be remarked, that there is no doubt the enumeration made by act of Parliament was defective to the amount of some thousands; for this reason, that very great industry was used to defeat its

object. Several new laws had been enacted very recently, by which individuals found themselves subjected to taxation, or to serious personal inconveniences; such as the hair-powder tax, the income-tax, and the militia laws. To carry into effect the statutes relative to these objects, various enquiries had been made by public officers concerning the individuals resident in every district. The result was, that when the enumeration came to be taken under the statute, every body feared that some new tax was impending, and, as far as possible, carefully concealed their numbers and names. This was more particularly done with regard to young men, for whom apprehensions were entertained that they might be called upon for service in the militia. Such concealment is extremely easy, and must even occur to a certain degree, unintentionally, in every enumeration of the inhabitants of Edinburgh, on account of the great numbers of individuals who reside as lodgers in different houses. As the residence of these persons is temporary, they are frequently not considered or reported as belonging to the family. Edinburgh.

HISTORY.

EDINBURGH is one of the most ancient cities in the north of Europe. Its origin is not correctly ascertained by historians or antiquaries, or rather it appears to have grown up into some degree of importance in those turbulent and barbarous ages of the European History, of which few records remain, and little is worthy of being remembered. Some circumstances, however, tend to involve in peculiar obscurity the history of this city. It is situated in the Roman Province called Valentia; which included the territory between the two celebrated Roman walls of Hadrian on the south, which crossed the island from Newcastle to Carlisle, and the wall of Antoninus on the north, from

Edinburg'. Carriden on the Forth to Dunglass on the river Clyde. This territory also, at a future period, belonged to the Picts, and was conquered from them by the Scots under Kenneth the Second. As Edinburgh is situated within 54 miles of the English border, its neighbourhood was the scene of many sanguinary conflicts, during several centuries, between the two hostile nations that possessed the northern and the southern divisions of the island. Thus, during 10 or 12 centuries, this part of the country was wasted by perpetual hostile incursions, devastations, and bloodshed, of which no record could be kept; or if any trace of written history remained, it was obliterated by the policy of Edward I. of England, who endeavoured to complete the conquest of this country by the removal or destruction of every public record.

Origin and name of Edinburgh. It is probable, that the singular rudeness of the territory on which Edinburgh is situated, with its precipices and abrupt declivities, which render it extremely inconvenient for an extensive capital, were the very circumstances which originally led to its establishment, as, by rendering it of easy defence, they contributed to its preservation in very barbarous times; at least there is little doubt that the most rugged part of it, that is to say the castle, is the most ancient. The oldest appellation given to this fortress, is 'The Castle of Agnes's hill.' It was likewise distinguished by the appellation of *Castrum puellarum*, or 'The Maidens Castle,' from its being the residence of the daughters of the Kings of the Picts till the time of their marriage. The name of the city has generally been ascribed to Edwin, a Saxon prince of Northumberland, who began his reign in the year 617, and conquered much territory from the Picts.

Queen Margaret, the widow of Malcolm Canmore, is said to have taken refuge in the castle along with her children, and died there a few days after her husband was slain. Donald Bain, the uncle of Malcolm's children, having seized the government, besieged the castle, in which

the heir to the crown resided. The usurper presuming, from the steepness of the rock, that Malcolm's children could escape only by the gates, ordered these alone to be guarded: but those in the garrison knowing this, conveyed the body of the Queen through a postern gate on the west side of the castle to the church of Dunfermline, where it lies interred; and the children escaped to England, where they were protected and educated by their uncle Edgar Atheling. Edinburgh.

In an old charter of David the First in 1128, this city is denominated *Edwinesburg*, and appears to have been a borough. That prince granted to the canons of the abbey of Holyroodhouse 40 s. yearly out of the King's revenues, payable by the borough of Edwinesburg, and also one half of the tallow, lard, and hides of the beasts killed in Edinburgh. He also bestowed upon these canons the privilege of erecting a b rough between the abbey of Holyroodhouse and the town of Edinburgh, with power to try crimes there by duel, and by fire and water ordeal. This part of Edinburgh remains, as already mentioned, to this day a separate jurisdiction from the more ancient part of the city, and from its original lords retains the name of the *Canongate*. Origin of the Canongate.

In the reign of William the First, styled *William the Lion*, Edinburgh castle was surrendered to the English in consequence of the excessive attachment of the Scots to the person of their monarch. That prince, in an attempt to recover from Henry the Second of England a part of Northumberland, was taken prisoner at the battle of Alnwick. The Scots, impatient of the captivity of their King, purchased his freedom by surrendering the independence of the nation. Many hostages, and some of the chief garrisons in Scotland, and among these the castle of Edinburgh, were delivered as pledges for the performance of

Edinburgh

this dishonourable treaty. But upon William's marriage with Ermengarde, cousin to King Henry, the treaty was annulled, and Edinburgh castle was restored and given in dower to the Queen.

A Parliament first held here.

In the reign of Alexander the Second, a Parliament was for the first time held in Edinburgh in 1215; and in 1239, a legate from Pope Gregory the Ninth presided at a provincial synod held at Edinburgh. In 1255, the castle of Edinburgh was selected as a residence for the daughter of Henry the Third of England, who was betrothed to the young Scottish King Alexander the Third. She complained of her dwelling, however, as a sad and solitary place without verdure.

Capture by the English

Upon the death of the Maid of Norway, grandchild to Alexander the Third, the celebrated contest for the succession to the crown commenced between Bruce and Baliol; which was the source of a train of the most dreadful calamities to Scotland, in consequence of the enterprising ambition of their English neighbours, who seized this opportunity of attempting to establish a permanent ascendancy over Scotland. Edward the First supported Baliol as the competitor most willing to surrender the independence of his country. Edward succeeded in the temporary subjugation of Scotland. In 1296 Edinburgh castle was besieged, and fell into his hands, and was retained by the English 20 years. It was recovered by Sir Thomas Randolph, Earl of Murray, in the following manner: The castle of Edinburgh had for governor Piers Leland, a knight of Gascony. Randolph blockaded it so closely, that all communication with the adjacent country was cut off; the garrison, suspecting the fidelity of Leland, thrust him into a dungeon, and chose another commander in his stead.

Recapture.

Matters were in this state when one William Frank pre-

sented himself to Randolph, and offered to show him how the walls of the castle might be scaled. This man, while young, had resided in the castle, and having an amorous intrigue in the neighbourhood, had been wont to descend the wall during the night by means of a ladder of ropes, and through a steep and intricate path to arrive at the foot of the rock. The road, though amidst perilous precipices, had become familiar to him, and he still retained a perfect remembrance of it. Randolph, with thirty men, undertook the enterprize of scaling the castle at midnight. Frank was their guide, and the first who ascended the scaling ladder. Before the whole party could reach the summit of the wall, an alarm was given; the garrison ran to arms, and a desperate combat ensued; but their governor having been slain, the English yielded. Edinburgh.

Leland, the former governor, being released from his imprisonment, entered into the service of the Scottish nation; and King Robert ordered the castle to be demolished. The same prince demolished all the other fortresses which he recovered from the English, that they might not for the future serve, when taken, to enable an invading enemy to retain the country in a state of subjection. This policy demonstrated great sagacity as well as intrepidity on the part of that prince. Fortresses on the frontier of a country may be useful for its defence, but history demonstrates, that in the interior they have always proved dangerous to its independence. When an invading enemy as no fortified place to which to retire, what he gains in one battle may be lost by another; which is not the case when he is enabled in the centre of the country to wait quietly for reinforcements: and accordingly the Scottish kings found it safest to rest their independence upon the military spirit and the patriotism of their people, which they endeavoured in every form to encourage. The Castle demolished.

Edinburgh. In 1335, Edward the Third, to support Baliol's claim to the crown, and his own pretensions to the superiority of Scotland, invaded the country with a powerful fleet and army. The fleet entered the Forth, and the towns on both sides of the Frith were plundered and burned. The Scots were unable to oppose the English army, and retired with their cattle and such goods as they could transport to the mountains and forests in the interior of the country. The result was, that the English monarch no sooner departed, than the garrisons he had left were assailed by continued insurrections. Edward returned the following year with a great army, and proceeded the length of Perth. While he lay in camp there, Guy, Count of Namure, came with a large body of foreigners to the assistance of Edward. He proposed passing through Edinburgh in his intended route to Perth; but the Earl of Murray the governor encountered his forces on the borough muir in the neighbourhood of that city. The conflict was sharp, and the Scottish army were well nigh overpowered, when a reinforcement, collected by William de Douglas, came to their assistance. The Count of Namure's forces gave way. They retreated to Edinburgh in order of battle, fighting gallantly, and hotly pressed by the Earl of Moray. Part of them were driven through the spot where Bristo-port now stands, and flying down the street, at present known by the name of the *Candlemakers-row*, made the best of their way to the rock where the castle then lay in ruins. The rest fled through St Mary's Wynd. They were encountered in that narrow lane by Sir David de Anand, a gallant Scottish knight, and suffered great slaughter. Those who escaped joined their companions on the rocks of the castle. They killed their horses, and with their carcasses piled up a sort of rampart to defend them from the attack of the Scots army, who there as it were besieged them; but, being destitute of provisions and lodging, as well as exhausted by the

Battle of the Borough muir.

fatigues of battle, on the next morning they surrendered, requiring no other stipulation than that they should not be put to the sword. The Earl of Murray allowed them to depart, exacting their promise that they should never more bear weapons against David Bruce; and with a gallant courtesy, not unusual in these times, he accompanied the Count of Namure, to whom he restored his effects, to the borders of Scotland, that he might be placed out of danger. Edinburgh.

On his way back to England, Edward the Third rebuilt the castle of Edinburgh; but, in the year 1341, it was recovered by a stratagem by four gentlemen, one of whom was William de Douglas, who had contributed to the victory in the borough muir. One of the gentlemen, pretending to be an English merchant, went to the governor of the castle, and informed him, that he had got a cargo of wine, strong beer, and biscuit, *exquisitely spiced*, in his vessel just arrived in the Forth; which provisions he requested the governor to purchase. He produced as a specimen a bottle of wine and another of the beer. The governor relished the liquors, and agreed about the price. The pretended merchant was to deliver the provisions next morning early, that he might not be intercepted by the Scots. He came accordingly at the time appointed, attended by a dozen of armed followers under the disguise of sailors, and the gates were opened for their reception. Upon entering the castle, they contrived to overturn the carriage upon which the provisions were supposed to be heaped, and instantly killed the porter and sentinels. Upon the sound of a horn, the appointed signal, Douglas, with a band of armed men, sprung from an ambush in the neighbourhood, and rushed into the castle, where, having joined their companions, the garrison, after a sharp conflict, were mostly put to the sword, and the fortress recovered by the Scots. Castle rebuilt, &c.

Edinburgh.

These wars with England forced the Scots into an alliance with France, to which they remained long very faithful, and of which they were frequently the dupes; because, in all the quarrels between these rival states, the Scots were induced to take a part. Scotland was reduced extremely low by the repeated invasions of the English; and the manners of its inhabitants in general became very barbarous. A French historian describes the state in which, in the reign of David the Second, Scotland was found by the ambassadors from France, who came, accompanied with a train of nobility and a body of soldiers, to endeavour to prevail with the King of Scots to invade England. In Scotland, the historian remarks, that the natives resemble wild and savage people, shunning acquaintance with strangers, envious of the honour or profit of any one beside themselves, and perpetually jealous of losing the mean things they have. He says, that hardly any of the nobility kept intercourse with the French, except the Earls of Douglas and Murray: That Edinburgh, although by this time the first city in Scotland, could not accommodate the attendants on the French embassy, many of whom were obliged to seek lodgings at Dunfermline, and other towns at still greater distances: That the French knights complained grievously of their wretched accommodation; no comfortable houses, no soft beds, no walls hung with tapestry; and that it required all the prudence of the French commander to restrain their impatience for leaving so miserable a country: That when they wanted to purchase horses from the Scots, they were charged six, nay even ten times the price for which these horses would have been sold to their own countrymen: That when the French sent forth their servants a-foraging, the Scots would lie in wait for them, plunder them of what they had gathered; beat, nay even murder them: That they could not find saddles nor bridles, leather to make harness, nor iron

Ancient State of Scotland.

to shoe their horses; for that the Scots got all such articles ready made from Flanders: That in their military excursions they carried along with them no provision of bread nor wine, nor pots nor pans; for they boiled the cattle in their hides: That upon their precipitately quitting their camp on the borders, the English found in it the carcases of 400 beasts, mostly deer, and 300 cauldrons made of their skins, with the hair still on them, stretched on stakes, filled with water, and the flesh put in them ready to be boiled: That they found also 1000 spits with flesh for roasting, and 5000 pair of shoes, made of raw leather, with the hair still on them. Edinburgh.

In proportion, however, as the independence of Scotland became established, and the hostile incursions of the English were suspended, Edinburgh gradually rose into consideration. Its situation in the south of Scotland, at a sufficient distance from the English border to secure it from surprise, while it was near enough to be accounted a proper position for superintending the defence of the kingdom, probably contributed to render it a royal residence, and laid a foundation for its becoming the ordinary seat of government. The Kings of Scotland dwelt in it; parliaments were frequently held here; and in every respect it grew, towards the close of the 14th century, to be considered as the capital of the kingdom. Hence the Scottish princes endeavoured to render themselves popular with the citizens of Edinburgh, and bestowed upon them many privileges. Robert the Third conferred upon the whole burgesses of Edinburgh the singular privilege of building houses to themselves within the castle, probably as a place of retreat and safety against hostile invasion. As early as the year 1329, Robert the First granted to the citizens of Edinburgh the harbour and mills of Leith. But it would appear that his Majesty was not considered as pro- Edinburgh gradually improved.

Edinburgh. prietor of the banks of the river, or of the shore adjoining to the harbour; on which account the inhabitants of Edinburgh were under the necessity of purchasing from Sir Robert Logan of Restalrig the banks or waste piece of ground extending from the walls of the houses to the river, to be converted into wharfs or quays for the convenience of shipping and landing of goods and merchandise; with a right to make ways or roads through the lands of Restalrig, for the carrying of goods and merchandise to and from the port of *Leith*, together with a power of keeping shops for the sale of bread, wine, wax, silk, and other mercantile commodities; and a liberty to erect granaries for the preservation of corn within the town of *Leith*.

Leith acquired and oppressed.

As the situation of Leith upon the banks of the Forth is more convenient for trade than that of Edinburgh, at two miles distance from the river, the narrow spirit of mercantile jealousy anciently induced the citizens of Edinburgh to devise various expedients to prevent the inhabitants of Leith from carrying on trade. Not satisfied with the above grant from Logan, by which they were empowered to keep shops and sell goods in Leith, the citizens of Edinburgh purchased from Logan, says Maitland, an exclusive and very inslaving grant; whereby the inhabitants of Leith were not only restrained from carrying on any sort of commerce, but even from keeping of warehouses; nay, such was their bondage, that they were not allowed to keep inns or houses for the entertainment of strangers.

And that nothing might be wanting to depress the inhabitants of Leith, the town-council of *Edinburgh*, in the year 1485, ordained, that no merchant of *Edinburgh* presume to take into partnership an inhabitant of Leith, under the penalty of 40s. to the church, and to be deprived of his freedom of the city for the space of one year; and,

by the said council enacted, that "none of the revenues of *Edinburgh* be let to an inhabitant of *Leith*, nor any of the farmers of the said revenues presume to take a *Leither* as a partner in any contract relating to the same; nay, not to take any person of *Leith* into his service in that respect, under the penalties aforesaid." From that time the inhabitants of Leith must have long remained in a state of depression, from which they did not emerge till the turbulent times of the Reformation, when Leith came to be accounted important, as a convenient harbour for landing the French or English troops that were sent to the assistance of the popish or the reforming party. Edinburgh.

But though sufficiently powerful to oppress Leith, Edinburgh itself was still an insignificant city. James the Second was crowned at Edinburgh during his minority, and was for some time a prisoner in the castle. This prince afterwards, in 1450, first bestowed on the community the privilege of fortifying the city by surrounding it with a wall; he at the same time authorised the magistrates to defray the expence of this work by a tax upon the inhabitants. The original wall of the city of Edinburgh began at the foot of the north-east rock of the castle, where the ruins of a small fortress are still to be seen; from thence the wall proceeded eastward along the foot of the hill adjoining to the North Loch, till it came nearly opposite to the head of the High Street. From this place to the present North Bridge, the city was defended by the North Loch; but from thence to the head of the Canongate, the kind of defence is unknown. From the North Loch, opposite to the upper end of the High Street, the wall advanced southward to the summit of the hill, where it was intersected by a gate of communication between the town and the castle. From this gate the wall proceeded along the southern brow of the hill, pointing to the south- Edinburgh fortified.

Edinburgh. east to the middle of what is now called the *West Bow*, from the arched gate anciently placed there; from thence it proceeded still eastward along the face of the hill, till it reached what is now called *Gray's* close; from which it crossed the High Street obliquely to Leith Wynd. Here a continued range of houses, and afterwards a wall, formed the defence of the city.

Rescue of James III. James the Third having prematurely attempted to govern the kingdom, independently of the great and turbulent barons, by the aid of ministers, who were persons of mean birth, gave offence to his nobles, and was ultimately confined by them in the castle of Edinburgh during nine months. His brother Alexander, Duke of Albany, had at first joined the party of the nobles; but finding himself of little consequence in the regency which they had appointed, he repaired secretly to Edinburgh with a few friends; and having called upon the citizens to join him in rescuing their captive Prince, they rose in arms, and by an unexpected assault made themselves masters of the castle. James the Third was not ungrateful for a service which was attended with the immediate restoration of his authority. He granted two charters in favour of the provost, council, and community of Edinburgh, stating the services they had done him; and therefore granting to the provost the office of hereditary sheriff within the city, with ample jurisdiction, and all the fines and escheats arising from the office. He also granted to the council powers to make statutes and bye-laws for the good government of the borough, an exemption from certain duties, and a right to exact custom upon several species of merchandise in the port of Leith. The only *reddendum* or rent prestable by the council for these ample privileges, was the annual celebration of a funeral mass in St Giles's church for the King's soul, and those of his progenitors and successors.

As a perpetual memorial of the loyalty and bravery of the citizens of Edinburgh upon this occasion, the king bestowed upon them a banner or standard, with a power to display the same in the defence of their king, their country, and their own rights. This flag was long known by the humble appellation of the *Blue Blanket*. It is still preserved, and is exhibited in the Magdalen Chapel as a curiosity. Edinburgh.

In the year 1497, the venereal disease, imported into Europe by the Spaniards, had not only reached Edinburgh, but become so formidable, that on the 22d of September an edict was published by the town-council, under the king's authority, banishing all the infected to Inchkeith; it being at that time imagined that this distemper, like the plague or small-pox, might be communicated by being merely in company with an infected person. Lues Venerea.

It will probably be accounted not unworthy of notice, that in 1500, the wages of a master mason in Edinburgh were tenpence Sterling, and of a journeyman, ninepence weekly. One penny was the price of 12 lb. of the finest, or of 20 lb. of a coarser sort of wheaten bread.

The citizens of Edinburgh suffered their share in the calamity in which the unfortunate expedition against the English, undertaken by James the Fourth, involved all Scotland. They laboured at once under the two great scourges of mankind, war and pestilence. The king, from a romantic notion of honour, resolved to make an hostile invasion upon England; nor could the tears and entreaties of his queen and his people prevent him from rushing to destruction. He assembled his army in the borough muir. The Earl of Angus, provost, and all the magistrates, with a number of the citizens, joined the army. Delegates were appointed to discharge the office of provost and bailies during the absence of these magistrates. On the 10th of September 1513, being the day after the Battle of Flouden.

Edinburgh. fatal battle of Flouden, the news of that event, and of the fall of the king, and the principal nobility, arrived at Edinburgh. The citizens were filled with consternation, and expected the country to be immediately overrun by a victorious enemy. The persons exercising the magistracy appear to have acted with considerable vigour on this trying occasion. While the pestilence appears to have been raging in the city, while at the same time the nation was filled with confusion and alarm, the town-council issued a proclamation, commanding all the inhabitants, capable of bearing arms, instantly to assemble in their best military accoutrements, and to march and join their provost, under the penalty of forfeiture of their lives and goods. What number was sent to the army on the frontiers in consequence of this order, does not appear: That they did not all march is evident; because, to prevent the town from being insulted by advanced parties of the enemy, another order by the town-council was issued, requiring all citizens, at the tolling of the common bell, to repair in their military dress to the house of the president, to be ready to act in defence of the town. At the same time it was commanded, that women should abstain from clamouring in the streets, and that they should either attend to their business at home, or repair to the church at the stated hours, to pray for success to the army. The council also ordained, that 24 men should be raised and maintained as a constant guard for the city, and that the sum of L. 500 Scots should be levied to fortify the town, and to purchase artillery to resist the enemy.

Second Wall. In consequence of this last resolution, the city of Edinburgh was surrounded by a new wall, which has remained to our own times, and a great part of which still exists. After the town had been fortified in the reign of James the

them for having houses without the borough, very speedily erected the Cowgate, which in these times was accounted a magnificent street, and was inhabited by persons of the first distinction. After the battle of Flouden, the Cowgate, with the lanes adjoining to it, and the broad street at its western extremity, called the *Grassmarket*, were included within the city by the new wall. This new wall is to be seen, commencing upon the south-east side of the rock of the castle; thence it descends obliquely across the valley to the south, where the gate left in it received the appellation of the *West Port*; from thence it ascends to the brow of the southern ridge, and, turning eastward, it proceeded along the north side of the gardens of Heriot's Hospital and the Grayfriars church-yard to Bristo port; and from Bristo port, advancing in the same direction, it still encloses the buildings of Argyle square. It has been pulled down to make way for the buildings of the new College; but it still remains to the south of the Royal Infirmary and the High School. At the Pleasance, that is to say, at the foot of the Cowgate, it turns northward towards the eastern extremity of the most ancient wall. Thus it appears, that the wall reared after the battle of Flouden was chiefly, or rather solely, constructed for the purpose of defending the Grassmarket, together with the Cowgate and its adjoining lanes. At a future period, in the year 1620, the magistrates purchased about ten acres of ground on the south-west of the city, on the summit of the southern ridge where Heriot's Hospital and the Charity work-house now stand: an additional wall was built to include this newly-purchased territory within the limits of the city's fortifications. Edinburgh.

In the year 1532, the town-council agreed with two Frenchmen to make a causeway at the rate of 30s. Scottish money the rood. "Were it not," says Maitland, "a prevailing tradition, that the first causeway in Edinburgh Causeway.

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was made by one Merlin a Frenchman. I would declare for this being the first time the High Street of Edinburgh was paved." Soon after this period, the town-council agreed to furnish 200 citizens completely armed, to be ready at all times to join the king's army against his ancient enemies the English.

Reformation from Popery.

But shortly thereafter, one of those great convulsions occurred in the moral world, by which the local prejudices of particular states are swallowed up and forgotten amidst the agitation produced in the human mind by more important interests. The unsuccessful attempts of the English monarchs to subjugate Scotland, had produced in the two nations a most vehement hereditary animosity; in consequence of which they regarded each other as natural enemies, in whose faith little confidence was to be placed; and the Scots, as the weaker party, were led on every occasion to seek the protection, and to adhere to the policy of France. But new sentiments and views now suddenly rose in the minds of men, and rapidly undermined the prejudices created by ages of hostility.

Origin and Nature of Popery.

During the decline of the Roman empire, and amidst the calamities which mankind endured from the irruptions of the barbarians of the east and of the north, a singular fabric of superstition had been reared in Europe. Devotion, like every other sentiment of the human mind, is apt to be carried to excess; and this most readily occurs in calamitous times, when it is regarded as the means of propitiating the protection of invisible powers, to which their sense of weakness induces men on such occasions, with unusual earnestness, to resort. In what have justly been styled the *dark ages*, mankind endeavoured to foster and augment this passion in themselves and in each other. With this view they erected magnificent temples. They furnished these temples with whatever could impose upon the senses or the imagination. Images, paintings, mu-

sic, and the attendance of persons who have devoted their lives to devotional austerity, are all brought together to excite, as highly as possible, the reverence of men for the objects of their worship. All this was done by our ancestors during the most unfortunate period of the history of Europe; that is to say, amidst the irruptions of the barbarians, and the feudal anarchy which succeeded these irruptions. The more their miseries increased, the more anxious were they to build churches, monasteries, and other establishments, which, by imposing upon their imaginations, might increase the influence of an irrational devotion. A natural consequence followed from this: The ministers of religion, who were set apart for the care of such establishments, and who were of course led to assume a character of unusual purity of manners and unbounded devotion, acquired extreme power over the minds of men. By uniting themselves into a sort of confederacy under the chief priest of the city of Rome, which had obtained a sort of prescriptive claim to be the seat of sovereignty in Europe, they were enabled to adopt joint measures for increasing the devotion of mankind, and along with it their own power and riches. In the first steps of this progress, the clergy were undoubtedly filled by the same sentiments of piety which they wished to inspire into others; but their character in this respect appears to have ultimately undergone a great alteration. It is often difficult, by means of reason alone, to banish a strong passion from the human mind, although this is readily accomplished by means of another passion. Accordingly the passion of ambition speedily supplanted in the minds of the leading ecclesiastics of Europe every sentiment of devotion; and hence the history of several ages amounts to little else than a detail of the contest for superiority in temporal power which occurred between princes and priests. Du-

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Edinburgh. ring these contests, the latter never forgot entirely the principle which gave rise to their power. They endeavoured earnestly to increase the magnificence of the temples, and to adorn them with the most costly efforts of human art. Architects, painters, and sculptors, were eagerly encouraged on account of the effect or tendency of their labours to impose upon the imaginations of mankind. Music also was assiduously cultivated. The finest instruments and the best performers were sought out, and placed in the temples, to give solemnity to religious worship. At the same time, marvellous tales were propagated of deliverances obtained from every calamity by the prayers of priests, or by touching their relics, and by devotional austerities. In every dispute about matters of opinion, that side of the question was adopted which partook most of the marvellous, and thereby had the greatest tendency to promote habits of devout credulity and unthinking amazement among men. By the united force of all these engines, a system of superstition was reared of wonderful duration and influence; and the confederated priesthood who conducted it obtained the chief management in all affairs, and contrived to acquire for their own order, in all countries, a large proportion, and in Scotland little less than one-third, of the territory of the state.

Causes of the fall of popery.

This was certainly the worst possible condition of human affairs; because society was ruled by a great body of men, whose interest it was to preserve the human mind in a state of perpetual imbecility and pious credulity. But extreme evils are apt to produce their own remedy. The clergy established to a certain degree the dominion of law for the purpose of repressing the military power, which was chiefly, though not exclusively, in the hands of their lay rivals. But this very circumstance, by giving security to property and encouraging industry, gave exercise to the talents of men,

and tended to substitute the pursuit of wealth, or the pas- Edinburgh.
sion of avarice, to that devotion which had once almost exclusively possessed the human mind. The encouragement given to the fine arts of architecture, painting, music, and along with the latter the encouragement of poetry, called forth wonderful efforts of ingenuity, and thus placed the human mind in a state of progressive improvement. Thus the very arts which were employed to perpetuate superstition contributed to its ruin, because they produced ingenious men capable of detecting its absurdities. After all, however, the clergy were their own worst enemies. The safe possession of power and riches in a state of idleness had gradually produced their usual effects, that of an entire licentiousness, and even open profligacy of manners. All reverence for the persons of the priests being lost, their functions could not long remain the object of veneration. Hence mankind seemed, about the period of which we are now treating, as it were, to awaken from a dream of superstition in which they had slumbered for ages. Men of penetrating minds, of whom there are at all times a sufficient proportion in the world, found it easy, at this critical season, to expose a part of the gross delusions into which mankind had fallen; and to prove to their cotemporaries, that instead of paying due homage to the power that presides over nature, they had actually been dishonouring him, by comparing him to images, and supposing him to inhabit the temples which they had built. The priests in the meantime, by long habits of security, had lost not merely that austerity of manners which originally rendered them venerable, but also those arts of disputation by which they had formerly been able to impose upon the weak understandings of their hearers. The consequence was, that they were driven off the field with wonderful facility. The very passion of devotion, which

Edinburgh. had formerly created and supported their power, now turned against them; and the greater its vehemence, the more violent was the persecution to which they were exposed. In Scotland in particular, where the manners of the people were rendered unusually turbulent by a weak government, by frequent foreign wars, and by domestic convulsions, the ministers of the ancient faith were treated with excessive severity. The altars, images, musical instruments, and magnificent churches, were involved in general ruin by the fury of the multitude, whose devotion had now taken a new turn; and the priests were driven away as impostors, who had erected engines of idolatry unworthy of the divinity, and degrading to the human mind. Still, however, by having the government of the state in some measure in their hands, by the possession of immense riches, and by retaining their influence over the minds of a part of the community, the catholic priesthood were enabled to make a formidable stand; and we are not to suppose, because the reformation of religion was violent, that it either occurred without gradual preparation, or without that mustering of parties, and those symptoms of discontent and projects of change, which usually precede and give warning of the approach of great convulsions.

Invasion under Henry VIII.

By the death of James the Fifth, his infant daughter, the celebrated Mary Queen of Scots, succeeded to the throne. This event suggested to Henry the Eighth of England the plan of annexing Scotland to his dominions, which had so often been tried without success in former times by the English monarchs. He proposed a marriage between his son Edward and the young Queen of Scots; but he accompanied the proposal with impolitic conditions of submission to his government on the part of Scotland, which were calculated more to kindle than to soothe and conciliate the jealousy of a fierce and irritable people, who had long

struggled for independence. Still, however, his proposals were by no means regarded with that universal indignation which they would once have excited. A small, but growing, party foresaw in his government the downfal of the popish clergy, whose luxury, pride, and profligacy, had rendered them extremely unpopular; and the nobles already devoured in imagination the spoils of the church, which they naturally expected would be divided among them, as had been done among the nobles of England. The treaty was accordingly concluded: but the clergy, on the other hand, were equally aware of the consequences of the proposed alliance; and Cardinal Beaton, archbishop of St Andrews, the primate of Scotland, contrived to prevent its accomplishment. The furious spirit of Henry the Eighth could ill brook a disappointment which at once mortified his ambition and insulted his pride. A fleet of two hundred sail, with a powerful army on board, entered the Forth to take vengeance on his enemies. The English army landed near Royston, and in their way to Leith were opposed by a small body of Scots, whom they speedily put to flight; after which they took possession of Leith. On the second day thereafter they marched for Edinburgh. On their approach to the city they were met by the provost, who offered, in the name of the citizens, to evacuate the town, and to deliver the keys to the commander of the English forces, provided they might have liberty to carry their effects along with them, and that the city should be saved from fire. The English general rejected the terms; and required from the citizens an absolute and unconditional submission of their lives and properties. The provost replying, "It were better the city should stand on its defence," was commanded to retire. The Nether Bow gate was assaulted and beat open; a number of the inhabitants were killed; the English pro-

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ceeded with their heavy artillery against the castle, which returned a fire so well directed and vigorous as obliged them to desist from the attack. Being baffled in their attempts upon the castle, they took vengeance upon the city with double fury, and a devastation almost incredible commenced. They set it on fire in so many places, that the smoke obliged them to leave the town. They returned, however; and, for three successive days, exerted their utmost efforts towards its total destruction. For seven miles round Edinburgh the country was laid waste. The palace of Holyroodhouse, the castles of Craig Millar and Roslin, and the pier of Leith, which was then entirely of wood, were burnt. Hardly a house or village within that space escaped the flames. While the army proceeded with this barbarity by land, the fleet was not idle; but, scouring the Forth, almost every village from Fifeness to Stirling was plundered and burnt. At last, satiated with cruelty and rapine, they retired, carrying with them not only the spoil which they got by land, but also all the ships and vessels in the Frith.

Invasion under Edward VI.

Not satisfied with this effort, the English government, after Henry's death, persisted in what was in these times justly styled a rough sort of courtship. With a view to intimidate the Scots into a compliance, the Duke of Somerset, three years thereafter, in 1547, entered Scotland with a powerful army. He gained a victory over the Scots at Pinkie on the borders of East Lothian, and from thence marched against Leith and Edinburgh; which had so rapidly recovered, that they were again become objects of plunder. These ill-judged efforts, however, only tended for a time to aid the Popish cause, and to throw the kingdom into the arms of France, along with the young queen, who was married to the dauphin.

So large a portion of the territory of Scotland was the

property of ecclesiastics, and their power and influence were so firmly fixed, that the reformed opinions at first spread very slowly, because they could in no quarter be openly avowed. The celebrated reformer, John Knox, at length returned in 1555 from Geneva, where he had been educated. He preached in private to the friends of the reformation, and expatiated with vehemence against the impiety of those temporizing measures which the power of the clergy had hitherto induced men to adopt. He himself, however, was speedily under the necessity of flying from the kingdom; but this did not prevent the progress of the new opinions. The dangerous weapons of wit and ridicule, for which the pageantry of the Romish church, and the licentious lives of its clergy during that age, afforded ample scope, were employed with success against it; so that the populace were inspired with such contempt for what they had formerly accounted most sacred, that they wantonly defaced the images of the Virgin Mary, the Trinity, and St Francis, in St Giles's church. On this account, in 1556, Mary of Lorrain, queen dowager and regent of the kingdom, wrote from Aberdeen a violent letter, requiring the provost, bailies, and council of Edinburgh, to discover the authors of certain odious ballads and rhymes lately published, together with the destroyers of the sacred images. Affairs, however, were now in such a state, that the current of popular opinion could not be resisted. In 1558, the clergy made great preparations, as usual, for celebrating, on the 1st of September, the anniversary of St Giles, the patron saint of Edinburgh. As they were not without apprehensions that the new converts might disturb the procession, they intreated the queen-regent to honour the solemnity with her presence, which they imagined would overawe the populace. This was agreed to. When the day

Edinburgh.

John Knox.

Popish rites insulted.

Edinburgh. came, and every thing was in readiness for the procession, the clergy, both secular and regular, repaired in great state to the shrine of St Giles, to bring forth his statue to be carried in triumph. It was now discovered that some of the reformers, during the preceding night, had stolen the image; and it was even said that they had cast it into the North Loch. This occasioned considerable confusion; but that St Giles might not lose a triumph, or the clergy submit to the ridicule of having their procession defeated, a small image was borrowed from the Grey Friars, which the reformers among the mob called in derision *Young St Giles*. The procession being attended by the queen-regent and a multitude of priests and monks, with music, was conducted peaceably till towards the close; when the queen having withdrawn, the mob dismounted the image, and attacked the attendants. Then, according to John Knox, "Dagon was left without head or hands; down goes the cross; off go the surplices, round caps, and cornets, with the crowns; the grey friars gaped; the black friars blew; the priests panted and fled; and happy was he that got first to the house; for such a sudden fray came never among the generation of antichrist within this realm before."

Proceedings of the reformers.

Affairs were now approaching fast to a crisis. The reforming preachers appear to have understood well the nature of the Roman Catholic religion, and the source of its influence over the human mind; they attacked, therefore, all those sensible objects, and all that apparatus of magnificent temples, statues, relics, music, robes, processions, and splendid ceremonies, by which it imposed upon the imaginations of men. Persons of little discernment have censured the reformers as barbarous, because they encouraged the multitude to deface the finest monuments of human art. But however valuable these might be in them-

selves, they were here rendered absolutely pernicious, on account of the use to which they were applied, that of enslaving the human mind to a degrading superstition. In assailing a religion which addressed itself to the passions and imaginations of men, and imposed upon their senses by means of a magnificent apparatus, there existed no other mode of carrying on the attack with success, than that of demolishing the instruments by which it was supported. Accordingly no bad consequences resulted to Scotland from the destruction of the fabrics, or of the institutions which had been reared by the Roman Catholic superstition. The establishment of the liberty of the press, which the first reformers supported, proved of more value to mankind, by diffusing the best means of intellectual exertion, than all the efforts of ingenuity which had formerly been exerted in the improvement of the fine arts—which gratify the imagination, but convey little instruction to the understanding. Edinburgh

The proselytes of the religious reformers having encreased in number, they assumed the name of the *Congregation*, and entered into an agreement for their mutual support in propagating their tenets, in demolishing the buildings, and interrupting the solemnities, by which the catholic priesthood had hitherto supported their power. Their chiefs were styled the *Lords of the Congregation*; and becoming confident in their own strength, they advanced in arms towards Edinburgh in the month of July 1559. The queen-regent found it necessary to come to an agreement with them; by which each party consented, that the separate religions should be exercised unmolested till the 10th of the following month of January. At the same time, the magistrates of Edinburgh prevailed with the lords of the congregation to spare their churches to be employed in the protestant worship; and, in order to pre- Lords of the congregation.

Edinburgh. vent the populace of the country from tumultuously entering the city, the gates were shut, excepting the Nether Bow and the West port, which were strongly guarded.

French troops in Leith. In the meanwhile, both parties endeavoured to strengthen themselves. The queen-regent perceived the importance of which the town of Leith might become as an inlet to forces from France, where the young queen resided with her husband. Some troops of that nation were stationed there, and had already thrown up some works around it; but the queen-regent now began to fortify it in a regular and expensive manner, and endeavoured to render herself popular with the inhabitants. She granted them letters patent, empowering them to choose magistrates for the government of the town, and divided the inhabitants, as already mentioned, into four incorporations. She likewise purchased from Logan of Restalrig the superiority of the town and links, with the view of erecting Leith into a royal borough, to render it altogether independent of Edinburgh. These measures greatly excited the jealousy of the lords of the congregation, who assembled in October of the same year to endeavour to crush the preparations making against them. Having assembled at Edinburgh, they ventured formally to declare the queen-regent suspended from her office for mal-administration, by introducing foreign forces to enslave the nation. They next summoned the garrison

Siege of Leith. of Leith to evacuate the town. No regard was paid to their summons, and they resolved to attack the fortifications. The town-council of Edinburgh, which had at all times been extremely jealous of the prosperity or independence of Leith, contributed 2,000 merks towards the enterprize. The attack was meant to be made chiefly by means of scaling ladders, which were prepared in St Giles's church, which was now used for the reformed worship. It would appear, that notwithstanding their hostility to

the Roman catholic hierarchy, the first reforming clergy did not at once lay aside all the superstitions which it had introduced. They weakly and impoliticly prognosticated an unfavourable termination to the expedition, on account of the impiety which had been committed in preparing the scaling ladders in a church. Their party, however, advanced to the attack under the cover of their artillery; but when they came to apply their scaling ladders to the walls, they were found to be too short. Their antagonists, the French garrison, who possessed superior military discipline, sallied forth upon them, and a rout of the reforming party ensued. They were driven towards Edinburgh, and over the country. To prevent the entrance of the enemy into Edinburgh, the gates of the city were shut against the fugitives, which greatly augmented the confusion. Edinburgh.

The lords of the congregation next applied to England for assistance; and the counsellors of Queen Elizabeth readily discerned the importance of the existing crisis, by which she might be enabled to overturn in an instant the alliance between France and Scotland, which had subsisted for some centuries, and which had proved extremely embarrassing to the English monarchs in all their continental wars, by forcing them to occupy a large proportion of their troops in the defence of their own frontier against the incursions of their turbulent northern neighbours. Accordingly Elizabeth sent a body of English troops to the aid of the lords of the congregation: and the new passions which had arisen in the minds of men, now induced Scots and English troops, who for ages had only met in hostility, to co-operate cordially in a common object. The town-council of Edinburgh contributed, in April 1560, L. 1600 Scots as a month's pay for 400 men to be employed in the reduction of Leith. After various assaults and skirmishes, the French troops receiving no assistance from their own country, were under the necessity of sur- Aid obtained from England.

Edinburgh. rendering the fortifications of Leith, and of departing from the kingdom.

By the death of the queen-regent, which happened at this time, and the expulsion of the French troops, the lords of the congregation were left masters of the kingdom; for Queen Elizabeth, not to excite jealousy, or to injure the value of the service which she had performed, immediately withdrew the English forces. A parliament was assembled at Edinburgh; and the reformers now established by law their confession of faith, and instantly proceeded to authorise in their own favour a portion of that religious intolerance and persecution of which they had so loudly complained when exercised against them. The town-council of Edinburgh resolved not to be behind the parliament, and issued an act or edict, ordering all papists and whoremongers to be banished from the town; the former, after being exposed at the market-cross for six hours, and the latter, after being carried in a cart as a spectacle along the principal streets, for the first offence; to be burned on the cheek for the second; and to suffer death for the third offence. The deacon of the fleshers was actually, in obedience to this act, soon thereafter carted for adultery.

During the times of popery in Scotland, the Sunday had been employed, not merely as a day of amusement, but all fairs and markets were regularly held upon it. An act of the council of Edinburgh corrected this abuse within their jurisdiction, by ordering that no goods should be sold, nor shops or taverns opened, during divine service.

Arrival of Queen Mary. In 1561, the unfortunate Mary Queen of Scots arrived in her turbulent kingdom; in which she found the religion which she had been taught in France become an object of abhorrence. On the Sunday after her arrival, the mob of Edinburgh raised a tumult at the palace, and could scarcely be restrained from interrupting divine service, or even from hanging the priest; and the magistrates of Edinburgh

renewed their edict, and commanded all papists and whore- Edinburgh.
mongers to leave the city in 48 hours. The queen sent a letter to the town-council, complaining of an edict so injurious to those of her religion; upon which they again renewed the proclamation, with this difference, that instead of 48 hours, the same persons were now required to leave the city and liberties, under the penalty of being carted, burned on the cheek, and banished the city for ever. This so much provoked the queen, that she sent an order, directing the town-council instantly to deprive the provost and bailies of their offices, and to elect others in their stead. The council, who appear to have been at once petulant and pusillanimous, immediately obeyed the order. The queen at the same time issued a proclamation, granting liberty to all good and faithful subjects to repair to or remain in Edinburgh at their pleasure; which gave occasion to Knox to make this pleasant observation: "And so murderers, adulterers, thieves, whores, drunkards, idolaters, and all malefactors, gets protection under the queen's wings, under colour that they were of her religion,—and so got the devil freedom again; whereas before, he durst not have been seen in day-light upon the common streets."

The severity of manners, which in Scotland resulted from the peculiar character which the reformation of religion had assumed, in consequence of its being carried through by the populace under the direction of a set of clergy for whom no liberal pecuniary emoluments were provided, and who aspired to distinction by austerity and enthusiasm, gave rise on the following year to an edict of the town-council; by which it was ordered, that all adulterers and fornicators, without distinction, should be apprehended and committed to the iron-house, there to be fed with bread and water for the space of one month; the former to be banished the town for ever, and the latter to be whipt at the cart's tail, and banished the town, till the

Edinburgh. magistrates and church were thoroughly satisfied with their reformation. The crime of adultery was soon after made capital by parliament.

The zeal against popery also continued, notwithstanding the efforts of the court. The archbishop of St Andrews was imprisoned for saying and hearing mass; and Sir James Carvet, a popish priest, being apprehended for celebrating mass in the Cowgate, was twice pilloried at the market-cross of Edinburgh, arrayed in his sacerdotal robes, and with a chalice in his hand. He was attended by the common hangman, and severely treated by the mob.

In these tempestuous times, it appears that the government acted with no regard towards law or the rights of communities, and thereby gave to the populace an example of disorder. Queen Mary repeatedly interfered without disguise in the election of the magistrates of Edinburgh, directing who were to be chosen, and even ordering the deposition of individual magistrates. This was done without assigning any special reason.—It belongs rather to general history than to such a work as the present, to take notice of all the disorders of these times. It appears, however, that notwithstanding their religious zeal, the citizens of Edinburgh were not upon the whole disaffected to this unfortunate queen, even after the mysterious death of her husband Darnley had excited invincible suspicions against her character. And after an association to avenge his death had been formed under the appellation of the *Solemn League and Covenant*, at the head of which were the earls of Morton and Athole, we find that Edinburgh was considered as a place in which it would not be safe long to treat her person with disrespect. Accordingly, after the battle, or rather surrender, at Carberry hill, and the flight of Bothwell, when she had delivered herself to the disaffected party, they did not venture to confine her in Edinburgh more than one night.

On this occasion, however, she was grievously insulted by the populace, who accused her of having a share in the murder of her husband, and reproached her with having married his murderer. Others exposed a flag, wherein was painted the corpse of the late king lying under a tree, with the prince his son on his knees before him, with the motto, *Judge and revenge my cause, O Lord!* At this sight *Mary* was struck with great terror, and intreated the people to consider that she was their native princess, and that they would respect her as such, and not abuse her. But she was hurried away from the city before her misfortunes had leisure to produce a change in the sentiments of the multitude. Her infant son, James the Sixth, was proclaimed king; and the earl of Morton, who had been at the head of the insurgents, was appointed regent. His first object was to obtain possession of the castle; which was sold to him by the governor, and Sir William Kirkaldy was appointed in his stead. Edinburgh. Queen Mary dethroned.

The queen's party, however, gradually gained strength, and was joined by Kirkaldy, the governor of Edinburgh castle. The two parties, under the appellation of *king's men* and *queen's men*, alternately obtained possession of the city, which became the scene of frequent battles, or rather skirmishes. The king's party was even under the necessity of having recourse to the dangerous aid of queen Elizabeth; who gladly seized the opportunity of holding Scotland, and the next heir of her crown, in a state of perpetual dependence and alarm. An English general was sent down to the assistance of the regent. Civil war.

In 1571, the queen's forces, under the earl of Huntly and others, were in possession of Edinburgh, while the Earl of Morton occupied Leith. Various encounters occurred between the opposite parties, and much slaughter took place in the suburbs of the city. Each party put to death as traitors the prisoners that fell into their

Edinburgh. hands; but being at length weary of this unprofitable slaughter, a truce took place; at the end of which, the Earl of Morton having got possession of the city, a constant warfare was made from it against the castle; which was at last besieged in form by Scots and English troops, with a train of English artillery. The castle was attacked by means of five batteries, placed at considerable distances from each other on the highest grounds to the south, the west, and the north, from Heriot's hospital to where the new town is situated. After a siege of 33 days, when the fortifications were in a great measure demolished, and the water had failed, the governor surrendered to the English general by capitulation: But, contrary to the articles of the capitulation, the governor was treacherously delivered up by queen Elizabeth to the Scottish regent, by whom he was tried and put to death as a traitor.

Morton speedily rendered himself unpopular by acts of rapacity, and by the jealousy with which he attempted to establish his power at the expence of the lives of those whom he accounted his enemies. He was at last (A. D. 1577) under the necessity of resigning the government into the hands of the young king. His brother, who was governor of Edinburgh castle, resolved to hold out, and attempted to provide provisions against a siege; but the citizens of Edinburgh having opposed his design, and attacked his soldiers, he surrendered the castle upon receiving a pardon; which, according to the barbarous policy of the times, did not ultimately afford him protection.

State of the kingdom. The situation of James the Sixth, like that of every Scottish king, was extremely perplexing. The country was filled with numerous powerful barons, who set the law at defiance. So far from being in condition to administer justice, and to endeavour to civilize a restless and semi-barbarous people, the kings found great difficulty in protecting themselves. Various attempts, during the early

part of his reign, were made to deprive James the Sixth of his freedom; for the purpose of using what authority he possessed as an engine in the hands of a faction, or some powerful chief. The Earl of Morton, in little more than a year after he resigned the regency, went to Stirling castle, where the king resided. Having contrived to obtain the command of the garrison, he seized and confined the king's person there, and resumed his former authority. The king having written to Edinburgh, complaining of his confinement, great commotions were instantly excited. The citizens threatened to march to his relief, and Morton found it necessary to bring the king to Edinburgh. He was received with much pageantry; which, while it demonstrated the loyalty of the citizens, is worthy of being recorded on account of its tendency to give a correct idea of the pedantry and fantastic taste of the times. Edinburgh.

The citizens were ordered to appear in rich dresses, and the streets to be decorated with tapestry and rich arras work. The king, arriving in the neighbourhood of the city, dismounted without the West Port, where the magistrates, uncovered, received and conducted him into the town under a magnificent canopy of purple velvet. At the West Port he was saluted by a person representing King Solomon, attended by a numerous train in *Jewish* habits, with the two women striving for the child; thence proceeding to the West Bow, there was seen suspended therein a large polished brazen globe, from which, in a machine, descended a *Cupid*, who presented him with the keys of the city gates, made of silver, in a silver bason, accompanied with an excellent concert of music. Arriving at the Tolbooth, he was harangued by persons representing Peace, Plenty, and Justice, in the *Greek*, *Latin*, and *Scottish* languages; and at his entering St GILES's church, his Majesty was addressed by Religion in the *He-* Ancient Pageantry.

Edinburgh. *brew* tongue; and after sermon, he repaired to the market cross, where *Bacchus*, on a gilt hogshead, was distributing wine in bumpers amongst the people, under the sound of trumpets and loud acclamations of the citizens. At the *Nether Bow* was erected the nativity, and over it the genealogies, of the *Scottish* kings from Fergus I. During the procession the streets were bestrewed with flowers, while the ordnance in the castle loudly proclaimed the king's welcome.

Edinburgh the support of the Crown.

It appears, that at this time the Scottish monarch could scarcely, for ordinary service, command any other force than that which the city of Edinburgh occasionally provided. In the beginning of the year 1580 he obtained from the Town-Council of Edinburgh a guard of 100 men. Thinking himself still insecure, he obtained from the same body, speedily thereafter, this guard to be doubled. Having seized the Earl of Morton as a prisoner, the king was afraid to detain that powerful nobleman so near to his own person as the castle of Edinburgh, and wished him conveyed to Dumbarton; but he had no other mode of accomplishing this object than by applying once more to the Town-Council of Edinburgh for 100 men to convey the deposed regent to his place of imprisonment in the west.

The good terms that subsisted between this monarch and the people of his capital did not long continue without interruption. The clergy appear to have been the chief causes of dissension. They attempted to establish over the people an influence superior to that of the monarch; and he found them on all occasions the chief obstacles to his measures. A mutual jealousy was speedily excited, and displayed itself on every occasion. The Earl of Gowrie having seized the person of the king, kept him in confinement, and directed affairs at his pleasure. The

clergy joined their influence to that of the faction which had obtained possession of the king's person. When Henry the Third of France sent an ambassador to Edinburgh, to endeavour to obtain the restoration of the king to his independence, the clergy insulted the ambassador in their sermons; and when the king desired the magistrates of Edinburgh to entertain the gentlemen of the embassy, the clergy ordained a fast to be observed on the day fixed for the entertainment, and endeavoured to keep the people all day in church by the length of their sermons. When the king had escaped from the power of Gowrie and his associates, the clergy still persisted in approving the conduct of that party, and openly accused the king of perverting the laws both of God and man. Still, however, the city of Edinburgh appears to have been the king's principal resource in every respect. The Town-Council was in such good credit, that they borrowed money at 5 *per cent.* when the ordinary rate of interest amounted to double that sum. When the Duke of Lennox's two sisters arrived from France, the king quartered them for fifteen or twenty days upon the Town-Council, who agreed with certain persons to maintain the ladies during the time required. When the celebrated Spanish armada approached the coast of Scotland, the Town-Council, besides ordering the citizens to arm themselves, immediately raised 300 men, and provided funds for their subsistence as a military body. They also entertained an embassy from Navarre at a considerable expence. On a treaty of marriage being concluded between King James and the Princess Ann of Denmark, the Town-Council were at the expence of sending a vessel, properly fitted out, to convey her home. The king had commanded them to entertain the royal bride and her retinue till the palace of Holyroodhouse could be fitted up for her re-

Edinburgh.

Edinburgh. ception. This burden was avoided by presenting to his Majesty the sum of 5000 merks. When the marriage was solemnized in the church of St Giles, the Town-Council presented to the bride a jewel of considerable value, which the king had deposited with them in security for a large sum of money which he had borrowed from them. The king farther commanded them to entertain the Danish ambassadors who attended the queen.

It is not wonderful that a prince, thus accustomed to levy money from his subjects arbitrarily whenever he found occasion for it, was ill pleased with the constitution of England when he became monarch of that kingdom, and was offended with the obstinate adherence of the parliament there to their ancient privilege of holding the public purse, and of giving no money to the prince unless in consequence of public discussion.

When the king's eldest son, Prince Henry was born, who died without coming to the throne, the Town-Council of Edinburgh, in 1594, presented to the king ten tons of wine to celebrate the prince's baptism, and sent 100 of the inhabitants richly accoutred to Stirling to attend as a guard at the ceremony. When, in 1596, the Princess Elizabeth was born, who was afterwards wife to the unfortunate elector palatine, king of Bohemia (and from whom our present royal family is descended), the king invited the magistrates of Edinburgh to the christening; and the Town-Council, in return, granted an obligation upon the community to pay to the princess the sum of L. 10,000 Scottish money at her marriage; which was accordingly paid, seventeen years thereafter, in 1613.

Sedition of the Clergy. In the meanwhile the disputes between the king and the clergy were still going on. The popish nobility of Scotland had entered into a conspiracy to assist the Spanish invasion of England; and their leaders were banish-

ed for a short time. On their being suffered to return, the clergy throughout the kingdom sounded the alarm of the danger from popery. In particular, one Black, a minister at St Andrew's, in a sermon, declared that the king, by permitting the return of the popish lords, had demonstrated the treachery of his own heart: he said that all kings were the devil's children; that Satan ruled the Scottish court; that Queen Elizabeth was an atheist; that the nobility were enemies to the church, and the lords of session a set of miscreants and bribers. Edinburgh.

Black was summoned to answer for his sermon before the privy council; but he insisted, that the conduct or language of a clergyman in the pulpit could only be tried before the ecclesiastical courts. The king found himself too weak to inflict any punishment upon Black; and his brethren the clergy, instead of censuring his conduct, ordained a solemn fast to be kept to avert impending judgments on account of the ill treatment of the faithful pastors of the church. The ministers of Edinburgh were not behind their brethren in zeal; and their fears were wrought upon by a fictitious letter, which intimated that the king had some dangerous scheme on foot against them. The result was, that on the ensuing Sunday, Walter Balcanquall, whose turn it was to preach, inveighed against the treachery of the king's ministers; and, addressing himself to the nobility then present, called upon them to imitate the conduct of their ancestors in supporting zealously their religion; and requested the principal persons present to meet at the end of the service, to assist himself and his colleagues with their advice. At this meeting a petition was prepared, and ordered to be presented to the king by two noblemen, two gentlemen, and two ministers. The persons who presented the petition treated his Majesty with little ceremony; and a multitude of people crowding into

Edinburgh. the apartment, the king was under the necessity of very suddenly withdrawing into another, of which he ordered the doors to be shut. When the populace learned tha their petition was likely to be disregarded, their rage became very great; and if they had not been restrained by their deacon convener, there was great danger that they would have forced open the doors, and destroyed the king and all that were with him. Sir Alexander Hume, the provost, who had been confined to his house, hearing of the king's danger, came forth, and with much difficulty prevailed with the multitude to disperse.

The King flies from Edinburgh.

The king took care to avoid a second petition by removing from Edinburgh to Linlithgow. Here he issued a proclamation, stating, "That the king, considering the late treasonable uproar, moved by factious persons of the ministry of *Edinburgh*, who, after they had uttered the most seditious speeches in the pulpit, did convene a number of noblemen, barons, and others, in the Little Church, and sent some of the number to his Majesty, being then in the upper session house, using him in a most irreverent manner, and with speeches ill becoming any subject; and that a multitude of the townsmen, by persuasion of the said ministry, had treasonably put themselves in arms, intending to bereave his Majesty and his council of their lives—did think the said town an unsafe place for the ministration of justice; and therefore ordained the lords of session, the sheriff, and commissioners of justice, with their several members and deputies, to remove themselves forth of the town of *Edinburgh*, and be ready to repair to such places as should be appointed; commanding, in like sort, all noblemen and barons to dispatch them to their houses, and not presume to convene, either in that or any other place, without his Majesty's licence, under the pain of his Highness's displeasure."

As the desertion of the city by the Court, and the officers of the law, threatened to affect very seriously the interests of the inhabitants, it greatly cooled their religious zeal. The ministers in vain attempted to procure an association of the nobility and gentry in their defence, and were under the necessity of flying to England. A meeting of parliament was called at Edinburgh; and the tumult having been declared high treason, a resolution was adopted to commence a criminal process against the incorporation. Thirteen members of the town-council, as representing the whole, were ordered to surrender themselves for trial at Perth. One of them having failed to appear, the town was declared guilty of rebellion, and the city revenues were sequestrated for the king's use. The whole affair ended in an agreement, that the city should pay to the king 20,000 merks, and that the houses of the ministers of Edinburgh, which stood together, and were a rallying point for the mob, should be surrendered to the king; and that the clergy should be compelled for the future to reside in separate quarters of the city.

Edinburgh.

Reconciliation of the King and the City.

From that period till the accession of James to the throne of England, in consequence of the death of Queen Elizabeth, nothing of importance relative to the city seems to have occurred. On the Sunday previous to his departure, the king went to the church of St Giles, as if to take a solemn farewel of the subjects of his native kingdom. The minister preached an appropriate discourse; and the people seeming to be much moved, the king addressed them at the end of the service; and in a speech expressed his great attachment to them; requested them not to be dejected on account of his departure; and promised, that as his power of serving them was now increased, they should derive a proportionable advantage from his liberality.

Union of the Crowns.

Edinburgh.

Removal of the court

The removal of the Court is an event of singular importance in the history of Edinburgh and of Scotland. The two kingdoms of Scotland and England had existed during several ages in a state of animosity, which was never entirely free from some sort of active hostility, at least upon the borders of the two kingdoms. The English monarchs had in vain attempted to subjugate Scotland; but, by the circumstance of the Scottish king becoming heir to the English crown, the Scots considered themselves as having, in the person of their monarch, made *an acquisition* of England; whereas, in truth, England acquired them as a dependant state. For a short time, indeed, the Scots, who followed the court of their monarch, derived no small profit from the countenance of a prince who was their countryman, and had become the sovereign of a wealthy people. But the family of this prince speedily became Englishmen, and knew Scotland only as a province of their dominions, of which England was the center and the capital. Had the French in former times, instead of contending obstinately in defence of their salique law, that is, of the exclusive succession of males to their crown, admitted the right of succession through females, and even conceded the right of the Royal Family of England to succeed to the throne of France, England must have experienced precisely the same humiliation that ultimately occurred to Scotland. The Royal Family, residing in the greatest and most populous and wealthy part of their dominions, would have speedily become Frenchmen, and England would have sunk into a province of France. The celebrated battles of Cressy and Agincourt, of which the English boast to this day, were stupidly fought by them for the purpose of accomplishing their own subjugation; and the chief misfortune which the French sustained, consisted of their not being sufficiently beaten, or that

these battles did not enable the English monarchs to seat themselves firmly on the French throne. Edinburgh.

From the time of the departure of the monarch, Scotland remained, till the legislative union under Queen Anne, in a most unhappy state. The Scottish language became a provincial dialect, Edinburgh became little better than a mere provincial capital; or, if it ever emerged into notice, it was by its misfortunes, that is, by becoming the seat of anarchy, or of some form of civil discord. In the meanwhile, the Scottish nobles, no longer able to contend with effect against their prince, now become the monarch of a powerful people, lost their ancient spirit of independence, and became converted into greedy landlords, who collected with eagerness their revenues to expend them in a distant capital. Literature and arts fell into decay; all the evils of the ancient political institutions of the country were aggravated. The nobles were slaves to the prince, while at the same time the people, subjected to the territorial jurisdiction of the nobles, enjoyed none of that protection and security which a great monarchy is calculated to give to the inferior orders of men. These evils might have been almost entirely prevented or compensated, by extending the benefit of the English constitution to Scotland, that is, by uniting the legislatures of the two countries. The king is said to have proposed this measure; but the pride of Englishmen revolted against the idea of receiving Scotchmen into their parliament, or allowing to their ancient enemies to share the name of Englishmen. They were ultimately brought to think rationally upon this subject only by their usual bugbear, the terror of a French invasion; the fear of which has at all times been found sufficient to induce the English nation to submit to any sacrifice. State of Scotland after the union of the Crowns.

In the year 1604, we find that the pestilence raged in

Edinburgh. Edinburgh to a great degree; so that it was necessary to compel, by the highest penalties of the law, the persons elected into the magistracy to accept of their offices. Nothing farther worthy of notice appears to have occurred during many years; and by the removal of the court, and of the factions by which the country was divided, Edinburgh enjoyed a degree of tranquillity formerly unknown to this turbulent people. In 1618, King James returned

James VI. revisits Edinburgh. to visit his native country, and to enjoy the pleasure of exhibiting to the Scots the splendour of an English monarch. He was received at the West Port by the town-council in their robes, and by the principal citizens dressed in black velvet. The deputy town-clerk, John Hay, addressed the king in a long speech; in which his Majesty was compared to David and Solomon, and to the Roman Cæsars; and was told, that his government was the quintessence of skill in ruling; that the hills and groves were refreshed by the dew of his presence; and that the senate-house of the planets had been convened at his birth, to bestow upon him all possible perfections. At the same time, what was perhaps still more acceptable than this speech, the sum of 10,000 merks was presented to the king in a silver bason, to render his heart propitious to this ancient city. The king appears to have spent at this visit a part of his time at Stirling in his favourite amusement of scholastic disputation, with persons sent thither from the university of Edinburgh; and distinguished himself greatly by his skill in punning; which appears in that age to have been a very fashionable accomplishment.

Charles I. visits Edinburgh. The next royal visit with which Edinburgh was honoured was from Charles the First in 1633. He was received with the most absurd pageantry; a person in female attire, representing Caledonia, addressed him under a triumphal arch, in a long rhyming speech, at the West Bow. At the

west end of the tolbooth was a second triumphal arch, on which were painted 109 kings of Scotland. Mercury was represented conducting Fergus the first king of Scotland; who, in a grave speech, gave many good advices to Charles as his successor. At the Cross a mount was raised, representing Parnassus adorned with rocks and trees; a stream of water, representing Helicon, issued from a fountain between the two tops of the mount; two bands of music, with an organ, were placed on the south side, and on the north side sat Apollo and the nine muses. Apollo pronounced a panegyric upon the king, and then presented him with a whole volume of panegyrics, composed for the occasion by the members of the university; after which the muses sung a song in his praise. Edinburgh.

At the Nether Bow, under a third triumphal arch, the king was addressed in congratulatory speeches by persons representing the seven planets. The expence of the king's entry, together with a present made to him, cost the city L. 41,489, 7 s. Scots. We may remark once for all, that L. 12 of Scots money is equal to L. 1 Sterling.

The troubles which agitated the reign of Charles the First began in Edinburgh. At the reformation from popery, the property of the church was seized by the nobles, who obtained at various periods their possession, to be confirmed by grants negligently bestowed by the different kings. The consequence was, that the Scottish presbyterian clergy, having no proper provision from the state, were under the necessity of securing a scanty subsistence by ingratiating themselves with the people; which they did, by practising austere manners, and by representing, in an odious light, the luxury and vanity of kings and nobles, of whom they endeavoured to render themselves independent. Charles wished, as a politician, to subdue their turbulent spirit. The most obvious mode of accomplishing this object evidently consisted of holding out to them objects of personal

Edinburgh. avarice or ambition, by establishing wealthy benefices, such as he found in England. He was also himself a conscientious sectary, rigidly attached to the government of the christian church, by bishops. Influenced by both of these views, he made considerable efforts to rescue a part of the ancient property of the church from the hands into which it had fallen, and to establish in Scotland the forms of the church of England. To the first of these views the clergy could have no objection; but a large body of them, together with the people at large, had acquired an invincible antipathy against all church dignities and ecclesiastical ceremonies, which they considered as allied to popery. The king established a regular and complete arrangement of ecclesiastical dignities; and the 23d of July 1637 was appointed for introducing the new service into the church of St Giles. On this extraordinary occasion, the lord chancellor, the two archbishops of St Andrews and Glasgow, the privy counsellors, the bishops, the lords of session, and a vast concourse of people attended. No sooner had the dean of Edinburgh, James Hannah, appeared in his surplice, than a great tumult was excited in the church, chiefly by the women present, who interrupted the service by their noise. The bishop of Edinburgh went into the pulpit, and reminded the people of the sanctity of the place; but an old woman, named Janet Geddes, casting at his head the stool upon which she sat, exclaimed, "Out, thou false thief, wouldst thou say mass at my lug (ear)." The magistrates at length succeeded in turning the turbulent part of the multitude out of the church, and the service proceeded; but with great interruptions, in consequence of the noise which was kept up by throwing stones against the doors and windows, and by incessant cries to pull down the pope and antichrist. When the congregation was dismissed, the bishop was with diffi-

Jenny Geddes's reformation.

culty rescued from the popular fury. This transaction is known in Scotland to this day by the name of "Jenny Geddes's reformation." It was the commencement of a sanguinary civil war, which terminated in the destruction of the monarch and the suspension of the monarchy; and ought undoubtedly to remain as a warning to princes and magistrates to remain satisfied with the dominion they possess in this world, without attempting, in any case, to quarrel with their people on account of the speculative notions which the latter may entertain concerning futurity. Edinburgh.

During the autumn which succeeded the event above-mentioned, the liturgy was used for some time quietly in the churches of Edinburgh; but about the middle of October, when the city began to be more crowded with inhabitants, the opposition to the new service was resumed. To repress this opposition, and particularly to prevent any concourse of persons to Edinburgh on account of religious matters, the privy-council of Scotland issued, on the 17th of October, no less than three proclamations. By the first, they ordered all persons, who had come to Edinburgh on account of ecclesiastical affairs, to return home under the penalty of being denounced rebels; the second, appointed the court of session to be removed to Linlithgow; and the third, ordered an obnoxious pamphlet to be called in and burned.

These proclamations, especially that for removing the court of session from Edinburgh to Linlithgow, served only to exasperate without intimidating the people. On the following day, the bishop of Galloway was insulted by the multitude on his way to a meeting of the privy-council. Having with great difficulty reached the council-chamber, he and the other privy-counsellors were besieged there by the mob. The lords of the privy-council sent secretly to request assistance from the magistrates, and Tumults about Religion.

Edinburgh. themselves stood in no less need of assistance. Their council-chamber had been broken into by the multitude; and they were threatened with immediate destruction, if they did not instantly subscribe a petition against the service-book; a demand with which they were at last under the necessity of complying. In the meanwhile, the earl of Traquair, lord treasurer, with the earl of Wigton, left the privy-council to go to join the magistrates of the city; though for what good purpose does not appear. They found, that the magistrates had obtained their liberty; but they themselves, in attempting to return, were insulted by the furious multitude, who shouted from all sides, "God defend all those who will defend God's cause, and God confound the service-book and all maintainers of it."

Privy council insulted. The lords, in imminent danger, assured the populace, that they would represent their grievances to his majesty: but when they perceived that the people treated with contempt an order to disperse, on pain of the royal displeasure, they felt the necessity of having recourse to entreaties and supplications. Before this measure was adopted, the fury of the multitude had encreased to such a height, that the lord treasurer was assaulted and thrown down; his hat, cloak, and white staff taken from him; and, had he not been soon taken up by certain of his friends, he must have been trod to death. In this woeful state, *Traquair*, without hat, cloak, or staff, was conducted to the council-chamber, where the bishop of *Orkney*, and other privy-counsellors were attending their fate. The privy-council were under the necessity of at last sending to solicit the protection of some of the popular nobility and gentry, who were most violent in opposition to the measures of the Court. This they were fortunate enough to obtain; and the multitude, who respected the chiefs of

be conducted to their own houses. The privy-council met on the same afternoon at the palace of Holyroodhouse, and issued a proclamation, prohibiting public convocations of people within the city: but this was disregarded, and the privy-council, having no troops under their command, were under the necessity of seeking safety, by retiring to Stirling. A royal proclamation was next issued, pardoning past offences, and commanding peaceable behaviour; but wherever it was published, it was solemnly protested against. Edinburgh was now crowded with people; and, in imitation of the measure which had been adopted upon the murder of the Earl of Darnley, a "Solemn League and Covenant" was entered into. This was a bond or instrument subscribed and sworn to by all ranks of persons; whereby they renounced popery, engaged to resist all religious innovations, and to stand by each other against all opposition. At the same time, a declaration was inserted, disclaiming all hostility to the king, and expressing a resolution to defend his person and authority; though it was equivocally added, that this was to be done in the preservation and defence of the true religion. All ranks of persons hastened with the utmost eagerness to subscribe and swear to the performance of this covenant. They at the same time arranged themselves into different clubs at Edinburgh, according to their different ranks; and these clubs were denominated tables, the representatives of which governed the whole kingdom.

Edinburgh.

The Covenant.

The king found it necessary, from his weakness, arising from want of troops and money, and the disaffection of his English subjects, to temporise with the Scottish covenanters. He sent down the Marquis of Hamilton to hold a parliament and the general assembly of the clergy. He was met some miles from Edinburgh by an immense multitude of covenanters, who wished to display their

Edinburgh. strength, and of whom about 60,000 were now assembled at Edinburgh. They refused to abandon their covenant; invited the commissioner himself to subscribe it, and refused to permit the English service to be read before him in the chapel of Holyroodhouse. The commissioner returned to London without accomplishing any division among the covenanters; and the king found it necessary, by royal proclamation, to discharge the use of the obnoxious service-book.

Civil War. In November 1638, a general assembly of the church, which was attended by the most powerful laymen in the kingdom, was held at Glasgow. Here the whole bishops were deprived, episcopacy abolished, and all persons ordered to sign the covenant under the penalty of excommunication; and, in the beginning of the following year, a meeting at Edinburgh of the different estates of parliament unanimously resolved upon war against the royal authority. Troops were levied; the castle of Edinburgh, being destitute of provisions, surrendered, and Leith was fortified. The king made a feeble attempt to reduce them by means of English forces; but the disaffection of his English parliament, who gave every countenance to the Scottish covenanters, enabled the latter successfully to set him at defiance. When the civil wars began in England, the covenanters sent an army of 20,000 men into England to assist the parliament. It is not the province, however, of a work of this sort, to enter into a detail of the transactions which occurred in this part of the island during the momentuous period now under consideration. For this reason, we shall not here take notice of those alternate reverses, in consequence of which, some of the most distinguished leaders of both parties, such as Montrose and the two Argyles, were brought to the scaffold. It is sufficient here to observe, that after the fall of

Charles the First, his son was immediately proclaimed at Edinburgh; and having come over from Holland, he was teazed by the fanaticism of the clergy till the time when he was driven out of Scotland by Oliver Cromwell. In consequence of the defeat of the Scottish army at Dunbar, in 1650, Edinburgh once more sunk into a state of tranquillity and insignificance till the restoration in 1660. Edinburgh.

Charles the Second's government was extremely tyrannical in Scotland. He restored episcopacy, which was still odious to the people; and nearly one half of the clergy in Scotland were suddenly dismissed from their benefices for refusing to conform to it. The privy-council assumed the power of banishment to the foreign settlements; enormous fines were imposed on account of non-attendance upon public worship; and arbitrary imprisonment was carried by them to a great length. Some trifling rebellions were excited, which were followed by endless sanguinary executions. As the quarrel was of a religious nature, the sufferers were considered by themselves and their party as earning a crown of martyrdom. The effect of the whole was, that the royal family of Stuart became utterly odious to the Scottish presbyterians; and to this day, among the religious and well-informed part of the common people in the south of Scotland, their memory is regarded with the utmost abhorrence. Charles the Second's government.

The news of the landing of the Prince of Orange in England was received in Scotland by the presbyterians, who formed the great body of the people, with unbounded joy. Their leaders flocked to Edinburgh from all quarters. Great severities were exercised upon papists, episcopals, and upon all friends to the unhappy and exiled royal family of whatever denomination. The Earl of Perth, chancellor, fled from Edinburgh; and the government fell entirely into the hands of the revolution party. Revolution.

Edinburgh. A mob rose; drums were beat through the city; the inhabitants assembled in great multitudes; they proceeded to demolish the chapel of Holyroodhouse, but were opposed by a party of about 100 men stationed in the abbey, and who adhered to the interest of James. The mob pressing forward were fired upon by this party; about a dozen were killed, and thrice as many wounded: upon which they fled for the present, but quickly returned with a warrant from some lords of the privy-council. They were headed by the magistrates, town guard, trained bands, and heralds at arms, who required Wallace, the captain of the party, to surrender; and upon his refusal, another skirmish ensued, in which Wallace's party was defeated, some being killed, and the rest made prisoners. Then there was nothing to resist the fury of the multitude. The abbey church and private chapel were robbed and despoiled of their ornaments, the college of the Jesuits almost pulled in pieces, and the houses of the Roman catholics plundered.

The government of the nation as well as of the city was at this time in some measure dissolved. The magistrates of Edinburgh possessed little of the public confidence; because, although they very eagerly offered their services to the Prince of Orange, yet they had been elected under the influence of the opposite party, and had recently declared their resolution to stand by the sacred person of King James. It was therefore found necessary, for the preservation of public tranquillity, that some of the most respectable inhabitants should come forward, and endeavour to preserve the tranquillity of the city. Accordingly the members of the profession of the law, called the *college of justice*, took up arms; and, having organized themselves as a military body, preserved tranquillity in Edinburgh. But the Duke of Hamilton, who zealously supported the

revolution, was jealous of this body on account of the attachment of its most distinguished members to the banished monarch. He therefore procured from the new government an order for disbanding them. Edinburgh.

Edinburgh was at this time the capital of an independent kingdom; and accordingly political intrigues occurred here similar to those which took place in England relative to the establishment of the crown. The Duke of Hamilton, at the head of the revolution party, publicly introduced several companies of foot into the city. The castle was in the meanwhile preserved for some time for the exiled monarch by its governor, the Duke of Gordon; but being ill supplied with provisions, it speedily surrendered. A convention of estates was, in March 1689, held in Edinburgh; which declared, that King James having altered the constitution of the kingdom, by the exertion of arbitrary power, had forfeited his right to the crown; which they settled upon William and Mary. They also abolished the episcopal form of church government; they ordained a new election of the magistrates and council of Edinburgh to be made in St Giles's church by poll of the burgesses who were liable for public burdens; and they dismissed several ministers of Edinburgh from their churches, because they refused to pray for the newly appointed sovereigns. As is usual amidst the reaction of political parties, freedom suffered no less from its zealous and avowed friends than it had done from its declared enemies. Many of the adherents of the exiled family were exposed to severe persecution, and some of them were long detained in prison. The liberty of the press was no less trampled upon by the new party than it had been by their predecessors. Still, however, this might justly be styled a bloodless revolution, if that could with propriety be called a revolution which altered nothing in the ordi- New government established.

Edinburgh

nary arrangements of society, or in the established laws of the kingdom, excepting merely with regard to the person of the prince, who was driven from the throne on account of the violation of these laws.

Edinburgh appears to have continued in a state of tolerable quietness till towards the close of King William's reign and the commencement of that of his successor, when the failure of the attempt to establish a Scottish colony at the Isthmus of Darien in America, and afterwards the accomplishment of a legislative union with England, excited considerable disturbances.

African company.

In 1695, a company had been established for trading to Africa and the Indies. In 1696, L. 400,000 Sterling was subscribed as the funds of this company by persons residing in Scotland; and six ships of considerable force sailed from the Frith of Forth. The news of their having effected a settlement on the Isthmus of Darien arrived on the 25th of March 1699; and as the whole kingdom appears to have entered with singular enthusiasm into the project, this event was celebrated with the most extravagant rejoicings. The new company, however, soon met with the most violent opposition. King William was extremely hostile to it; and the English, Dutch, and Spaniards, were uncommonly active in their efforts to prevent the establishment of a rival in their colonial enterprises. The petitions to the king by the company and by the Scottish parliament were totally disregarded. But upon the news being received of the defeat of the Spaniards, who attacked our settlement, a mob rose, obliged the inhabitants of Edinburgh to illuminate their windows, committed outrages upon the houses of those who did not humour them by compliance, secured the avenues to the city, and proceeded to the Tolbooth; the doors of which they burnt, and set at liberty two printers, who had been confined for

printing pamphlets reflecting on the government. When it was afterwards understood that the company were driven from their settlement, their capital lost, and their hopes utterly extinguished, the Scots were seized with a transport of fury; violent addresses were presented to the king; and the mob were so outrageous, that the royal commissioner to parliament and officers of state found it prudent to retire for a few days, lest they should have fallen a sacrifice to popular fury. Edinburgh.

The African company still continued their trade to different quarters; but found themselves, after the accession of Queen Anne, still exposed to ill treatment abroad. A ship belonging to them was seized in the Thames. Having in vain solicited restitution from the English ministry, the company obtained authority from the government in Scotland to seize, by way of reprisal, a vessel (Captain Green commander) belonging to the English East India company, which put into the Forth. The unguarded speeches of the crew, in their cups or their quarrels, made them be suspected and accused; and, after a full and legal trial, they were convicted of piracy, aggravated by murder, and that committed upon the master and crew of a Scottish vessel in the East Indies. Still, however, the evidence upon which they were condemned was by many thought slight, and intercessions for royal mercy were used in their behalf. But the populace were enraged that the blood of a Scotchman should be spilt unrevenged. On the day appointed for the execution, a vast mob surrounded the prison. The lord chancellor was attacked, the privy-council were intimidated, together with the magistrates of Edinburgh; and it was found absolutely necessaty to appease the enraged multitude by the execution of the criminals. March 16th 1705.

The misfortunes of the African company, together with

Edinburgh.

Animosity against England.

other causes of offence, all of which the jealousy of the Scots, as the weaker state, led them to interpret in the worst point of view against the English government, seem at this time to have been rapidly hastening to rekindle the ancient animosities between the two kingdoms, and might probably have produced an attempt towards a separation in the order of succession to the two crowns. Queen Anne's ministry saw the necessity of endeavouring to unite more closely than formerly, by a political union, the whole of the British island, and to take from the Scots their rallying point of a separate legislature.

Propriety of an union.

It has hitherto been one of the defects attending every free political institution, that it has not admitted of an extension of empire without endangering a loss of liberty. The English nation, who have always been jealous of innovation, were unwilling to receive strangers into their legislature; and were chiefly induced to do so at this period from the reasonable apprehension that the Scots might return to their ancient alliance with France. In other respects, the empire of England was at this time engaged in a progress towards a great but gradual enlargement. In North America, colonies had been established, which, twenty years before the close of the existing century, were to assume a name and a rank among powerful and prosperous nations. Settlements had also been begun in the West India islands, and an East India company had been established; which undoubtedly enjoyed the hope of being able, at a future period, after the exampie of the Portuguese and the Dutch, to acquire for themselves a territorial Asiatic sovereignty. In Europe also, Ireland was growing to be a great kingdom; and Scotland, the ancient enemy and rival of England, was subject to the same monarch. Still, however, no attempt had yet been made to reduce into one mass the scattered fragments of this great

and growing body. The English politicians satisfied themselves with seeing separate constitutions, in imitation of their own, everywhere established. There was a Scottish parliament and an Irish parliament; and every American colony and West India island had its separate house of representatives, and a council established after the model of the House of Commons and of Peers in England, superintended by a governor or commissioner, who represented the king. Thus the empire consisted of a set of fragments or patches, legally bound together only by a very limited executive power, and in reality preserved in a state of union merely by the weakness of each of the parts considered separately, and the necessity of looking towards England for protection. Later events have now demonstrated, that to enable the race of Englishmen, or rather of Britons, to remain permanently united, it would have been necessary to model the English legislature in such a way, as, that when any distant settlement attained to a certain degree of strength, its separate legislature should be dissolved, and representatives from it received into the general legislature of the empire. This measure, with regard to Scotland, appears only, however, to have been adopted as a matter of present expediency at the commencement of the eighteenth century, and has never been received as a general rule or measure of imperial policy. The consequence of which has been a political disjunction of the British race on the two sides of the Atlantic. Nor was the measure adopted with regard to Ireland till it was forced upon England by the fear of French encroachment. Edinburgh.

In general, the union was in Scotland favoured by the whig or presbyterian party, on account of the nomination of the house of Hanover to the succession of the throne of England, which had already taken place there. Still, however, the proposal of removing from the kingdom all Tumults at the union.

Edinburgh. semblance of its ancient independence, excited general reluctance to the project, and gave rise in Edinburgh to very violent commotions. No sooner were the articles of the treaty printed than universal uproar ensued. The Duke of Queensberry, who presided in the parliament of Scotland as royal commissioner, with every partisan of the union, was insulted and exposed to the utmost personal danger; while those who headed the opposition were followed with the loudest acclamations. The mob attacked the house of Sir Patrick Johnston, one of the representatives of the city of Edinburgh; and he himself escaped with great difficulty from falling a victim to their fury. It was found necessary to draw together a considerable army; and even with this assistance, together with the sovereign expedient of modern politicians, that of money, the proposed union was with great difficulty effected, some of the votes being carried only by the narrowest possible majority.

Rebellion in 1715. Edinburgh remained quiet till the accession of the present royal family, when the violation of the ancient law of hereditary succession to the crown excited a slight rebellion in Scotland. On this occasion, the town-council of Edinburgh provided for the security of the town and the support of government, by ordering the city walls and gates to be repaired and fortified; the sluice upon the North Loch to be dammed up, and trenches to be made; the town guard to be augmented; the trained bands to be armed; 400 men to be raised and maintained at the city's expence; and armed vessels to be fitted out, to assist the king's ships in preventing the rebel army from crossing the Forth.

Sept. 3d. The enterprise began on the part of the rebels with an unsuccessful attempt to seize Edinburgh castle by surprise. The run upon the bank of Scotland was so great,

that they stopt payment on the 19th September, and ordered their notes to bear interest from that date. About 1500 men, under the command of Brigadier M'Intosh, were conducted over the Forth in open boats, with so much art and address as to land in East Lothian safely, and without interruption from the armed vessels which cruized along the coast to obstruct their passage. M'Intosh, with his troops, took possession of Seaton house in East Lothian. They marched towards Edinburgh; but found it so well guarded and fortified as to make it imprudent to risk an assault: upon which they repaired to Leith, and fortified the citadel. The Duke of Argyle marched with his forces, intending to dislodge them; but being unprovided with cannon, he was obliged to desist from his attempt. He threatened to return reinforced with artillery; and the rebels thought proper to evacuate the citadel. Six thousand troops, which had been demanded from the states of Scotland, soon arrived at Edinburgh to support government. After some trifling rencounters at different parts of the country, this rebellion languished and expired. Edinburgh.

The next remarkable occurrence in Edinburgh was the celebrated mob, or rather conspiracy, which put to death John Porteous, captain of the city guard, in 1736. The discontents occasioned by the union, and by the violation of the hereditary succession to the crown, were not yet entirely extinguished; and these were chiefly kept up by the extension to Scotland of the English revenue laws. Some smuggled goods had been seized and lodged in the king's warehouses: two of the smugglers afterwards, during the night, broke into the warehouse, and carried off their own goods, but without touching any other article. Being apprehended, they were tried and convicted, and sentence of death was pronounced against them for this offence; which appeared to the populace of a very venial nature. At that The Porteous mob.

Edinburgh. time, it was customary on Sundays to convey prisoners under sentence of death to an adjoining church, to attend divine service. While there, with a guard soldier on each side of them, one of the smugglers suddenly started up and sprung from the guard. His companion, whose name was Wilson, instantly seized the two guard soldiers, and held them fast till his associate, who was favoured by the congregation, made his escape. Wilson was conveyed back to prison; and, on the day appointed, was executed in the Grass-market. On that occasion, some boys pelted the executioner with stones; a thing at that time very usual on these occasions. Captain Porteous hastily and intemperately ordered the city guard to fire upon the spectators: but the soldiers, unwilling to do mischief, fired over the heads of the populace. Their enraged officer, however, obliged them to level their pieces, and to fire right among the crowd; of whom six were killed and eleven dangerously wounded. In consequence of this act, Captain Porteous was tried for murder and condemned. Queen Caroline, who was at that time regent during the king's absence in Hanover, granted to the criminal a reprieve for six weeks. It was now recollected, that on a variety of similar occasions, those who had committed the greatest crimes, ostensibly in the service of government, had been accustomed in Scotland to receive the royal countenance and protection, while at all times the criminal records had been swelled with prosecutions of rioters, carried on at the expence of the crown. It was generally believed, that when the day appointed for the execution of Captain Porteous should arrive, a new reprieve, or rather a pardon, would make its appearance. It was even rumoured, that on the morning of that day he was to be conducted for greater safety to the castle under a guard.

A sort of conspiracy appears, on this occasion, to have

been entered into among the lower orders of the people to prevent the escape of Porteous. One of the persons present, and who assisted in putting Porteous to death, gave the following account of the transaction many years afterwards. He resided in the upper part of Lanarkshire, and had a relation killed by the fire of the town guard. On the day preceding that of Porteous's death, a whisper went through the country, upon what information or authority this person knew not, that on the succeeding evening an attempt was to be made at Edinburgh to put Captain Porteous to death. To avenge the blood of his relation, he accounted himself bound in duty to share the risk of the attempt, because he understood that the power of government was to be exerted to prevent justice from being done. On the following day, therefore, he proceeded on foot to Edinburgh, and stopt till towards the evening in the suburb called the West Port, which he found crowded with country people; all of whom, however, appeared to keep aloof from each other, so that there was no conversation about the cause of their assembling. At a later hour, he found the inferior sort of inns in the Grass-market full of people, and saw many persons, apparently strangers, lurking in the different lanes. About eleven at night, which at that period was a very late hour, the streets became crowded with men; parties of whom silently run to and fro, and, as he understood, seized upon the city guard, and secured the gates, to prevent the entrance of the military quartered in the suburbs. Thereafter the greater part of the crowd proceeded to the prison; the door of which they burnt open by setting fire to a barrel of tar which they rolled close to it. Having entered the prison, they dismissed the whole prisoners excepting Porteous, whom they threatened with death. In the meanwhile an attempt was made by some gentlemen (the magistrates and the mem-

Edinburgh.

Edinburgh. ber of parliament for the city, Mr Lindsay) to prevail with the mob to desist from their undertaking; but the gentlemen were driven off, Porteous was dragged out of the prison, and led along to the ordinary place of execution in the Grass-market. As the multitude descended along with him down the West Bow, some of the mob knocked at the door of a shop and demanded ropes. A woman, apparently a maid-servant, thrust a coil of ropes out of the window without opening the door of the shop. A person wearing a white apron, which seemed to be used for disguise, gave in return a piece of gold as the price of the ropes. Having arrived at the Grass-market, they cast the rope over a dyer's post near the place of execution. Here some dispute occurred among the mob, whether any time should be allowed to the prisoner to address himself in prayer to God as a preparation for eternity. Some of the populace contended that he was entitled to no such indulgence, on account of the sudden manner in which he himself had sent others out of the world, to make their appearance before the great judge of the quick and the dead. A short period was at last allowed to this unhappy man to spend in devotion, within a circle formed by the surrounding multitude. He was also permitted to deliver to a person known to him some money and other articles, which he wished to send to his relations. After which he was immediately hung up on the dyer's post; and after waiting a few minutes, till his life appeared gone, the multitude suddenly, and with the utmost quietness, dispersed.

Effort to avenge the death of Portcous.

Information of this outrage was received at court with the utmost indignation. It was there represented as a premeditated insult on government. Several expresses were dispatched to his Majesty, then at Hanover. A pardon was promised to offenders if they would discover their accomplices, and also a reward of L. 200 for each person so

apprehended and convicted; and it was resolved to make the city feel the weight of ministerial vengeance. Edinburgh.

The lord provost of Edinburgh was taken into custody, and was not admitted to bail till after nearly three weeks of confinement. He was commanded to attend the House of Lords, along with the four bailies of Edinburgh. Three of the lords of justiciary were likewise commanded to attend. A bill was brought in for disabling Alexander Wilson, Esq. lord provost of Edinburgh, from holding any magistracy, for confining him to close custody for a year, for abolishing the city guard, and taking down the city gates. This bill passed the House of Lords, notwithstanding the vigorous opposition of the Duke of Argyle and others. In the House of Commons, however, it was differently treated. The clauses against the lord provost, for abolishing the city guard, and taking down the gates, were left out; and instead of them, a fine of L. 2000, to be granted to Porteous's widow, was imposed upon the city. Even as thus amended, it was only carried by the casting vote of the chairman of the committee of the whole house.

It is a remarkable circumstance, and gives a singular view of the character of the Scottish nation, and of that respect for public opinion and for personal reputation for which they are distinguished, that no discovery was ever made of any individual engaged in this conspiracy, notwithstanding the high reward offered to informers, and the multitude of persons engaged in the transaction. It is obvious, that the parties concerned must have considered themselves as acting justly, and the country at large must have been of the same opinion.

The next event of public importance that occurred in the city was in the year 1745, when the unfortunate Prince Charles Edward attempted, by the assistance of a handful Rebellion in 1745.

Edinburgh. of Highlanders, to take possession of the throne of his ancestors. The town-council having been informed, in a letter from one of the secretaries of state, that a scheme existed to invade these kingdoms by the eldest son of the pretender, they assured his Majesty of their fidelity in a loyal address; and upon information of his being landed in the north, they prepared for a vigorous defence of the city. The city guard was augmented to one hundred and twenty-six men; the trained bands were ordered to be in readiness at the shortest warning; application was made to his Majesty, and leave granted, to raise and maintain by subscription 1000 men, who were to be under the direction of the lord provost and council; a part of the king's forces were brought into the neighbourhood of the city; its walls were ordered to be repaired, ditches to be thrown up; and inn-keepers and others who let lodgings were required to give exact lists of the strangers residing in their houses.

On the 13th of September, the young pretender, with his small Highland army of less than 2000 men, crossed the Forth a few miles to the westward of Stirling. Advice of this event being received at Edinburgh, all was in a state of hurry and confusion; the cash of the two banks, the books of the public offices, and the most valuable effects of many private citizens, were removed to the castle of Edinburgh for security; the city guard, together with those enlisted in the city's regiment, were ordered to repair at the first notice to a particular place of rendezvous. Nine companies of volunteers had also been formed; and these, with about 200 men from the county of Midlothian, were appointed to be in readiness. On the 15th of September, news arrived that the advanced guard of the rebel army had arrived at Linlithgow, and that Gardiner's regiment of dragoons was retreating before them. Gar-

diner's regiment, together with another regiment of dra- Edinburgh.
goons, both Irish, having taken post at Coltbridge, a mile to the westward of Edinburgh, the city's regiment, with the town guard, was sent out to join them, in the hope of arresting the progress of the Highlanders; but on the approach of the latter, the two regiments of dragoons were seen in full retreat passing along the north side of the city, where the New Town now stands. This spectacle, together with the flight of the most considerable inhabitants, spread a panic throughout the city. The volunteers, after some intriguing, agreed to disperse themselves; and a meeting of the inhabitants was called in an aisle of St Giles's church, to deliberate about the measures to be adopted. A message from the pretender was received, requiring a surrender of the town. A deputation was sent to the rebel camp to negotiate for the safety of the city. Nothing was agreed upon; and the deputation was sent back from the city, to endeavour to obtain more favourable terms. The deputation returned; and while they were reporting the answer they had received to the assembled inhabitants, by which an immediate surrender was required, the hackney coach in which they had travelled was returning about four o'clock in the morning of the 17th of September to the dwelling of its owner in the Canongate. The Nether Bow Port was opened to allow the carriage to pass; and at that instant, without noise or tumult, 800 Highlanders, under Cameron of Lochiel, rushed The city
in, marched along the street, dismissed and discharged the taken.
city guard, and took peaceable possession of the whole city. On the same day the rebel army arrived at the king's park; and Prince Charles took possession of the palace of Holyroodhouse. The rebel army observed tolerable discipline; but some contributions were levied upon the city, though to no great amount. The regular camp of

Edinburgh. the Highlanders was established at Duddingston; from whence they marched, on the 20th of September, to attack a regular army, superior to themselves in number, at Prestonpans. Though totally undisciplined and half armed, they gained a complete victory, which they did not abuse. No hostilities occurred between them and the castle of Edinburgh till the 25th of the same month of September; when the garrison having been alarmed by some noise among the rocks, probably from goats scrambling there, the castle guns were fired upon the Highland guard at the West Port. This induced Prince Charles to cut off the intercourse between the city and castle. The latter had been so scantily stored with provisions, in consequence of the negligence of government, that the governor of the castle feared that he might speedily be reduced to surrender by famine. This produced some negotiation, in which the governor of the castle threatened to fire upon the city, if his communication with it should be suspended. This threat was executed. A severe cannonading against the city was commenced, which filled all quarters with terror and tumult. After a number of persons had been killed and wounded, and some houses set on fire, and others damaged, Prince Charles had the humanity to remove the prohibition of holding intercourse with the castle, for the sake of saving the city and its inhabitants. He left Edinburgh on the 31st of October, and marched for England. In his retreat he did not return by Edinburgh; so that this city suffered no farther inconvenience from the rebellion.

The castle fires on the city.

As the election of the magistrates of Edinburgh had not taken place at the usual period, the royal permission was granted, upon a petition from the citizens, for a poll election by the burgesses; which took place accordingly. Archibald Stuart, Esq. who had been lord provost of the

city of Edinburgh when the rebels entered it, was brought to trial before the court of justiciary for malversation in office; but, after a long trial of six days, he was acquitted by the jury. A statute was passed, abolishing the whole hereditary or feudal jurisdictions which formerly belonged to the great nobility and landholders of Scotland, and transferring them to the royal courts; a circumstance of most essential importance to the great source of national prosperity, the fair administration of justice. At the same time, government betrayed its terror of the Highlanders, by prohibiting the use of the dress or garb which had been worn by the Caledonians from the earliest ages, and which alone they knew how to manufacture. Edinburgh.

From this period, the history of Edinburgh fortunately amounts to nothing more than a history of the various improvements which have taken place, and of the edifices which have been reared in this city; of which we have already given a concise description. The city gates, or ports as they were called, which were proposed to be demolished as a punishment inflicted on the city for the death of Captain Porteous, have all been long since removed by the magistrates as an inconvenient obstruction to the intercourse of one part of the city with the rest. Within the last forty years, the city has encreased to more than double its former extent; and it is annually augmenting in its dimensions, as well as improving in the quality of its buildings.

COUNTY.

WE next proceed to give an account of the SHIRE or COUNTY of EDINBURGH, as distinguished from the CITY.

THE county of Edinburgh, or Midlothian, which contains 360 square miles, or 230,400 English acres, may in general be considered as consisting of an inclined plane or hanging level, descending towards the Frith of Forth on the north, or rather on the north-east. Its waters flow in a direction chiefly from south-west to north-east, excepting at the south-eastern part of it, where Gala water, which rises in this county, descends southward towards the Tweed. The north-western part of the county is in general an arable and fertile territory. The southern part of Midlothian is in general bounded by a high, cold, or mountainous tract. On the eastern part of this boundary are the hills of Lammermuir and Muirfoot. On the south-western part is Carnwath muir, and a part of the Pentland hills. The latter, at their eastern extremity, advance into the very center of the county, where they terminate abruptly within less than five miles of Edinburgh, which they may be said to overlook. The hill of Caerketan-craig, the most northerly and the nearest to Edinburgh of the Pentland hills, is 1450 feet above the level of the sea; and the hill of Capelaw, situated to the westward of it, may be about 100 feet higher. The Logan house hill, lying still further west in the range, and the highest of the Pentland hills, was found, by geometrical mensuration, and by repeated barometical observations, to be 1700 feet above the level of the sea at Leith, which is only 60 feet less than one-third of a measured mile. The southern hills, at the boun-

dary of this county, are some of them still more lofty. It contains likewise scattered over it several hills of moderate size, particularly those of Arthur seat and Corstorphine hills, already mentioned. In general, however, Midlothian is considered in Scotland as a plain or flat country, though it is by no means, properly speaking, level. The only part of it which can at all deserve that appellation is that to the westward of Edinburgh castle, proceeding into Linlithgowshire. But, even in this direction, the level country is at no place of great breadth from north to south, without being interrupted by ridges or eminences. To the eastward of Edinburgh, the inland territory is agreeably variegated, by being formed at the distance of every two or three miles into ridges, in a direction from south to north, the whole of which are well cultivated. Each ridge, proceeding to the east, is more lofty than the former, till they terminate in the hills of Lammermuir. Towards the north, that is, upon the coast, the face of the country is rich and beautiful; but on receding from the sea, it gradually loses that aspect, and the mountains are bleak, naked, and barren on the south and south-west. Waters.

The waters belonging to this county are of no importance from their magnitude, but they are rendered interesting by the beautiful scenery exhibited almost every where upon their steep woody banks. The most westerly of them is that denominated the water of Amond; which in a great part of its course forms in that direction the boundary of the county. It rises in the high grounds on the borders of Lanarkshire; and being fed by a great number of small streams or torrents, it falls into the sea, after a north-easterly course, at the village of Cramond, where, at high water, it is navigable by boats and sloops for about a quarter of a mile. In the greater part of its length, it runs through a country that is rich and beautiful, and in Waters. Amond.

Waters. general level, affording much interesting scenery. On both sides of the river Almond, but especially on the southern banks from Livingston to its confluenoe with the sea below Kirkliston, which is a space of at least 14 or 15 miles, there have been found many skeletons of the human body remaining in stone coffins. It appears that the Almond was considered as an important pass, and, on some extraordinary occasion, was obstinately defended by two contending armies. It is believed, however, that no authentic documents exist, from which the date of the contest alluded to can be ascertained. It may have happened when the Saxons drove the natives to the north side of the Forth; or when the Picts and Scots were at war; or when Malcolm, the general heir of the Scottish crown, was attacked by the Emperor Constantine the Fourth. It may also be remarked, that the banks of this river are at one place described as the scene in former times of the punishment of the witches of Calder. Here the unhappy persons, accused of this imaginary crime, are said to have been burned by our barbarous ancestors.

Water of Leith. The next stream of any note is called the Water of Leith. It is to be observed, that the term *water* is in Scotland usually applied to every stream that is considerably above the size of a rivulet; the term *burn* is in our dialect applied to streams of a lesser magnitude. The distinction between a burn and a water is not correctly marked; a burn is sometimes large enough to be used for moving corn mills, while, on the other hand, the term water is applied, as in the case of the Water of Leith, to torrents, which, during the summer months at least, are little more than sufficient fot that purpose. The Water of Leith takes its rise in the western extremity of the parish of Currie, on the north side of the Pentland hills, at a place called Leith Head, from three large springs, which receive

various additions in their progress: after a course of nearly sixteen miles, it runs into the sea at Leith. As already mentioned, there is upon its banks much of that romantic scenery for which the small rivers in Scotland are remarkable. They usually run at one time in deep narrow glens, amidst rocks and hanging woods; and, at another, through small level fields called *haughs*, fertile in corn and grass. This small stream probably does more work than any other of its size in Scotland. There are upon it forty-six mills for grinding oat-meal, barley, and flour; and, in addition to these, there are lint mills, wauk mills, snuff mills, saw mills, and other machines moved by water, to the amount of between seventy and eighty. Waters.

After two small intervening streams, which fall into the sea at Figgat and Maitland Bridge, and which receive only the appellation of *burns*, the next water of any importance is that denominated the *Esk*, which enters the Frith of Forth near Musselburgh. The term Esk is not an uncommon name for rivers in Scotland, and is said to signify a water in the Gaelic tongue. There are here two streams that receive this appellation; the north and south Esk, which unite their waters within the duke of Buccleugh's park, and flow into the sea two miles below in the parish of Inveresk. Both of them have beautiful wooded banks, adorned with splendid villas of the nobility or gentry. But the north Esk is the most celebrated. It rises on the southern side of Pentland hills above Newhall, about fourteen miles from Edinburgh, and passes by Pennycuik, Roslin castle, Hauthorndean, and Melville castle, to Dalkeith house. Its banks are not only uncommonly romantic and beautiful, but they are a sort of classic ground. About the middle of its course, it receives a stream called *Glenarose burn*, which rises like itself in the Pentland hills; and proceeding southward falls into the south Esk, which, like Esk.

Waters. the rest of the waters of this county, has a north-east direction.

Scene of the Gentle Shepherd. There is a dispute among our Scottish amateurs, whether the upper part of Glencross burn, or the upper part of the south Esk, near Newhall, forms the scene of the celebrated Scottish pastoral, Ramsay's Gentle Shepherd. The late Lord Justice Clerk, Rae, was a most strenuous advocate for the opinion, that the neighbourhood of Newhall is the proper scene of the Gentle Shepherd. He founded his opinion in a great degree upon the circumstance of Ramsay's residence there, and upon the following remark of Mr Tytler, in his edition of King James's poems: "While I passed my infancy," says Mr Tytler, "at Newhall, near Pentland hills, *where the sc* *f this pastoral poem were laid*, the seat of Mr Forbes, and the resort of many of the literati; at that time I well remember to have heard Ramsay recite, as his own production, different scenes of the Gentle Shepherd, particularly the *two first*, before it was printed. I believe my honourable friend, Sir James Clerk of Pennycuik, where Ramsay frequently resided, and who, I know, is possessed of several original poems composed by him, can give the same testimony. *P. S.* The above note was shown to Sir James Clerk, and had his approbation." Accordingly, adjoining to Newhall, scenery is found which is thought to resemble Habbie's How, and whatever else is described in the Gentle Shepherd.

On the other hand, it is certain, that the public opinion places the scene of the Gentle Shepherd in a much more retired situation, in the very center of the Pentland hills, upon Glencross burn; to which, on this account, visits are very frequently paid. The following remarks upon the subject are made in the Statistical Account of the parish of Glencross: "There is certainly a very strict coinci-

dence between the actual scenery of this part of the country and the local circumstances mentioned in the poem. The general description of the scene, as given at the beginning of the pastoral, is, A shepherd's village and fields, some few miles from Edinburgh. The West Port, mentioned in the first scene as the road from the village to market, fixes the bearing of the country to the vicinity of the Pentland hills. The first scene is, Waters.

"Beneath the south side of a craigy bield,
"Where chrystal springs the halesome waters yield;

And the second is,

"A flowry hown, between twa verdant braes,
"A [illegible]ng burnie wimpling thro' the ground."

"No description could more exactly characterise the scenery in the neighbourhood of Woodhouselee and Boghall burns. A romantic fall at the head of Glencross water is termed at this day *Habbie's How*. The ancient tower of Fulford, or Woodhouselee, repaired immediately after the civil wars, and formerly the mansion-house of a knight, may well countenance the supposition of Ramsay's having here fixed the imaginary residence of Sir William Worthy. After all, however, this appropriation must be allowed to be entirely conjectural, and to rest more upon fancy, pleasing itself in clothing its own pictures in the garb of reality, than upon any basis of evidence. This at least may certainly be affirmed, that if the poet intended at all to appropriate the scenery of his pastoral farther than to the general aspect of the country in the neighbourhood of the Pentland hills, there are no actual scenes which so perfectly correspond to his description as those in the neighbourhood of Woodhouselee."

It appears to us very probable, that the spot here allu-

Waters

ded to owes, in a considerable degree, its reputation of being the scene of the Gentle Shepherd, to this circumstance, that towards the upper part of the glen a small stream of water descends into it from the west, from a precipice or rock of about twenty feet in height. At the summit of the rock, which is inaccessible on each side of the water-fall, or *lin* as it is called in the Scottish dialect, are two stunted birch trees; and beneath, the water spreads into a small bason or pool. This arrangement corresponds with the description in the poem,

> Between twa birks, out o'er a little lin,
> The water fa's, and maks a singan din;
> A pool breast-deep, beneath as clear as glass,
> Kisses, with easy whirles, the bord'ring grass.

At the same time, when the Editor of this Work, a few years ago, with some friends, visited the spot, he made enquiry at some country people whom he found cutting grass at no great distance beneath the water-fall, whether Habbie's How was in that neighbourhood? But, to the no small mortification of the whole party, who had gone thither upon a pedestrian poetical pilgrimage, it was found that these rustics had never heard of any such place. There is no doubt, therefore, that the term Habbie's How in the Gentle Shepherd is altogether imaginary; and it is extremely probable that the general scenery is so too; with this exception, that it seems to refer to the tract of the Pentland hills. The importance of the Gentle Shepherd, as containing a correct description of the manners and sentiments, and a fair specimen of the language of the common people of the south of Scotland, will afford a sufficient apology for these remarks. The glen itself, along which Glencross burn or water flows, is no small curiosity, and is not unworthy of being visited by travellers. It is se-

veral miles in length, and crosses the whole range of the Pentland hills. It is within about eight miles of the Scottish capital, and can be conveniently passed on horseback. The traveller proceeds along a narrow winding valley, containing a stream of water, and hemmed in by mountains, which rise on each hand to a prodigious height. At the lower part, it contains a stratum of barytes, the heaviest of all the mineral productions, the metals only excepted. Agriculture

The south Esk is scarcely less beautiful than the north Esk; and has upon its banks, Arniston, Dalhousie, and Newbattle, all belonging to very eminent Scottish families.

To the south-east of the county, the territory becomes very elevated, and the waters from the same neighbourhood flow partly northward towards the Frith of Forth, and partly southward to the Tweed.

The soil of the county is extremely various. Upon the mountains it is only fit to be used as pasture for sheep. Some of the mountains are covered with heath, and others of very considerable height are green to the summit. It is a general rule here with regard to the arable land adjoining to the base of any tract of hills, that the soil on the northern declivity is greatly superior to that upon the south. Thus the lands on the north side of the Pentland hills are far more valuable than those upon the south side; and thus also the whole of the Lothians, which have a northern exposure, are more valuable than the lands of the opposite coast of Fife, which are favoured with the more direct rays of the sun. The soil of the arable territory of such an extensive district as Midlothian, must necessarily be very various. Excepting, however, upon the sea-shore, from the eastern extremity of the county to Leith, where it is light and sandy, it seems to be a general rule, that a clay soil or stiff bottom predominates. To- Agriculture. Soil.

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wards the hills, there is a considerable proportion of muir or mossy soil. Some peculiarities also occur in certain districts, which are not unworthy of being noticed. In the parish of Corstorphine, to the westward of Edinburgh, there is a considerable tract of very flat land, which is subject to the inconvenience of suffering greatly from falls of rain occurring early in harvest. To drain those grounds, and thus to subject them completely to culture by the plough, has at different periods been a considerable object of attention to the proprietors. So great and inconvenient was the accumulation of waters on these grounds in former times, that in the century before the last, it was made an object of parliamentary inquiry; and in 1661, an act of parliament was passed, enjoining a strict attention to the clearing, every two years, what was called the great drain, and empowering every one interested in it to compel the others, through whose lands it passed, to clear their part. The inconvenience from the superabundance of stagnated waters has in fact been removed; for so considerable was it, that the Lords Forrester of Corstorphine were accustomed to bring their provisions from Edinburgh by water carriage in a boat from Coltbridge to their house at Corstorphine, where there are the remains of a very considerable moat or ditch for holding water. But while this evil has been removed, the chief object, *viz.* to bring the lands into a state of perfect culture, has not been altogether accomplished. By being brought only into a sort of middle state, a material loss has been sustained. These grounds formerly produced very heavy crops of grass and aquatic plants; and, before the introduction of broad clover, were the chief supply of the Edinburgh markets for green food for cattle; whereas, after they were imperfectly drained, they lost this advantage, without becoming excellent arable lands.

Flat soil near Corstorphine.

In the parish of Duddingston, in the immediate neighbourhood of the metropolis, the lands of Prestonfield are said to have been the first that were improved in the county. The proprietor of that estate was lord provost of Edinburgh about the time of the revolution in 1688. At that period the fulzie, or sweepings, and manure from the streets of the city, were so little valued, or rather the proper use of it was so little understood, that instead of drawing a revenue from it, a considerable sum was paid to some of the farmers in the neighbourhood for removing it. The then proprietor of Prestonfield, Sir John Dick, availed himself of the opportunity to enrich his estate. He undertook to empty or to scour the streets; and he applied the manure thus obtained to improve the lands of Prestonfield. These he laid down in the most favourable conditions, enclosed, and subdivided. And as it is believed that these were the first inclosed lands in the vicinity of Edinburgh, so it is certain they were the first improved. As they are besides the oldest, so they are still esteemed the best grass pastures about the city, or perhaps any where in Scotland.

Agriculture. Prestonfield inclosures.

The agriculture of this county may be considered as of three sorts: that of the territory within a few miles of the capital; that of the rich lands at a distance from the capital; and that of the cold and muir land districts adjoining to the hills.

In the neighbourhood of the capital a peculiar sort of culture prevails, not applicable to the rest of the country. In modern and improved agriculture, one of the principal sources of expence, and to which a large capital is requisite, is the preparation of manure for restoring the exhausted fertility of the soil. Hence it becomes necessary to devote a large portion of every farm to the production of food, not for man but for cattle; and to purchase at a

Culture near the city.

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high price, at the commencement of the winter, a great number of cattle to consume that food; which they repay in two ways: *first*, by their own increased value; and, *secondly*, by the manure which they produce for enriching the farm. But in the neighbourhood of a great city the whole of this expensive and laborious process is avoided. Manure is procured from the stables of horses, which are there kept as objects of luxury, and also from the streets and other repositories of these unsightly sources of fertility. In such a neighbourhood, accordingly, large portions of land are not devoted to the production of turnips, cabbages, or other crops, intended to be consumed by cattle upon the farm. In proportion as the agriculture of the county has improved, the value of manure obtained from the city has augmented. In the year 1730, the manure of the streets of Edinburgh sold at twopence *per* cart; but it has since risen to ten or twelve times that price, though in most cases it is let by extensive contracts, so that the price is not ascertained. It is to be observed, that the use of town manure, though apparently very convenient, is nevertheless attended with some disadvantages. It is a source of much labour and expence, on account of the carriage, and the tear and wear or waste necessarily produced upon the carts and harness of horses, and of the horses themselves, which are continually upon the road in all weathers. By producing a temptation to increase the quantity of white, and to diminish that of green crops, a sort of forcing system of agriculture is introduced, and the land is apt to be brought into a foul state. This is perhaps increased by the quantity of seeds of different sorts gathered up in the streets of a town, and restored to the land with the manure. It is certain at least, that the fields in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh exhibit a prodigious abundance of the annual plants called *sicklics*, in all their va-

rieties of wild mustard, wild raddish, &c. which gives them in summer an aspect of the brightest yellow; and when a field is left in fallow, it is speedily covered with a rich and flourishing crop of these sort of weeds, which must often be cut down with the scythe, on account of the impossibility of completely covering them under furrow by means of the plough. In such a case, however, the farmer enjoys some consolation from reflecting, that, in the way now mentioned, a green crop to be ploughed in is very easily obtained. Agriculture

The prevailing crops are, hay, wheat, barley, oats, beans, peas, potatoes, summer tares, clover, and rye grass. The sowing of bear is entirely abandoned. There is very little flax cultivated, and no rye. Turnips are chiefly raised with a view to their being sold to the cow-feeders, who supply the city with milk. Cabbages or coleworts are only raised in the most sparing quantities. The root baga, or Swedish turnip, gradually gains ground. There is but little white clover sown; there being but little ground laid down for pasture. Crops.

Hay is a favourite crop with the farmers; because it never fails to find a ready market in Edinburgh, and because it is easily reaped. It is formed of rye grass mixed chiefly with red clover seed, and sown with the preceding crop, whether it consist of wheat, barley, or oats. The rye grass has of late years greatly degenerated. It was formerly perennial; but it is now never trusted, and would be trusted in vain, during a second year. It is usually allowed to ripen its seed before it is cut down; so that the second crop during the same year consists almost entirely of clover. Notwithstanding the partiality entertained here for a hay crop, it seldom entirely succeeds. In the month of May, cold easterly winds very frequently set in for some weeks, and blast its growth; or an unsteady climate is apt Hay.

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to prevent its being properly reaped. But such accidents are not extremely injurious to the practical farmer. This bulky commodity cannot easily be conveyed from a distance, so as to produce that cheapness which results from great competition in the market. The effect of a bad season, therefore, is to augment the price very greatly in proportion to the scarcity of the commodity. Hence the farmer, as he has always some crop, is amply indemnified for any deficiency of quantity by the increased value of what he actually possesses.

Wheat, &c.

Wheat is accounted the most profitable produce; and much land, naturally very unfit for wheat, is, by the aid of the Edinburgh dung, employed successfully in raising that grain. The dung is usually appropriated to the wheat crop, or to potatoes when they are used as a preparation for it. The wheat is used also after summer fallow, or beans and pease, or after a crop of hay. Beans and peas singly, or mixt together, are raised in considerable quantities. On the light land the beans are sown in drills, and regularly horse-hoed; which is considered as a most advantageous preparation for wheat. Oats and barley are also reared in large quantities; but the heavy duties upon malt threaten to render this last grain very unprofitable, as it has been found by experience, that Scottish barley never can be made to rival in quality that which is produced in England, so far as concerns the conversion of it to malt. To ascertain this point with precision, government have lately directed experiments to be made upon a large scale, at the public expence, by two chemists and the professor of agriculture at Edinburgh.

Potatoes.

Potatoes form an important and valuable crop; both profitable on account of the facility of disposing of them in Edinburgh, and as an excellent preparation for wheat. The fields of them are very extensive. As they are an

impoverishing or scourging crop, they are forced by means of the city dung; but the quantity of dung used must be sufficient for enabling the soil to give forth two crops, one of potatoes and another of wheat. This dung the potato crop alone is expected amply to pay, and over and above to afford a considerable profit. If it did not do so, the farmer would prefer on all occasions the use of summer fallow. Potatoes are here entirely cultivated by the plough, and are regularly horse-hoed. They are also taken out of the ground by means of the plough; a great multitude of women and children being collected for the purpose of gathering the crop. Thus in a short time the produce of extensive fields is brought home. They are usually preserved during the winter by being buried, either in pits, where the soil is very dry, or by being covered with a mound of earth, over which a corn stack is sometimes built. In any of these ways, they are found to be sufficiently secure from the frost. The amount of this crop is very various in different situations. In very favourable seasons and soils, the Scottish acre sometimes produces from 50 to 70 bolls, and even upwards. It must be observed, however, that 787 Scottish acres are equal to 1000 English; and the boll of potatoes consists of sixteen pecks, each peck weighing 28 pounds avoirdupois. The kidney potato, of a long shape, with a red spot at one end, and bearing a white flower, was for some time a favourite with the farmers, on account of the abundant crops which it produced; and it still is much relished by consumers on account of its dry or mealy quality: But the farmers now refuse to cultivate it, notwithstanding its prolific character and good quality; because it produces very little haulm or few leaves; in consequence of which, during the summer, the soil where it grows is left exposed to the action of the sun and air, which is accounted injurious to its

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fertility. It would seem in some cases to be a law of nature, that when plants produce a large root, they do not at the same time augment proportionably at the summit of the stem. If the pine apple is planted in a large pot, it has a large root and a small stem. Hence the gardeners place the young plants in small penny pots, to augment the size of the fruit.

Rotation.

No absolutely fixed rotation of crops prevails in this district. The following is not unfrequent: 1*st*, Fallow without dung, or potatoes with dung, where the ground is light or dry; 2*d*, Wheat; 3d, Beans dunged, drilled on light land, broad cast on the heavy; 4*th*, Wheat; 5*th*, Barley; 6*th*, Clover and rye grass; 7*th*, Oats; 8*th*, Fallow or potatoes with dung. It must be remarked, that the practice daily gains ground of sowing wheat upon clover ley.

Implements.

Of the implements of husbandry, it may be remarked, that the small chain plough is chiefly used with two horses, and without a driver. The horses used both for the plough and cart are chiefly of the Lanark and Linlithgowshire breed, which are valued for their moderate size and quick step. One horse carts are much used. It is understood that one horse draws twelve hundred weight in a cart with greater ease than two horses, the one yoked before the other, can draw a load of sixteen hundred weight; so that this last mode of using horses is accounted extremely thriftless. The heavy wagons, with several horses a-head of each other, which of late have appeared here in the military service of government, are considered in Scotland as very clumsy contrivances. Oxen are no where employed. They are unfit for the draught upon our hard roads; and on well cultivated lands, where the soil is pulverised like a garden, and where the draught of the plough requires only a very moderate force, their

sluggish pace would seem altogether intolerable to persons accustomed to the quick and active movements of horses. Indeed, as *time* is the most valuable of all objects to persons engaged in any active employment, it would be a most unprofitable project to substitute the tedious efforts of the ox to the activity and dispatch obtained by the use of the horse.—In reaping grain, the sickle is the only instrument employed; and great numbers of men and women come annually to engage in that sort of employment from remote corners of the Highlands. It may be remarked, that every farmer has a threshing machine, and also a wind instrument, denominated *fanners*, for cleaning his grain from chaff. Agriculture.

In the fertile lands, at some distance from the capital, dairy farms, supported by the beneficial mixture of pasture and ploughed lands, are not uncommon. In this case, the whole dung of the farm is generally laid out upon the wheat crop or division; and summer-fallows are still in use as a preparation for wheat. The succeeding crop is usually beans and peas, followed by a crop of barley or oats. With these grass-seeds are sown; after which the land is kept some years in pasture, when it is afterwards broken up with oats, when abundance of dung can be procured. Potatoes are considerably valued on account of the ready market which the great population here affords. Turnips are also everywhere used, particularly as the distance from Edinburgh augments. Drilled beans and clover ley gain ground as preparations for wheat. Culture farther from Edinburgh.

Towards the hills the climate becomes cold, and the soil proportionably ungrateful. In this country, the effect of a high and exposed situation upon the climate is extremely remarkable. A few miles of ascent produces in many places almost as many weeks of difference in the essential point of an early or of a late harvest. In the Near the hills.

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muir-land parishes, however, by the force of inclosing, and by means of manure, cultivation is rapidly ascending the high grounds, particularly towards the south-western extremity of the county. In these more exposed situations, the following rotation upon cattle farms is successful: 1*st*, Turnips, eaten by cattle and sheep in a close for making dung; 2*d*, Barley or oats; 3*d*, Clover, fed down early with sheep and lambs, afterwards cut for hay in the end of summer; 4*th*, Oats; 5*th*, Turnips, &c. This rotation supposes a high and exposed gravelly soil unfit for the production of wheat; for wherever that valuable grain can possibly be reared, there exists a great eagerness to obtain it. In all places where the soil is tolerably light, it is becoming common to plough down clover ley in a pretty rough state as a most advantageous preparation for wheat.

On the high grounds or muir-land parishes, it is thought that the farmers are still too much attached to the use of the plough. In such districts, in the climate of Scotland, all crops of grain are precarious; and the most advantageous mode of using such lands undoubtedly consists of using the plough, for no other purpose than that of laying them down to grass in the most advantageous state, by means of the manure which the turnip husbandry affords. Periodically, indeed, recourse must be had to the plough, on account of the tendency to run into fog or moss, which occurs in pastures upon exposed situations, where even the spreading of lime upon the surface, though the most approved remedy, does not entirely destroy that weed.

Wood, &c.

In ancient times, Scotland has evidently been every where covered with wood, as is demonstrated from the remains of native timber found still preserved in mosses in lofty situations, where the land has been found sufficiently level to enable water to stagnate, and the moss plants to grow up. It would seem that the tops of those hills which

are of moderate height had been first cleared; and accordingly, upon these, the marks of ridges are to this day perfectly visible. In such situations, at present, it would be a vain attempt to rear any sort of artificial crops; and their growth, in former ages, can only be explained by the supposition, that at a time when the surrounding low country was covered with timber, and even the peaks of the highest mountains were not altogether naked, such places might enjoy sufficient shelter to enable them to produce a crop of oats, which are an extremely hardy grain. At the first clearing of the country, also, the flat tops of the hills being enriched by the mould produced by the falling of the leaves of the trees of the forests during a succession of ages, the soil might exhibit a very different aspect from what it now does, after having remained for centuries unsheltered, and washed to a state of utter sterility by the pelting of the winds and the rains of our northern climate. The forests were considered as an evil in former ages, in two points of view: *First*, as impeding the use of the plough, and injuring the pasture; and, *secondly*, as affording, in these barbarous times, a retreat for great bands of outlaws and robbers. It was therefore thought that we could never have too little of them. The consequence was, that the bleak winds, sweeping furiously from the sides of the mountains, now rendered naked, made the country cold and sterile, nipt the food of the cattle and the fruits of the labour of the husbandman. Accordingly, in the present times, great efforts are making to repair the mischief by inclosures and plantations. The expence of these operations is the chief obstacle, and this obstacle is increased by the strict nature of the Scottish entails; in consequence of which a great proportion of the territory of the country is held, not in property, but by a sort of liferent tenure, which greatly discourages

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sive improvements; partly because new men, possessed of capital, cannot be introduced; and partly because the possessor of an estate can usually hand it down to his own children only in the event of his leaving male issue, and has no power of disposal.

Plantations.

The lower part of the county of Midlothian abounds perhaps fully as much in timber and plantations of every sort as any district devoted chiefly to the plough ought to do. In the eastern parts of the county, the banks, both of the North and South Esk, abound in extensive and beautiful plantations around the seats of the nobility and gentry upon the banks of these waters. In the western part of the county, also, there are large tracts of valuable plantations, comprehending the extensive pleasure grounds of Addiston, Ratho, Dalmahoy, Hatton, and Bonington. To the south-west of these, Calder wood, which was anciently a large forest, is still of considerable extent, consisting chiefly of oaks, birches, Scots firs, and larches.

Altogether, it is probable that about 5000 acres are planted with forest trees in this county. The quantity of natural wood is trifling, consisting chiefly of some stripes

Great trees.

along the banks of the different waters. In favourable situations, the forest trees increase in this county to a very considerable size; of which the following examples are noticed in the Statistical Account of Scotland. Between Calder house, the seat of Lord Torphichen, and the village of Midcalder, at the top of the passage which leads by the side of the church-yard, there is a single plain tree. The trunk of it is 14 feet high; the circumference of the thickest part, 18 feet; and the branches spread themselves out at least 30 feet on either side. On the whole, it has a grand as well as ancient appearance.

At Upper Cranston stands a venerable green holly, with too evident marks of old age and decay. It measures

$7\frac{1}{4}$ feet in circumference, or 2 feet 4.64 inches in diameter; and where it divides into branches, the trunk is no more than 7 feet high. At Caick muir there is a thriving beech, 16 feet round, or 5 feet 1.11 inches in diameter; and at Prestonhall, another 15 feet round, or 4 feet 9.29 inches in diameter. These trees, from their near situation to the mansion-houses, seem to have been planted at first in the garden ground; to which circumstance we must in some measure ascribe the great size they now exhibit. Agriculture

In the park around Newbattle abbey, the seat of the Marquis of Lothian, upon the South Esk, are many single trees which make a venerable and majestic appearance. One of them, a beech, at a yard above the ground measures 19 feet in circumference; the distance between the tips of its extreme branches is 108 feet; its trunk, before it begins to spread, rises to the height of 22 feet; and it contains, including its principal limbs, 710 cubic feet of wood: and yet this tree does not exceed the dimensions of many others in the parks. All of them, in their proper season, put forth a close and vigorous foliage; nor can any thing but a climate and soil the most favourable account for their rising and spreading to such a size.

A silver fir at Woodhouselee, in the parish of Glencross, perhaps the oldest of its species in the county, was long admired for its beauty as well as size. It was planted in a dry soil in a garden about the first of the last century. In March 1759, at 4 feet above the ground, it measured 7 feet $4\frac{3}{4}$ inches in circumference. In March 1793, at the same height, it measured 11 feet $1\frac{4}{5}$ inches. During these 33 years it therefore increased in circumference 45 inches. Its greatest growth was in the year 1760, when it increased precisely 2 inches. During all the other years its increase in circumference was from 1 inch to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch annually. This fine tree, however, is now upon the

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decay. It is ascertained, from other instances, that the age of the silver fir is limited in this country to within a century. It is in its greatest perfection when about 80 years old; and if placed in a proper situation, it is capable, during all that period, of increasing upon an average above a cubic foot of wood annually. From some full grown trees of this kind, lately felled in the south of Scotland, it appeared that timber is more valuable and useful than has generally been supposed.

About the year 1700, there had also been planted at Woodhouselee, and at Greenlaw in the same parish, a considerable number of laburnums. Some of them were cut in the year 1762, and afforded a plank from 10 to 14 inches in breadth of very beautiful timber. At both places these trees grew in a high part of the country, in a meagre soil, and in an exposed situation. When they came to be worked into furniture, a remarkable difference appeared in the quality of their wood, compared to that of laburnums of the same age which grew at Panmure in Forfarshire, in a rich soil, and in a low and sheltered situation. Carved work in the Panmure laburnum was executed by the cabinet-maker with the ordinary tools; but in the Woodhouselee and Greenlaw laburnum, it required the assistance of steel files, from the greater closeness and hardness of the wood.

General agricultural character.

Upon the whole, it may be remarked, with regard to the soil of this county and its management, that a very active spirit of improvement everywhere prevails. The farmers form a most respectable and well-educated body of men. They hold the rank of gentlemen, and are generally in affluent circumstances. In former times, in Scotland, when the soil was ill cultivated, and in miserable order, and the farmers a needy class of persons, one or two ill crops in succession reduced them to absolute beg-

gary, and brought to ruin the agriculture of the country, such as it was. Little benefit was derived from the next good season; because the frosted or half-rotten grain of the former year was used for seed, as the poverty of the farmers disabled them from sending to a distance for seed of a better quality. Thus while the population of the country at large was much inferior to what it now is, a train of bad seasons was productive of more severe scarcity, and far more cruel distress. Times are now much altered; the soil being kept in heart, or rich, and in good order, by superior agriculture, resists powerfully the effect of an unfavourable season, and produces at least a half crop or more. What is now accounted a half crop, would anciently in bad, and even in tolerably good seasons, have been thought unexampled fertility. For this half, or rather two-thirds of a crop, the farmer draws in a bad season three prices; and thus becoming rich by the very means which reduced his predecessors to ruin, he is enabled at all times to preserve his lands in the best order, and to sow them with the best seed. By his augmented capital, he is also enabled to offer to neighbouring gentlemen a high rent, on condition of receiving permission to break up for a time the whole or a part of the old pastures near their mansion-houses, in which a treasure of fertility has been gradually accumulated. The temptation is usually effectual; and thus the evils attending bad seasons are greatly diminished. The remaining relief is supplied by an extended commerce. It may be observed in passing, that too much care cannot be exerted in any country, to make provision that the cultivators of the soil shall be well-educated men, in affluent circumstances. It is well known that no trade or manufacture can be successfully conducted by men destitute of credit or of capital. The same rule holds true with regard to this most important of all employments. At a distance

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Wealthy farmers important to a country.

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from towns, even the expence of producing manure, by buying in and feeding a great stock of cattle, is alone sufficient to occupy a very large capital; and it is now well understood, that in proportion to the quantity of cattle thus kept on a certain extent of soil, for the purpose of renovating its fertility, may the perfection to which the art of agriculture has attained in a district be fairly estimated. This demonstrates the absolute necessity of an unpopular practice, that of uniting several small into one large farm, which, during the last half-century, has been greatly practised in this and other counties in Scotland. The remarks of Arthur Young, Esq. in justification of the practice, are worthy of attention. "Let me demand," says that enlightened agriculturist, "of the advocates for small farms, where the little farmer is to be found, who will cover his whole farm with marl at the rate of 100 or 150 tons *per* acre; who will drain all his lands at the expence of L. 2 or L. 3 *per* acre; who will pay a heavy price for the manure of towns, and convey it thirty miles by land carriage; who will float his meadows at the expence of L. 5 *per* acre; who, to improve the breed of his sheep, will give 1000 guineas for the use of a single *ram* for a single season; who will give 25 guineas *per* cow for being covered by a fine bull; who will send across the kingdom to distant provinces for new implements, and for men to use them; who employ and pay men for residing in provinces where practices are found which they want to introduce on their farms? At the very mention of such exertions, common in England, what mind can be so perversely framed as to imagine for a single moment, that such things are to be effected by little farmers? Deduct from agriculture all the practices that have made it flourishing in this island, and you have precisely the management of small farms*."

* Travels into France, Vol. I.

All farms here, as in the rest of Scotland, are let at rack-rent, or the highest possible annuity that can be obtained; though, when every thing else is equal, a preference is given to the preceding tenant or his family. This at least is done by those proprietors who reside during a part of the year upon their estates, and who almost uniformly enjoy a good understanding with their tenants. The usual endurance of leases is nineteen years, though they are sometimes extended for a valuable consideration to a longer period. On estates that are very strictly entailed, leases are not permitted beyond thirty-two years. Many Scottish gentlemen adopt a mode of letting their farms, which commercial men, in disposing of their commodities, would account scarcely consistent with fair or honourable dealing, and which is rarely, though sometimes, adopted in Midlothian. They advertise in the newspapers, that a particular farm is to be let, and they desire that offers of rent may be transmitted to them, engaging to conceal the amount of these offers. Thus the landlord avoids putting any value upon his farm, as a merchant would be thought bound to do upon his goods; and at the same time a roup is constituted, in which none of the bidders know the amount of each other's offer, and are therefore led to hazard as high offers as possible, that they may not lose the object of competition. A case is said to have occurred, though not in this county, in which a man, who had formed a great predilection for a property of which his ancestors had been tenants for some centuries, offered so high for a lease, that he exceeded all his competitors to the extent of L. 200 per annum. Still, however, it must not be supposed that the high rent of farms is ultimately an evil; on the contrary, it has contributed greatly to the improvement of agriculture, and has even exalted the rank, the personal independence, and the respectability of farmers. It was a maxim of the celebrated Dutch

Agriculture.

Mode of letting farms.

Agriculture

statesman De Wit, that a people are enriched by being gradually compelled to pay additional taxes. They are thus stimulated to higher exertions of skill and industry. These enable them not merely to pay their additional burdens, but to accumulate a large surplus profit. Nothing is more common in Scotland, than to see one farmer almost starving upon a property for which he pays a very trifling rent; while, at the end of his lease, another shall give more than twice the rent for the same farm, and shall rapidly become wealthy upon it. The high rents paid for farms bring matters to such a state, that none but men possessed at once of activity, intelligence, and considerable capital, can possibly conduct the employment of agriculture. At the same time, as such men know their own value, that they owe every thing to their own industry, and nothing to the favour of their landlords, (who prefer the man that pays them best), they are led to assume an independence of character, which, beforehand, could not have been expected in men living on the property of another.

Peculiar processes.

No peculiar agricultural processes exist here that are worthy of notice. Flooding land with water has been tried on one or two spots with success; but the few waters of Midlothian cannot be spared from the use of machinery; and their situation, amidst steep declivities, would in no circumstances render them valuable for watering land artificially. A stream that carries down towards the bay of Musselburgh much of the rain water that washes the streets of Edinburgh, has within these few years been very successfully employed for irrigation, and has converted a tract of waste blowing sand upon the sea-shore into valuable meadow. The same stream between this spot and the city is in various places conducted into spacious pools or basons; through which, by flowing slowly, it deposits large quantities of sediment, which is found to be a valu-

able manure, and is annually removed at the end of summer, after the current of the stream has for some time been turned aside to permit the sediment to become dry. Agriculture.

Much land in the vicinity of Edinburgh is devoted to gardening, to supply the city with vegetables for the table. In former times these were produced almost exclusively upon the sharp sandy soil in the neighbourhood of Musselburgh. Near Edinburgh, also, there are extensive nurseries for rearing fruit and forest trees, to supply a part of the numerous plantations, especially of the latter, which are now carrying on upon the high grounds in Scotland. Gardens.

The larger fruits, such as apples, pears, &c. are not considered upon the east coast of Scotland as a kind of produce which can at all be relied on; the cold easterly winds, and the spring frosts, very frequently destroying all the hope of a crop. At the same time, these fruits are very juicy, and are better suited for the pastry cook, that is, for baking, than English apples, which are accounted too dry and meally. The small fruits, such as gooseberries, strawberries, currants, &c. are here cultivated in vast abundance, and are accounted of excellent quality and flavour, far superior to what is found in climates that enjoy a larger portion of the sun's rays. The extensive culture of strawberries is said to have been first introduced upon the sandy banks of the North Esk from Roslin downwards. It is understood that the gardener has not a surer or more profitable crop. They are less injured by our unsteady and wet seasons than other fruits; they never indeed fail altogether, as is sometimes the case with regard to the larger fruits.

The western parts of this county to the northward of the Pentland hills are deficient in coal. In different places, however, abundance of lime-stone, iron-stone, and sand-stone, usually termed *free stone*, are found. The Minerals.

Minerals. Pentlands, and other large mountains, consist of different sorts of basaltic stone or whin-stone, granite, and other strata, which are usually termed *primitive rocks*, whereas the other fossils occupy the valley. The eastern division of this county contains one of the most extensive and rich fields of coal that is any where to be found. It extends from the sea-shore at Musselburgh, on both sides of the north Esk, about 15 miles inland to the head of that stream at the Carlips on the confines of Tweedale. The secondary strata, consisting of coal, lime-stone, iron-stone, free-stone, and clays of great variety, entirely occupy this extensive tract of country to the mountains on each side; and the secondary strata are said to remain uninterrupted or broken by any great mass of granite or basaltic stone, that is, whin-stone. On approaching the mountains, the secondary strata, as it were, overlap the whin-stone, and in some places ascend the mountain a little way before they are entirely cut off. The seams of coal that have been discovered are very numerous, amounting in some places to twenty-six in number below each other. It is worthy of notice, that the great beds or strata of coal, which here exist in the bowels of the earth, resemble in their position or inclination, in some degree, the upper surface of the soil. From the two rivers called the Esk, the country ascends on both sides for some miles. The valley, which near their junction forms the bed of these streams, and thereafter the valley of the North Esk, appears to be in general the centre of the coal-field; and here the beds or seams, or strata of coal, repose in a level or horizontal position: but on each side of this valley, they ascend below ground in the same manner as the country does at the surface; and it is only by this ascent of the country that they are prevented from speedily terminating at the open day. The strata near the Esk are termed *flat* seams of coal; and those at a dis-

Great coal field.

Position of the coal.

tance receive the appellation of *edge* seams, from their descending, or almost upright position in the earth. As the surface of the soil is frequently unequal, and no where descends with so much rapidity and regularity as the strata of coal beneath, the edge seams are wrought with considerable difficulty, on account of their speedily running to a great depth. Many of the strata however are extremely valuable, the seams being some of them seven, nine, and fifteen feet in thickness. They are usually cleared of water by powerful steam engines erected at a great expence. One of these, belonging to the Duke of Buccleugh, with all its appurtenances and adjoining buildings, is said to have cost nearly L. 5000. It is upon the old plan, (not Watt's) with a cylinder of about five feet in diameter, and furnished with boilers, consisting of vast metallic chambers of an oblong form, with roofs concave like the cover of a trunk. The boilers have double fires, with flues underneath. Minerals.

The coal, however, is variously wrought in different situations. In the parish of Lasswade, on the north-west side of the North Esk, the metal, that is, the coal, stands so much on edge as to form in some places an angle of sixty-five degrees with the horizon. In other quarters of the coal-field, the metals are said to be nearly perpendicular. At Loanhead, a cross mine from the river rendered it possible to work them to the depth of ninety yards from the grass. In this quarter, an impregnation of the waters of the mines with alum has lately proved a source of no small inconvenience, by corroding the metallic pumps, and even attacking the steam-engine. Modes of working the coal.

In the lower part of this great field of minerals, near the sea, the different proprietors have sometimes had serious law-suits on account of an interference of interests. On one occasion, a proprietor having opened a work upon the Disputes of proprietors.

Minerals. lower part of a bed of coal, found, that in draining his own work, he was under the necessity of draining also the works of an adjoining proprietor, who was the owner of the upper part of the same stratum or bed of coal; because, from the porous nature of this mineral, water finds its way to a great distance through it, or along the metals adjoining to it. That he might not labour or employ his steam-engine in his neighbour's service, the inferior proprietor put down pits at the march or upper boundary of his property, and proceeded to remove the coal, and fill up its place with a bed of stiff clay, artificially placed there, through which water could not penetrate. The upper proprietor contended against this measure, that as, by the law of Scotland upon the surface of the soil, an inferior proprietor is bound to suffer rain or river water to flow in its accustomed manner from the land of his neighbour who possesses the upper property; so the same rule ought to hold in the bowels of the earth, and the water ought to be left to itself, or allowed to descend downward without any artificial impediment. The courts of law were puzzled; and at first were of opinion, that the analogy between water flowing above and below ground ought to be adhered to; but it was afterwards adjudged, that the cases were different, and that the inferior proprietor had a right to plug up or obstruct the current of water below ground for his own protection, if he was able to do so, because the upper proprietor would be left in no worse situation than if no coal-pit had ever been opened or wrought upon the lower part of the seam or stratum.

It is to be observed, that in this quarter a drain of uncommon extent, for clearing of water a part of the field of coal-field, was at one time accomplished by an enterprising individual, nearly forty years ago, Mr Biggar of Woolmet. This gentleman opened a level or mine from

the sea, and carried it through the estates of Duddingston, Niddry, and part of Edmonstone, up to Woolmet bank, a distance of about three miles; it drained the upper coal-works, but ultimately almost drowned the inferior ones. Minerals.

It is certain that some part of the extensive field of coal upon the Esk has been wrought for two centuries back, and how much longer is not known. Of the original discovery and use of mineral coal we have little knowledge. There is said to be abundance of mineral coal in the neighbourhood of Constantinople; but we have no reason to suppose that the Greeks or Romans made any use of this material. As they have left no description of it, there seems every reason to believe that it was unknown to them. Their poets and other writers constantly speak of wood as used for fuel, but say nothing of mineral coal. Indeed, it does not appear possible, that if a substance of such value was once known and used, it could ever have sunk into oblivion. The writers, however, of the middle ages, speak of it as a substance of a singular and strange nature. It would seem to have been discovered in this country at a more early period than in the rest of Europe. Æneas Sylvius, who afterwards assumed the purple under the name of Pius the Second, visited this island about the middle of the fifteenth century. He relates, that he saw in Scotland "the poor people, who in rags begged at the churches, receive for alms pieces of stone, with which they went away contented. This species of stone (says he), whether with sulphur, or whatever inflammable substance it may be impregnated, they burn *in place of wood*, of which their country is destitute." And Boetius, in his description of Scotland, his native country, written in the beginning of the 15th century, says, "There are black stones also digged out of the ground, which are very good for firing; and such is their intolerable heat, that they resolve

Coal, when discovered.

Unknown to the Greeks and Romans.

Minerals. and melt iron, and therefore are very profitable for smiths, and such artificers as deal with other metals; neither are they found any where else (that I know of) than between the Tay and Tyne, within the whole island."

Coal early used in China. In China, where almost every art hitherto cultivated in the western world appears to have existed in some form or other during a long succession of ages, it is probable, that the discovery and use of mineral coal is of considerable antiquity. The great population of that empire, together with the very valuable porcelain vessels which they produce, demonstrate uncommon superiority, or at least great experience, in the two valuable arts of agriculture and mineralogy. The well-known Venetian traveller, Marco Polo, who, in the thirteenth century, travelled to China through the vast desarts of High Tartary, observes, in his description of China, "That through the whole province of Cathay, certain *black stones* are dug out of the mountains, which, being put in the fire, burn *like wood*, and when kindled they continue burning a long time; insomuch, that if they are lighted in the evening, the fire will keep alive during the whole night. Many use *these stones* although they have plenty of wood, the consumption of fuel in stoves being very great."—Nothing can more clearly demonstrate the ignorance of the Europeans concerning the use of coal at the distance of a few centuries than the similarity of the language employed upon the subject by Marco Polo, Æneas Sylvius, and Boetius. They have no name whereby to denominate this mineral, and evidently describe it as a substance to which they are strangers.

When used in Britain. Coal does not appear to have been discovered, or at least to have been used, in Scotland in the middle of the twelfth century. In the ancient laws of the boroughs, (leges burgorum), enacted about the year 1140, privi-

leges are granted to those who bring fuel into boroughs; but no mention is made of coal, although wood, turf, and peats are particularly noticed. In the year 1234, Henry the Third of England renews a charter which his father had given to the inhabitants of Newcastle; and in this renovated charter he grants, upon their supplication, to the persons in whose favour the charter was conceived, licence to dig coals upon payment of L. 100 a-year; which is the earliest mention made of coal in the island. By the end of the thirteenth century, the use of coal was so much advanced, that it was frequently brought by sea-carriage from one port to another: But the first mention that is made of coal, in any charter in Scotland, is in a grant executed A. D. 1291, in favour of the abbot and convent of Dunfermline, of the privilege of digging coal in the lands of Pittencrieff, in the county of Fife. Even when wood became very scarce, at the distance of several centuries after the discovery of coal, the manner of working it was extremely rude, the progress of the use of it slow, and its extent limited. The statutes enacted by the Scottish parliament, and the patents granted by our kings, display their ignorance in working coal; they set forth strongly its decay, and guard anxiously its preservation. In the beginning of the sixteenth century, coal smoke was deemed very pernicious; and even in the end of it, the use of coal in making of iron was hardly known in Scotland. Notwithstanding the vicinity of the great field of coal already described upon the waters of Esk, coal was so far from being the sort of fuel universally employed in Edinburgh, that in the year 1584 great stacks or piles of heather, broom, whins, and other fuel, were erected in the different closes and wynds, or lanes, for the use of the inhabitants, in the same manner that in the remote villages in which peats are used, a great stack of them is still seen standing

Minerals.

Minerals. opposite to the door of every house. One of these piles of fuel in Edinburgh was set on fire in the night; whether intentionally or casually, is unknown, but it greatly alarmed the whole citizens, and served to demonstrate to them the dangerous nature of the practice. The town-council immediately issued an order for removing those piles of fuel to the side of the North Loch, and other waste grounds around the city.

Slavery of Colliers. After all the other inhabitants of Scotland had attained to the possession of personal liberty, that is, after the abolition of the barbarous law of villanage, by which the proprietors of the soil were accounted proprietors of the persons who laboured upon it, a remnant of this law still remained in the case of colliers, and of manufacturers of salt from sea-water, from their connection with coal-works. The character of indolence and ignorance, which a state of personal slavery never fails to stamp upon the minds of those placed in it, served in all probability to retard the progress of the art of working mineral coal. It was not till the present reign that the legislature interfered to abolish this remnant of ancient barbarism. A circumstance, however, which proves how difficult it is, by the mere force of power or of legislative authority, to accomplish even the most rational changes in the ordinary practice of human affairs, is this: That hitherto the acquisition of freedom has tended only in a very small degree to ameliorate the character or condition of this class of men. When the proprietors of coal mines could no longer, by dint of jurisdiction, compel their workmen to remain in their service upon the footing of a right of property in their persons, they set about devising new modes of subjugating them, or of fixing them to the spot where they had previously laboured. The devices which were adopted have unhappily been such as ruined the morals of this body of labourers; while at the same time

Minerals.

they have on different occasions greatly interrupted the public supply of that which has now become an article of the first necessity. From the time when the colliers were emancipated by the interposition of the legislature from the state of villanage, by which, like the *adscriptitii glebae* of feudal tyranny, they had been chained for life to the soil upon which they had been born, some conductors of coal-works, for a long period, discovered no better methods of binding them to their service than by enticing them to plunge themselves irrecoverably into debt. They were in many cases attempted to be seduced from their former masters by more enterprizing or less scrupulous employers. The debts contracted in the work which they were to leave were paid, and a premium superadded, which they were tempted, like the infatuated raw recruit, to spend in immediate intemperance. More money was often injudiciously lent them, in the vain hope that the deeper they were involved in debt to their new masters, the more closely would they be incited to labour, and the longer they should be constrained to remain at their new task. But instead of this, the men, as a policy a little less shallow might easily have foreseen in such cases, became dispirited at the view of the debts in which they had been so hastily, and often on their own part so unintentionally, plunged; and at last, despairing ever to discharge them, they sunk into obstinate indolence, despondence, or profligacy; or they fairly run off from the work, and repaired, by stealth, to some new contractor, who, though aware of their obnoxious condition, winked at the trick; and when discovered, perhaps paid the fatal debt, and ensured the repetition of the same fraudulent retribution against himself. Hence it has frequently happened, either from the stubbornness of despair, the relish for bribes and indulgences, and the habitual taste for extravagance, so imprudently fos-

Minerals. tered, that the men get into their rebellious moods, and refuse to work without some new bribe, or perhaps unless their wages be permanently raised in proportion to the increase of price to which their masters may have chosen to raise the coal itself. After all, the improving state of the country is the great source of the mischief: the demand for coal is increasing faster than workmen can be found to supply that demand; a circumstance which tempts adventurers, in this branch of business, to make very imprudent exertions for the purpose of obtaining workmen.

As an appendage to some of the coal-works adjoining to Musselburgh bay, salt is manufactured by the evaporation of sea-water. Salt thus prepared is always inferior in quality for curing fish, or any salted provisions, to that which is brought from the English salt mines near Liverpool, probably on account of the leisurely evaporation which there takes place; in consequence of which the salt is allowed to form itself into very large crystals. The operation of making salt from sea-water, notwithstanding the vicinity of the coal pits, and the cheapness of the small coal or dross consumed in the salt furnaces, is so expensive, that should government either remove altogether the tax upon salt, or even equalize it throughout Scotland and England, and allow a free transference of this necessary of life from the one country to the other, no more Scottish salt would be prepared from sea-water; and as no salt mines or springs have hitherto been discovered in this country, English salt would alone be made use of.

Lime. We have said, that lime-stone is found in abundance in various quarters of the county, both in the eastern and western parts of it. In the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, lime is chiefly used for architecture, the town dung being generally supposed to supersede the necessity of employing it in agriculture. The great lime quarry or mine which

is wrought at Gilmerton, in the parish of Libberton, be- Minerals.
tween three and four miles from Edinburgh, is a singular Gilmerton
object well worthy of being visited. The mine or quarry Quarry.
is nearly a mile in length, and every where open to the light of day. The bed or stratum of limestone descends rapidly into the bowels of the earth, or rests in an inclined position like the coal and other mineral strata in that neighbourhood. On descending into this mine, we find ourselves on a shelving declivity, with abundance of beaten paths among the fragments of limestone rock which have been left upon the floor. Over head is a roof, consisting of a bed of solid rock, which is every where supported by pillars of limestone which have been left for that purpose. As the roof is of considerable height, and the openings which form the entrance to the mine are large, there is abundance of light; which however gradually diminishes in proportion to the descent towards the bottom of the mine, at which there is a pool of water. The light does not entirely fail in any greater degree than to give a dull and sublime obscurity to the aspect of the place. Instead of proceeding to any great depth, it has been found more profitable to dig out the limestone lengthwise, keeping always near the surface, and thereby producing a long cut or chasm, which advances obliquely up the side of a long ridge or hill. Hence the inquisitive spectator has an opportunity of making a long excursion under ground, without losing the light of day. To those who wish to obtain a general idea of the nature of the operations carried on in mines, and of the way in which the beds of mineral strata rest between each other, and are removed by human art, no better plan can be adopted than to visit the excavations now alluded to. It can be done with little trouble, and without the unpleasant sentiments which, to an unexperienced person, usually attend

Minerals. the descent by a bucket into a coal-pit, together with the dirtiness and obscurity which necessarily prevail there. To the lovers of curious, or even perhaps of picturesque objects, these works will appear worthy of attention, from the feelings excited on entering into their vast caverns, and from the novelty and peculiarity of their nature.

Free-stone Quarries. Even the stone quarries in the vicinity of Edinburgh are objects of some curiosity. That of Craigleith is within less than a mile and a half of the New Town of Edinburgh. It is a vast open excavation or bason cut out of the end of a hill, the whole of which to the top consists of excellent white free-stone, the blocks or beds of which are of great depth without any fissure or natural rent. The effort of vast power and perseverance, obviously necessary to tear up and remove the immense quantities of solid rock, which in its natural state must have filled this great excavation, renders it a very sublime object when first seen by a stranger. Another very great free-stone quarry, but of a different appearance, is that of Hailes, about three miles to the westward of Edinburgh castle. It is in a level country, and consists of a long narrow chasm, or artificial cut, of considerable depth into the earth. On one side is seen a perpendicular face of wall of free stone, and on the opposite side of the chasm are the fragments or waste, which in this quarry are so great, that being negligently cast backwards, they fill up the cavity out of which the stone meant for use had been taken. The stone of this quarry is of a different sort from that of Craigleith. It is easily wrought, being in thin natural plates or layers, with beds of softer stone or rubbish between the plates. The hard stone is used for laying the extensive side-pavement of the streets of Edinburgh, and also for the stairs of houses. The quarry is cleared of rain water by a very simple machine, moved by a rill or extremely trifling rivulet

that passes it. The water of this rill is made to flow into buckets placed around the extremity of a large wheel: while a bucket is filling, the wheel stands still; when the bucket is full, the wheel makes between a quarter and a half turn, so as to empty the bucket. In making this turn, it gives a stroke to a pump communicating with the quarry, and thus brings up a quantity of water, which, to aid the effect of the rivulet, is made to flow into it. In the meanwhile another bucket upon the wheel is filled and emptied, and another stroke of the pump is given. In heavy rains, which tend to fill the quarry with water, the rivulet is at the same time swelled, and turns the wheel and works the pump rapidly and incessantly; and thus the work performed is at all times proportioned to the necessity that exists for it. At Craigleith, the quarry is kept clear of water by a pump, moved by a horse going in a gin. Minerals.

This county is not absolutely destitute of the more precious minerals. At the head of the North Esk, on the south side of the Pentland hills at Carlips, on the borders of Tweedale, lead was in former times found, from which silver was extracted. The different spots where the mines were formerly put down, are to this day distinguished by appellations descriptive of the mineral obtained there. One place is called the Lead Flats, another is called Leadlawhill; and the excavations in general are still called by the inhabitants the *siller* (silver) *holes*. In the parish of Currie also a vein of copper has been found. Attempts were made to work it, but it was found not to be sufficiently rich to repay the cost. Lead, Silver, &c.

As connected with the mineralogy of the district, an instance may be mentioned, which occurred at the south eastern extremity of the county in the parish of Stow, of a movement of a spot of ground on the 30th July 1735. The former part of the season being exceedingly warm and Moving Mosa.

Minerals. dry, there was a great storm of thunder, with hail and rain. At Wedderlaw, a hill in Over-shiels ground, three miles up Lugate water, the shepherd, sitting at a small distance, observed the face of the hill begin to move. The whole flock of sheep being gathered on that spot in consequence of the thunder, he immediately sent his dog to drive them off. By this means the greater part were saved, though some went with the break or piece of land, which was carried down to Gala, and a great quantity of the moss as far as Galashiels, which is reported to have served the poor people in that village for peats the following winter.

In the parish of Inveresk is a curiosity, which is thus mentioned by Maitland in his History of Edinburgh:—

Routing Well. "About three miles south-eastward from Edinburgh is situated Monktown (vulgarly Mountain), so denominated from a priory of monks anciently there. At this place is a very great curiosity, denominated the *routing well*, which is a draw well in the yard of the mansion-house, the area whereof, from the mouth to the water, is about 35 feet; and is so called from certain noises it makes preceding a storm, sometimes resembling the beating of a coppersmith's largest hammers, then a noise like a shower of hail falling into water; and at other times, by a violent bubbling, raises the water above a foot higher than its natural level."

The reverend Dr Carlyle, in his account of the parish of Inveresk, endeavours to explain this phenomenon, by saying, "that this well being dug many fathoms deep through a rock, in order to get below the strata of coal that abound in the field, it communicates through the coal-rooms that are wrought with other shafts, which occasions a rumbling noise, that does not *precede*, but accompanies a high wind." Maitland endeavours to account for

it, by supposing the noise to be occasioned by the united action of air and water. Minerals.

In consequence of the abundance of free-stone, and the sulphur usually accompanying it, in all parts of the county, there are frequent instances of springs attended with a mineral impregnation. We have already mentioned that of St Bernard's Well near Edinburgh; and in other places to the westward, similar instances occur, but weaker. In the parish of Midcalder, on the estate of Letham, there is a spring of sulphureous water. It does not appear to be different from other fountains of that kind. Like the waters of Harrowgate, and other sulphureous springs, it has been found to be beneficial in various diseases, but more especially in cases of scrophula and gravel. Mineral Waters.

In the parish of Cramond, on the lands of Marchfield, is a spring of mineral water, called the *well of spaw*, reckoned beneficial in scorbutic cases, and highly purgative when taken in quantities. At Corstorphine, the waters of a mineral spring were once in high repute, on account of their supposed medicinal virtues; but for many years they have been totally neglected. It is said, that in attempting to cut a drain in the neighbourhood, the source of the water was tapped, and the impregnated stream dried up.

In the southern part of the county there are several chalybeate springs. On the south side of the North Esk, among the woods opposite to the Spittal hill, is a clear well of a bitterish taste, supposed to have both an emetic and cathartic quality. It is resorted to by the common people for bowel complaints, faintings, disorders in the blood, cancers, &c.; and of course is said to have performed many wonderful cures. On the slope of a hill on the south side of the same river, opposite to the west end of the Spittal hill, is another spring of a strong petrefying

Minerals. quality. Where it oozes out of the ground, it has a white appearance, and is seen at a considerable distance on the Linton road.

At St Catharine's, in the parish of Liberton, is a spring, the water of which is covered with a film of petroleum or mineral oil. However frequently this film is removed, it still returns. The spring is called the *balm well of St Catharine*. It was much frequented in ancient times, and considered as a sovereign remedy for several cutaneous distempers. It owes its origin, it is said, to the following miracle. St Catharine had a commission from St Margaret, consort of Malcolm Canmore, to bring a quantity of oil from mount Sinai. In this very place she happened, by some accident or other, to lose a few drops of it; and on her earnest supplication the well appeared as just now described. When King James the Sixth was in Scotland in 1617, he went to visit it, and ordered that it should be fenced in with stones from bottom to top; and that a door and staircase should be made for it, that people might have the more easy access to the oily substances, which float always above, and which were deemed of so much importance. The royal command being immediately obeyed, the well was greatly adorned, and continued so until the year 1650, when Cromwell's soldiers not only defaced it, but almost totally destroyed it. It was repaired, indeed, after the restoration; but it did not appear to such advantage as before. Adjoining to the well a chapel was erected, and dedicated to St Margaret. St Catharine was buried in the chapel, which was pulled down during the late century. It is said by the country people, that the person who pulled it down was ever afterwards unprosperous in all his affairs and undertakings.

On the sea-shore, about half a mile above Newhaven, between the high and low water marks, a considerable

stream or very strong spring of salt water is seen constantly issuing from the earth, or from a crevice in the rocks, during the time of low water, or in the absence of the tide. Very sanguine hopes were lately entertained by some persons that this might prove a natural salt spring, from which salt might be profitably manufactured, as the want of manufactures, or objects of exportation, subjects the trade of Leith to great incoveniences; and as salt is an important object of American trade, it was hoped that this spring, either in itself, or as leading to a vein of natural salt, might prove extensively useful. Unfortunately, however, there is every reason to believe that these expectations will not be realized. The water of the spring does no doubt seem to be somewhat purer than that of the adjoining Frith; but it does not appear to be more strongly impregnated with salt. The whole seems to be the result of the same sort of operations which have produced the *routing well* above mentioned. Adjoining to this spot, coal was anciently found and wrought; and the coal rooms, or space emptied by bringing up that mineral, undoubtedly still remain. The probability is, that the waters of the sea find their way, when the tide is at flood, into the coal rooms, through the chink or aperture which forms the salt spring; and that they continue to rush out again during the absence of the tide. As the sea at high water rises at least six or seven feet above the level of the spring, this explanation will appear sufficiently probable, though the old coal workings should not be supposed of any unusual extent. Minerals.

This county has nothing peculiar with regard to its wild animals, which are not different from those found in the rest of the island. They consist of foxes, hares, a few rabbits, ermines, weasles, moles, rats, common and shrew mice, adders, scaly lizards, the common lizard, toads, Animals.

Animals. frogs, &c. Bats are seen fluttering giddily about in the evenings. At times are seen, ascending the country, gulls from the Frith; also, overhead, wild swans and geese. On the small lakes is the wallard, teal, colymbus auritus, one of the dobechicks; on the streams, the heron, water tail, water ouzel, landpeper, and wagtails; on the marshes, the snipe, the woodcock in winter, the red sparrow, the marsh tit-mouse; on the rocks, the ring ouzel, which has a few shrill plaintive notes, and very much the appearance and manner of a blackbird, and the stone-chatter; on the moors are grouse (one of these being almost shot to pieces, its stomach was found entirely filled with white moths, which are very common among long heath), curlews, lapwings, and grey plovers; on the fields, the hen-harrier, partridges, landrails, sky larks, corn buntings, snow buntings, field fares, mountain finches, and the goat-sucker or night swallow; in the hedges, common and hedge sparrows; in the woods, the buzzard, sparrow hawk, jay, magpie, crow, ringdove, and the cukow, the crossbill (attracted by the cones of the spruce, the plates of which, to get at the seed, are found in numbers folded back with great dexterity), the bullfinch, sterling, thrush, blackbird, redbreast, linnet, all the finches and titmice, including the blue and the long tailed one, also a very small and beautiful bird, the creeper, like a little mouse running up the trees for insects, the yellow, common, and golden-crested wrens; the swallows about the houses in summer and in the woods; at nights, the owl, horned and smooth. The red squirrel (*sciurus vulgaris rufus* of Linnæus) has become extremely common of late years upon the banks of the Esk, and the woods everywhere abound with them. Though a beautiful animal, they are destructive of the small birds by devouring their eggs, and are certainly injurious to young planting by cropping and barking the

tender shoots. The larch tree suffers particularly from this animal. Animals

In the year 1749, when the coal was worked at Newhall, in the parish of Pennycuick, it was remarked that the colliers houses, and other cottages in which nothing was burnt but coal, abounded with bugs. In the neighbourhood of that coal there was plenty of peat moss; and there, as it happens in other parts of Scotland, many of the cottagers chose rather to use peat than coal for their fuel. In those houses in which peat only was burnt, the bug never appeared, though they were immediately adjacent to houses where coal was burnt, and in which the insect prevailed. Bugs.

In the year 1759, when the coal was worked in Glencross moor, and at Goukly moss in that parish, the same thing was observed. The houses of the lower people who only used coal were infested with bugs, while those in which peat and turf served as the only fuel were entirely free.

The burning of peat in Edinburgh came to be a sort of receipt against bugs, though it does not appear to be of much avail. If peat smoke is at all a remedy against them, it appears only to be so where no other fuel is used but peat, and where the smoke is at liberty, as is usually the case where peat is burnt, to pervade the whole house.

It is indeed remarkable, that the bug prevails only in those towns and parts of Scotland where coal is burnt; and that it is unknown in the towns and districts where peat and turf are the only fuel. Some towns and villages of this kind, though they have always had much communication with Edinburgh and Glasgow, by means of goods, furniture, and apparel, still remain uninfested with bugs. This would insinuate that they possess some antidote against these vermin. This antidote probably consists

Villages. of a penetrating volatile oil contained in the smoke of peat, and which gives an impregnation to malt dried with peat that is not lost by the process of fermentation, but on the contrary comes over in distillation, and communicates its peculiar flavour to the Highland whisky.

Villages, Manufactures, &c. In the north-western part of the county, which is entirely agricultural, the villages are few and trifling; consisting, in general, only of a small hamlet, with one or two hundred inhabitants in each parish. The most remarkable of them are, Midcalder, Corstorphine, and Cramond.

Corstorphine. The former of these is pleasantly situated near the Amond, in a country adorned with much wood, and almost entirely enclosed, or divided into fields of moderate extent with stone walls, or by hedges and ditches. Corstorphine is supposed to have derived its name from the circumstance of a golden cross having been presented to the church by some French nobleman. *Croix d'or fin*; and hence Corstorphine. Others derive it from Gaelic words signifying steps through a wet place; a circumstance expressive of its situation, as it stands at the extremity of a morass, and in low wet ground. It is chiefly worthy of notice on account of a peculiar preparation of milk which has from time immemorial been brought from thence to the Edinburgh market under the appellation of *Corstorphine cream*.

Corstorphine cream This preparation of milk is very ancient, and probably originated among the Tartars, by whom it was made of mare's milk, and denominated *kowmiss*. What is called Corstorphine cream around Edinburgh, is in the rest of Scotland termed *batted kit*. It is prepared in several ways; but the simplest is the following: A quantity of churned or butter milk, of good quality, is set aside in a wooden barrel or other vessel. After some time an extrication of air or a process of fermentation commences. The thick part of the milk rises to the

top, and is separated from the whey, which remains at the bottom. The thick part is skimmed off, and is of a pleasant acid taste. It is light and wholesome and cooling; and when eaten with sugar, is agreeable to almost every palate. The process for making it never fails, providing the weather be warm and the butter milk rich. If the milk is poor, the thick part of the milk, instead of swimming at the top of the whey, is apt to sink to the bottom, and is never equal to the former sort. To avoid this accident, and also to improve the quality of the Corstorphine cream, it is proper to mix with the butter milk, when originally set aside, a quantity of new milk. If the weather is chilly, it is necessary to place the barrel or vessel containing the butter milk within another vessel containing hot water. Villages, &c.

A variety of the same substance, of a richer and more substantial quality, may be prepared instantaneously in the following manner: Take a quantity of extremely sour butter milk, and place it in a punch bowl or other vessel; then bring to a boiling heat in a tea-kettle a quantity of sweet milk. Pour the sweet milk from the spout of the tea-kettle among the butter milk, taking care to hold the tea-kettle at a considerable height. The whole thick part of both sorts of milk will instantly swim to the top, and is to be skimmed off and eaten when cold. It will be richer in proportion as a larger quantity of sweet milk is employed. A very elegant dish may be prepared by using cream, sweetened with sugar and seasoned with spices, instead of sweet milk.

The village of Cramond, situated on the east side of the Almond at its junction with the Forth, contains about 300 inhabitants. Only a few sloops belong to its harbour, which is described in the records of exchequer as a creek connected with the port of Leith. The village is chiefly Cramond.

Villages, &c. remarkable on account of the iron manufacture which has for many years been carried on here by Messrs Caddell and Edington; who employ in it a capital of above L. 30,000. The work consists of three forges, two slitting mills, and two steel furnaces; at which bar iron is manufactured into blistered, square or faggot, and German steel, hoops, and rolled iron, rod iron, boiler and tin plates for steam-engines or salt works, locks, moulds, anchors, palms, bolts for ship-building, and other articles. There are also here spade and nail manufactures belonging to the same company. The iron used at the Cramond works comes chiefly from Russia and Sweden. The works are supplied with coal from the estate of Grange near Borrowstounness, belonging to Mr William Caddell. The coal is brought down the Frith in the sloops belonging to this port, to the amount of about 1600 tons annually. The forge hammers weigh from four to six hundred weight each; and they are wrought by water, and make from 120 to 160 strokes in a minute.

But the chief seat of the population of the country part of the shire of Midlothian is in the neighbourhood of the Esk, upon or adjoining to the great-coal field already described. Here there are numerous villages of different degrees of magnitude. The uppermost village upon the

Pennycuick South Esk is that of Pennycuick, said to signify, in Gaelic, *gouk's* (or cuckoo's) hill, probably from the number of these birds that haunt the surrounding woods in spring. It was the opinion of the late Sir James Clerk, that a former proprietor, principal heritor of the parish, gave it this name after his own; but that the original one was St Mungo's (in Norwegian dear friend), the name given to St Kentigern by Sordanus, bishop of Orkney, by whom he was educated about the middle of the sixth century. The chief support of the village is a cotton mill, which

generally employs about 500 persons of different ages. It was the first that was erected in Scotland, and is the only work of the kind within the county. Villages, &c.

The manufacture of paper is carried on to a considerable extent in mills established upon this river as well as upon the water of Leith; and considerable quantities of it are constantly exported to London. Paper. On the South Esk, a gun-powder manufactory has been established during ten or twelve years past. Gun-powder Mills. It is the first of the kind that has been tried in Scotland. It has suffered considerably at different times from explosions; by one of which a partner in the concern lost his life.

Descending down the country, there are several villages crowded with colliers; but the chief villages, or rather country towns, belonging to this county, are those of Dalkeith and Musselburgh. The name of Dalkeith is said Dalkeith, to be derived from the Gaelic language, and signifies a plain situated between two rivers. If this be so, it is perfectly descriptive of the situation of the village, which stands on a narrow stripe of land peninsulated between the two rivers already mentioned, known by the name of *Esk*. The banks of these streams are here beautifully wooded, and embellished with the seats of several families of the first distinction. The village of Dalkeith contains upwards of 4000 inhabitants. Its principal street is broad and well paved; and the buildings, as usual in Scotland, are built of stone, and substantial. It contains a grammar school, which has long possessed distinguished reputation; and to which, on this account, as well as on account of the healthy and agreeable situation of the place, the sons of gentlemen are sent from different quarters of the country. This village is not at present remarkable for any sort of manufactures; and it is chiefly distinguished on account of its well known and much frequented market. One of

Villages, &c.

the most considerable, perhaps the greatest market for grain of any in Scotland, is held in Dalkeith every Thursday; to which are brought large quantities of all sorts of grain, and more especially of oats, not only from the neighbourhood, but also from the southern counties. It is remarkable that all the grain sold here brings ready money; a circumstance of much importance to the farmers and those belonging to the neighbourhood, who generally purchase at Dalkeith such articles as they find necessary for themselves and their families before they leave the village. A great proportion of the grain and meal sold at Dalkeith is sent to supply the west country, about Carron, Glasgow, and Paisley. From Martinmas till about Whitsunday, there is likewise a market for meal every Monday, and one for cattle every Tuesday. There is also an annual fair held on the third Tuesday of October for horses and black cattle, &c. The fair, it is said, was formerly of much more consequence, and better attended, than it is at present.

There are several lesser villages in this neighbourhood, such as Lasswade, Loanhead, and Gilmerton, which contain nothing worthy of notice, excepting that the last, in which there are about 700 inhabitants, has long been celebrated on account of a cave adjoining to it. It was dug out of a rock by one George Paterson a blacksmith. It was finished in 1724, after five years hard labour, as appears from the inscription on the chimney-heads. In this cave are several apartments, several beds, a spacious table, with a large punch-bowl, all cut out of the rock in the nicest manner. Here there was a forge, with a well and washing house. There are in the cave several windows, which communicate light from above. The author of this extraordinary piece of workmanship, after he had finished it, lived in it for a long time with his family,

Gilmerton Cave.

and prosecuted his business as a smith. He died in it about the year 1735. He was a feuar or small proprietor; and consequently the cave he formed and embellished so much, and the garden above it, were his own property, and his posterity enjoyed it for some time after his decease. His cave for many years was deemed a great curiosity, and visited by all the people of fashion. Pennycuick, in his works, has left us the following inscription on the cave: Villages, &c.

Upon the earth thrives villany and woe;
But happiness and I do dwell below.
My hand hewed out this rock into a cell,
Wherein from din of life I safely dwell.
On Jacob's pillow, nightly, lies my head;
My house when living, and my grave when dead.
Inscribe upon it when I'm dead and gone,
I lived and died within my mother's womb.

Before proceeding to take notice of the large village at the foot of the Esk, it may not be improper to remark, that to the eastward of Dalkeith, as the country ascends, the field of coal ascends along with it towards the borders of the county. In this quarter, in the parish of Cranston, it is believed that one of the first attempts was made upon a large scale to extract tar and other substances from coal burnt with access of air after Lord Dundonald's manner. The manufacture was afterwards removed to the west of Scotland, and has languished and proved of little value to the inventor. As it is of much importance however in itself, there is reason to believe, that when the patent shall have expired, it will become in the hands of practical men an object of no small importance. We shall here therefore describe the result of the operations as an object of curiosity in a literary as well as in an economical point of Lord Dundonald's tar

Villages, &c. view. "The coals are put into ovens, and, after being kindled, are slowly decomposed, while the volatile parts fly off into separate reservoirs, where they are condensed. Each condenser has two ovens appropriated to it; and between the ovens and condensers is placed a long leaden cistern filled with water, in order to hasten the process. The condensed fluid is then conveyed from the condensers by a cock into wooden pipes, which lead it into a pit, from whence it is pumped into the still. By the act of distillation or boiling, the steam flies off into another large wooden vessel, where it is condensed into an *oil and volatile spirit*. The distillation continues for the space of four days and a half, when the residuum in the still makes excellent *tar*. The oil and spirit are then drawn off into a smaller vessel; and as the oil swims on the top, a separation is easily made by drawing off the spirit. If the tar is boiled in the still for five days and a half, the stuff remaining in the still is then called *half-pitch*; and should the process be continued a day longer, it will become as brittle as glass. The volatile spirit is distilled a second time before it is exposed to sale, and afterwards made into *hartshorn* by the chemist. A *bright varnish* is produced by mixing one gallon of the foresaid oil with six pounds of rosin, and then boiling them together; and a *black varnish*, by mixing and boiling together four pounds of rosin, one gallon of the above oil, and one Scotch pint of the half pitch. The British tar is of a blacker colour, and has a finer skin than common tar. It contains no water like the latter; and its quality is injured by any mixture of lamp black, red and white lead, oil or tallow. Vegetable tar, containing an acid that corrodes iron, does not answer as a preservative from rust; but this tar, possessing no such corrosive quality, is found to be an effectual covering for guns, shot, bells, and all iron work. Its principal recom-

mendation however is, that it is excellently adapted for paying the bottoms of ships, and preserving wooden work that is exposed to the weather, or liable to be worm-eaten. If the half-pitch cannot be readily procured when required, the tar may be brought to that consistence by boiling it a sufficient time, to be ascertained by dipping into it a chip of wood, which on cooling will show when the tar has acquired the proper strength. The tar and pitch must always be heated before they are applied. On wooden work, first lay on the tar quite hot, and then a coat of warm pitch. Piles that are to be driven into the ground should be well heated before they are dipped into the half-pitch. Nails are lackered by heating them in a wire basket over a stove, and hastily dipping them while hot into the tar. As they cool, the tar dries on them; and when thus prepared, they are not apt to rust, or render the wood what is called iron sick. Worms do not penetrate into wood that has been properly impregnated with the tar. If the bottom of a vessel therefore be of fir, all that is necessary is to fire her well; and while the plank is hot, to lay on a coat of the tar heated in a pot. When the seams are chalked, finish the whole with a coat of half-pitch prepared in the same manner. But as oak, from its close texture, will not imbibe a sufficient quantity of tar to preserve it against the worms for any length of time, it is necessary to sheath oak bottomed vessels with white fir wood impregnated with the tar, to lacker the sheathing nails, and lay over all a coat of half-pitch to finish it off. British varnish is preferable to turpentine varnish, because the oil of which it is made is of a more penetrating nature than that of turpentine. The effect it has when laid on wood, is to close its pores by filling them with the rosin it contains; and thus to render white or sap-wood equal in quality to red. The bright or clear varnish is used in the same manner as

Villages, &c.

Villages, &c.

turpentine varnish, and answers as a substitute for linseed oil in painting all colours, except with red and white lead when dry; but if these be ground with oil, it is then equal to turpentine varnish, and comes much cheaper. The black varnish is designed for all parts of a vessel exposed to the weather where paint or pitch is not used. It dries fast, and gives a fine gloss to the wood. The tar before it is boiled may be used for greasing carts. The residuum of the coals in the ovens, being no farther burnt than is sufficient to deprive them of their volatile matter, may be used as charcoal by brewers in drying malt, and in the manufacture of iron from the ore."

At a future period of our work, we shall have occasion to take notice of the obligations under which the manufactures of this country lye to Lord Dundonald, in consequence of his ingenious discoveries. It seems to be sufficiently ascertained, that the tar extracted from coal is greatly superior, for the preservation of the bottoms of ships in a tropical climate, to the vegetable tar at present in use. The only objection to the former is said to be its unpleasant smell, in consequence of which it is disliked by the workmen. But as it is not unwholesome, it is evident, that although an objection of this sort may prevent its coming into use, when it belongs to a patentee unconnected with the business of ship-building, hereafter it will easily be surmounted by a trifling additional hire, or by the influence of master builders and merchants, when the privilege shall have terminated. In the meanwhile, it is undoubtedly to be regretted, that the ingenious nobleman, to whom the world owes so many valuable discoveries, should hitherto have reaped so little emolument from his labours. The qualifications by which money is frequently gained, seem to have so little resemblance to that superiority of intellect by which the secrets of nature are success-

fully investigated, that we are almost tempted to suppose it to have been one of the original arrangements of Divine Providence in the constitution of human society, that great riches and distinguished ability should not readily or very usually come together, and remain steadily united in the same person. How else should it happen, that a nobleman of uncommon ingenuity, of a sober character, and of boundless activity, should, during so many years, have unsuccessfully directed his efforts into a tract naturally leading to the acquisition of money; while so many stupid fellows have in the meantime, in this commercial and prosperous country, amassed immense fortunes? In this, as in every other case, however, the plan of Providence is undoubtedly wise, if we could understand its tendency. The union of uncommon ingenuity with prodigious wealth would evidently confer upon their owners a degree of power which would be seriously dangerous to the virtue of their possessors, and would certainly prove at once ruinous to the stability of the arrangements of society, and oppressive to the ordinary race of men. Villages, &c.

Musselburgh has derived its name from an extensive muscle-bank which lies in the sea below the town, and was probably the cause of its early population; as, even at this day, it affords a great relief to the poor inhabitants in times of scarcity, and at all times supplies the tables of the rich with a delicate variety. Musselburgh consists in some measure of three villages: On the east side of the Esk, adjoining to the sea-shore, stands Musselburgh, properly so called, consisting of a broad well-paved principal street, with some adjoining lanes. The houses are in general two or three stories in height, built of stone, and covered with slate or tile, and some of them with thatch. Above Musselburgh, to the south or more inland, is the village and church of Inveresk, which gives its name Mussel-burgh.

Villages, &c.

to the parish. On the western side of the Esk, along the sea-shore, Fisherrow is situated. It is a very long village; and here the harbour belonging to the whole is placed. The buildings are more uniform but meaner than those of Musselburgh.

Country near Musselburgh.

Musselburgh, including the villages of Fisherrow and Inveresk, contains upwards of 4000 inhabitants. Its situation or appearance, together with the adjoining territory, is uncommonly beautiful. The low part of the territory is only a few feet above the level of the sea; between which and the towns of Musselburgh and Fisherrow lye very spacious and pleasant links. These beautiful downs on the sea-shore, almost peculiar to Scotland, furnish a field for that favourite exercise of the inhabitants, the golf; and they also furnish dry walks at all seasons of the year. Behind this flat or plain, through which the river runs into the sea, and which is about half a mile in breadth, there is a fine rising ground, which begins at the eastern extremity of the parish, and extends in a swelling curve to the hill of Inveresk, where stands the village of that name, and the church of St Michael's. The south side of this hill takes also the form of a crescent; so that all the houses on that side have a full view of the woods of Dalkeith park, and the extensive country to the south, as well as of the haughs or flat banks of the river and their own sloping gardens.

This situation renders the village not only agreeable but healthy, and obtained for it of old the name of the *Montpelier* of Scotland. The soil of the plain, especially about Musselburgh, being remarkable dry, and a constant brilliancy and freshness flowing from the river and the adjacent sea, there is a softness and amenity in the air through the whole season, that is seldom to be met with in any other situation in this northern climate. Beyond the village of Inveresk, to the south-east, the extensive and

well cultivated fields, bounded at the distance of two miles by the hills of Falside and Carberry, which terminate a long fertile ridge, that begins to rise five or six miles to the eastward; and the latter of which (Carberry) is the highest ground in the vicinity, being 540 feet above the level of the sea. To the south and west of the river are fertile fields, equally well cultivated, terminated by the extensive park and domain of Dalkeith. Villages, &c.

Though this town and neighbourhood are uncommonly well situated for manufactures, having the command of water and abundance of coal, yet none have been established unless upon a very small scale. Some soap and starch are here manufactured, however; and there is a great distillery at St Clement's Wells, on the boundary between this parish and East Lothian. All sorts of ordinary tradesmen are to be found here, as in every other village in this part of the country. Manufactures.

Musselburgh is what is called a borough of regality, that is, an incorporated borough, where the superior is not the king, as in royal boroughs, but a subject, who possessed in former times that extensive jurisdiction and those high privileges denominated regal, and which exalted their possessor to a sort of independence upon the head of the state, as the German princes at this day are independent of the emperor. Musselburgh, before the reformation, had for its lord of regality the abbot of Dunfermline. It was disjoined by King James the Sixth from the abbey of Dunfermline, and given in donation to one of the family of Lauderdale. When the whole abbey was given to Queen Ann of Denmark, she reclaimed the regality of Musselburgh as comprehended under the gift; but the proprietor contended that it had previously been gifted to him; which defence was sustained. This regality was held by the family of Lauderdale till the year 1709, when it was purchased by the Duchess of Monmouth and The Borough.

Villages, &c.

Buccleugh. Accordingly the borough now holds of the Duke of Buccleugh as lord superior of the regality, and pays to that nobleman certain sums annually as quit-rent or feu-duty. The most ancient charter of this borough now extant is dated December 11th, 1562, and is granted by Robert Commendator of Dunfermline, with consent of the whole members of the convent. It narrates, "That the title-deeds belonging to the borough were burnt by their enemies the English, after the fatal battle of Pinkie; therefore they of new grant, dispone, and confirm to the present bailies, community, and inhabitants of Musselburgh, and their successors," &c. This charter is confirmed by many subsequent charters and acts of parliament, particularly by a charter from the Earl, afterwards Duke of Lauderdale, dated *anno* 1670; in which all their ancient rights and privileges are recited and confirmed.

Government.

The government of the town is vested in a council of eighteen members, ten of whom belong to Musselburgh, and eight to Fisherrow. They elect their own successors, and have the management of a revenue amounting to about L. 1200 *per annum*. The magistrates, by their title-deeds, are empowered to hold a court of record, and issue precepts for the execution of their decrees, and of contracts recorded in their books; but infeftments of property (instruments of possession) must be recorded in the county register. Upon the whole, however, this borough has all the privileges of any royal borough in Scotland, except those of voting for a member of parliament, and sending a delegate to the convention of boroughs.

There has long existed in Musselburgh a sort of reversal of the character of the sexes among the common people, from the women engaging in more laborious employments than the men; that is to say, the wives of weavers, shoe-makers, tailors, &c. were long accustomed to carry

to Edinburgh vast quantities of salt, sand for washing floors, garden stuffs, and other articles, which they sold there, and often brought back heavy burdens of other goods. The universal use of carts has now limited this employment to the carriage of salt; and even that is considerably diminished from the same cause. The *fishwives*, however, still retain their ancient character and manners, which, on account of the singularly laborious lives they lead, have of late excited considerable curiosity. They are the wives and daughters of fishermen, who generally marry in their own cast or tribe. A great part of their business, to which they must have been bred, is to gather baits for their husbands, and to bait their lines. Four days in the week, however, the fisherwomen or fishwives carry fish in creels (osier baskets) to Edinburgh; and when the boats come in late to the harbour in the forenoon, so as to leave them no more than time to reach Edinburgh before dinner, it is not unusual for them to perform their journey of five miles by relays, and shifting their burden from one to another every hundred yards; by which means they have been known to arrive at the fish market in less than three quarters of an hour, a distance of five miles and a half. It is even a well-attested fact, that three of them some years ago went from Dunbar to Edinburgh, which is twenty-seven miles, with each of them a load of herrings on her back of 200 lb. in five hours. They sometimes carry loads of 250 lb.

Villages, &c.

Fishwives.

The boats and boatmen from Fisherrow do not always catch the fish which are sent to Edinburgh from this place. For eight or nine years, the haddocks, which are one of the most abundant and favourite sorts, disappeared altogether from the Frith. During that time the Fisherrow boatmen were accustomed to meet the boats from the east end of Fife half-way down the Frith, and to purchase

Fishery.

Villages, &c. their fish; but the haddocks have now returned, as well as the herrings, which had long been absent from this coast. In the summer season, however, the boats from the coast of Fife frequently run over, and sell their cargoes of fish to the fishwomen either here or at Newhaven, where there is also a similar class of women who carry fish to the Edinburgh market. From the kind of life these women lead, it may naturally be concluded, that their manners and character are peculiar, as they certainly are. Having so great a share in the maintenance of the family, they have no small sway in it, as may be inferred from a saying not unusual among them. When speaking of a young woman reported to be on the point of marriage, "Hout!" say they, "how can she keep a man, who can hardly maintain herself?" As they do the work of men, their manners are masculine; and their strength and activity are equal to their work. Their amusements are of the masculine kind. On holidays they frequently play at *golf*; and on Shrove Tuesday there is a standing match at *foot-ball* between the married and unmarried women, in which the former are always victors.

Mode of dealing. Their manner of life, and the business of making their markets, whet their faculties, and make them very dexterous in bargain-making. They have likewise a species of rude eloquence, an extreme facility in expressing their feelings by words or gestures, which is very imposing, and enables them often to carry their point even against the most wary; and they do not suffer themselves to be abashed when they are detected in attempting to obtain from an unexperienced purchaser thrice the value of their goods. In their dealings with the public, they retain with pertinacity the ancient practice of small traders, but which has been now abandoned by all shop-keepers, of demanding for their commodities twice or three times the sum they

are willing to accept. This, however, they do not consider as any impeachment of their integrity, but merely as a branch of professional dexterity. When the master or mistress of a family adheres to an individual fishwife, forms a sort of acquaintance, and expresses a reliance upon her honesty, and an expectation of receiving articles as cheap as they can be procured in the market, she seldom or never fails in such a case to act honourably; and in their transactions with the shop-keepers of Edinburgh, whom they sometimes supply with herrings, their fair dealing and honesty are altogether unimpeached. Villages, &c.

It is remarkable, that though a considerable degree of licentiousness appears in their freedom of speech, it does not seem to have tainted their morals in a point in which it might have chiefly been expected; there being no class of women, it is believed, who offend less against the seventh commandment, excepting in *words*, than they do. There seems to be no employment that conduces more to health and good spirits than theirs. Some of them have been delivered of a child, and have gone to Edinburgh on foot with their baskets within a week. It is also said to be ascertained, that one who was delivered on Wednesday morning went to town with her creel on the Saturday forenoon following. It has been remarked by Dr Beddoes, that the violent exercise which they sometimes take, and the excessive heat into which they bring themselves, has no tendency to produce consumptions; and that the complaints, in other respects, to which they are liable, are chiefly of an inflammatory nature.

Without noticing the inferior villages upon the great coal-field already mentioned, which contain nothing remarkable, we may observe, that at an equal distance between Edinburgh, Leith, and Musselburgh, has arisen a beautiful village called *Portobello*; a view of a Tower at Portobello.

Villages, &c.

which is given in this Work. The grounds called *Figgat*, consisting of about seventy acres, on which this village is built, are upon the sea-shore. The beach has a gentle descent to the sea, the waters of which are pure and clear. When the tide retires, a level tract appears of about two miles of firm and dry, but very soft sand, which is much frequented for riding, walking, and sea-bathing. The Figgat lands were, in the memory of many of our readers, a mere waste, covered for the most part with furze or whins; in which state they were about forty years ago let to one of the Duddingston tenants for 200 merks Scots, or L. 11 : 2 : $2\frac{8}{12}$ Sterling. In the year 1762 or 1763, they were sold by Lord Milton to Baron Muir for about L. 1500, and by Baron Muir feued out to Mr William Jamieson at the rate of L. 3 an acre. Incredible as it may seem, some of the lands have been lately subfeued at an yearly feu-duty or perpetual rent, of L. 40 *per annum* for each acre. This increase of value has partly arisen from the improvement of the soil itself, but chiefly from its situation, marking it out as the best calculated of any spot in Scotland for a bathing station. Accordingly, for several years past, Portobello has been much resorted to in the summer season by the citizens of Edinburgh and others for sea-bathing; and a number of elegant houses have been there lately erected, and gardens laid out, on the grounds feued from Mr Jamieson; some of which are occupied by the proprietors themselves, and others are let out to hire. As a sea-bathing place, Portobello possesses many advantages, which have suggested a plan of erecting warm and cold salt-water baths in the village by subscription. The work was begun in October last; and already L. 1600, in sixty-four shares of L. 25 each, have been subscribed for. The plan, as announced to the public, is upon a large and elegant scale, consisting of eight warm and two cold baths; the expence of erecting

which is calculated at L. 4000; and as each subscriber of a share is entitled to use the baths at half-price, besides sharing the profits arising therefrom, there is little doubt that the whole L. 4000 will be soon obtained; and in a short time the citizens of Edinburgh, like those of other large cities in England, will have in their near vicinity an elegant bathing place, at which they can procure all the various benefits which warm salt-water, applied as a stimulus to the human body, are known to produce. Chalybeate springs have also been found here, containing a powerful impregnation of sulphur and iron; and it is well known that the use of chalybeate waters in the cure of diseases is a subject of the first importance, acting as a powerful and universal tonic, increasing by its oxidation both the complexion and the general heat and animation of the body. Portobello tower and the adjoining buildings command a most extensive view of the Frith of Forth, as far as the isle of May, the coast of Fife, and the numerous small towns which skirt the coast on that side. From it every vessel passing to and from Leith harbour are distinctly seen; and on the other side the view extends over the rich improved country lying on the south and west, in the centre of which are situated Duddingston house, the seat of the Marquis of Abercorn, and the venerable ruins of the castle of Craigmillar. With the many attractions produced by sea-bathing, hot baths, mineral waters, and its vicinity to the Scottish capital, Portobello will probably in a short time become a place of very fashionable resort. There have long been established here a brick manufactory, and a manufactory of brown ware. White lead is also prepared here.

Villages, &c.

It is perhaps a subject worthy of inquiry, how it has come to pass that so few important and extensive manufactures have been established in the county of Midlo-

Why manufactures flourish not here?

Villages, &c.

thian, or at least in the eastern division of it. This county is situated in the neighbourhood of the sea-coast, in the midst of a fertile and well-cultivated territory; and above all it enjoys an abundance of what is in this northern climate one of the first necessaries of life, and a requisite of most manufactures, a supply of the best fuel. The field of coal here is at least as extensive as that which has given to the neighbourhood of Glasgow a sort of monopoly of the Scottish manufactures, or has rendered it by far the principal and most flourishing seat of them. The strata or seams of coal are here incomparably more thick or rich than in the west country, and iron-stone abounds in every quarter; yet nobody thinks fit in this district to engage in the manufacture of iron, notwithstanding the immense profits which have been derived from that employment since the commencement of the French revolutionary war. Neither has the manufacture of cotton or other fabrics been established here to any extent worth noticing, notwithstanding the abundance of working people of every age and sex, which the populous villages in this quarter might afford. The coal in this county, from a large proportion of it being placed in such an oblique manner as to descend with unusual rapidity to a great depth, is no doubt wrought in some situations under considerable disadvantages; but its great abundance compensates these: and, at all events, they would yield in almost every case to an augmented power of machinery.

The only obvious cause which has prevented this from being converted into a manufacturing and an enterprising commercial district seems to be the state in which the property of the soil now is, and has long remained. Estates are not indeed very large, few of them amounting to more than L.5000 or L.6000 *per annum*; but the land is almost entirely occupied by families of high rank, many of

whom have property elsewhere. These cannot of themselves be expected to engage in trade, while at the same time, in consequence of the stability which, by means of settlements or entails, the law of Scotland bestows upon great families, they are enabled, and sometimes compelled, to retain extensive portions of territory entirely locked up, or out of the market. Enterprising men, therefore, cannot establish themselves in this district, because they can in few places purchase almost any part of the soil, or acquire an extensive or permanent interest in it. Antiquities.

In consequence of the high value of land, and of the many improvements by building and inclosing which have taken place in this county, the remains of antiquity are in most places rapidly disappearing. It is an observation of Dr Samuel Johnson, that antiquities most rapidly disappear in inhabited and cultivated countries; because an old building is always the cheapest and most accessible stone-quarry that can be found. We may add, that the removal of it gives a portion of new territory to the community, that is, to agriculture, and augments the value of the estate which it formerly encumbered. Antiquarians may repine, and in particular instances men of taste may join with them, in regretting the destruction of the remains or vestiges of ancient magnificence; but society at large will always be ready to regard with satisfaction the indications of its own prosperity. Antiquities.

In the western part of the county, to the northward of the Pentland hills, the remains of antiquity are not numerous. Towards the southern extremity of the parish of West Calder, there is an old castle, which is reported to have beeen fortified by Cromwell to repress the depredations of the Moss troopers. On the west part of Hayfield estate, there was a few years ago the remains of an old camp, known by the name of *Cromwell-wit*. This Cromwell-wit.

Antiquities. is now converted into a corn field; and it remains altogether uncertain, whether the name was given as a mark of Cromwell's understanding in the choice of the situation, or as a proof of his folly; although the last appears most probable. About two miles due south, there is on the top of a rising ground, called *Castle Craig*, the remains of a small Roman camp in a pretty entire state. Within these few years, several Roman coins were dug up from the environs of this encampment, on which the Roman eagle was sufficiently apparent; but the circumstances which could lead to the period at which they were coined were completely effaced.

Roman camp.

In the parish of Currie, which still seems to retain its Latin name (*Coria*), on the estate of Captain Scott of Malleny, there are the remains of an old castle, commonly called *Lennox Tower*, said to have been a habitation of the family of Lennox; and which had formed, according to tradition, the occasional residence of Mary Queen of Scots,

Lennox tower.

"When love was young, and Darnley kind."

It became afterwards, according to the same tradition, a seat of the regent Morton. It stands on a very elevated situation above the bank of the river; commands a beautiful prospect of the Frith of Forth; and in these times must have been a place of considerable strength, being inaccessible on all sides. It had a subterraneous passage to the river; so that no enemy could deprive the inhabitants of water. The passage was shut up only within these few years, from the castle being apt to go down into it. The extent of the rampart, or outer wall which goes round the brow of the hill, is about 1212 feet. In the same parish, on the top of Ravelrig hill, the property of Mr Davidson, there are to be seen the remains of a Roman station, or *exploratory camp*; which afford a farther confir-

mation of the name of this parish having originally been derived from the Latin. It is situated on the summit of a high bank, inaccessible on three sides, defended by two ditches, and fenced with stone, with openings for a gate. It is named by the country people *Castlebank*. Further east are the appearances of another station or post, which commands an extensive view of the strath or valley towards Edinburgh, and is styled the *General's Watch*. They are both very distinctly marked in an old plan of the Ravelrig estate in the possession of Mr Davidson; but they are now much defaced, a former proprietor having carried off the greater part of the stones to build fences. Antiquities.

In Calder house, belonging to Lord Torphichen, there is in the gallery a portrait of the stern reformer John Knox, with the following inscription on the back of the picture: "Mr John Knox, the first sacrament of the supper given in Scotland after the reformation was dispensed by him in this hall." Knox's picture.

In the parish of Ratho are the remains of two encampments, both probably Danish; the one on Kaimes hill, in the south-west corner of the parish, the other on the south Platt hill, immediately above the manse or clergyman's house: but the last, within these few years, has been in a great measure destroyed, by blowing and carrying off the stones for building dikes and other purposes.

The church of Corstorphine may with propriety be considered as one of the remains of antiquity not unworthy of attention. It is of Gothic architecture, and built in the form of the Jerusalem cross. The present church was founded near the parish church of this place by Sir John Forrester of Corstorphine, Lord High Chancellor of Scotland, and ancestor to the Lord Forrester, in the year 1429; and dedicated to St John the Baptist, for a provost, five prebendaries, and two singing boys. It was a collegiate Corstorphine church.

Antiquities. church; to which belonged those of Corstorphine, Dalmahoy, Hatton, Cramond, Collington, &c. The teinds or tithes of Ratho, half of the teinds of Addiston, and of Upper Gogar, were appropriated among the revenues of this college. The first provost was Nicholas Bannatyne, who died in 1470, and was buried in the church, where his epitaph still remains. The coat of arms of the family of Forrester is every where dispersed over the building. Within the church, in niches, are several monumental remains of this family. The figures, cut out in stone, are as large as life. Amidst that decay which they appear to have suffered from time and violence, they exhibit proofs of having been executed with dexterity and skill. The male figures are covered with complete armour; and the female appear richly ornamented according to the fashion and dress of the times. The roof is supported by strong arches, and is formed by large stone flags, the whole building seeming to have suffered little by the waste of time. The inside, a few years ago, was fitted up in a modern and commodious manner at a considerable expence by the heritors; that is, the proprietors of lands within the parish.

Cramond. Although Cramond was a Roman station, yet as the lands adjacent to it are rich and arable, the remains of antiquity in its neighbourhood appear to have been in a great measure obliterated. The Roman road leading towards it through this county by Straiton, and the west end of Braid's hills, is almost completely obliterated; but a remnant of it still appears along the foot of Corstorphine hills towards the east.

Pennycuick. On the south side of Pentland hills there are considerable remains of antiquity, not unworthy of notice, in the parish of Pennycuik. On one side of a recess on the south of Pentland hills to the westward, and at the edge of an old tract leading over to the north side of these hills, on

an eminence called the *Cross Sword*, is a stone of an oblong square figure, two feet ten inches by three feet, and about one foot thick, sunk into the ground, with a hole cut in the middle of it thirteen inches by ten, and nine inches deep, supposed to have been the pedestal of a cross. On the other, or west side of the recess, on a height near a mile distant, is a stone somewhat resembling the former, but larger, with an oval bason twenty inches by ten, scooped out of the middle, and two inches on one side, apparently for a person's knees. It is called by the country people the *font stone*. The name of the hill on which it is placed is called *Monk's ridge*. It is also, at the side of an old path leading over in the same direction as the former, called *Monk's road*. The original seat of the old proprietor of St Mungo's is still to be traced in an eminence above the Esk, and about half way betwixt the village and the present house of Pennycuik. It is now called the *Tower*; but the old name was *Terregles*, *Terra Ecclesiæ*, (*Terre d'Eglise*) no doubt from the domains on which it stood. Antiquities.

In the same parish, on the north side of the Linton road, on an eminence between it and the hills, about the tenth mile stone from Edinburgh, are the remains of an oval camp, eighty-four by sixty-seven yards within, inclosing a number of tumuli, eleven yards each in diameter. It has three entries; one to the west, and one on each side to the north and south, but none at the end to the east. The north entrance is six and the other two four yards each in width. It is encompassed by two ditches, each four yards wide, with a mound of six yards in breadth between them; and the name it usually gets among the country people is the *Castle*, which, if that name were attended to, might seem to denote a Roman origin, (*Castella.*) There is a similar encampment at the side of the Harkin burn, within the woods of Pennycuik. From their figure they are Camp or fortress.

Antiquities. probably of British origin, constructed either for the protection of cattle, or for defence in war. In Tweedale, such entrenchments, of which there are several of various dimensions, are known by the appellation of rings.

On the south side of the North Esk, and beyond a considerable glen opposite to Pennycuik house, are the remains of Old Pennycuik, once the property of Oliver Sinclair, brother to the laird of Roslin; who being appointed commander in chief by King James the Fifth, was defeated and taken prisoner at the battle of Solway-moss in November 1542. About a mile further up, on the north side of the river, but high above it, are the remains of a large irregular building, (which appears to have been intended for defence, and is surrounded with a ditch), called *Bruntstone Castle*, said to have been inhabited by the predecessors of the Earls of Dumfries. It is certain, that in the sixteenth century it was in the possession of a family of the name of Crichton; and accordingly, on one place, is the date 1568, with corresponding initials; but on the oldest part of the building are still to be seen the Douglas arms.

Newhall. Newhall, about three miles above Pennycuik, on the same side of the river, was in 1529 in possession of a family of the name of Crichton. In 1646, it belonged to Dr Pennycuik, who was also proprietor of Romanno, and it is noticed in his works. In 1702, it passed from him to Mr Oliphant, by whom it was the year following transferred to Sir David Forbes; from whom it went to Mr John Forbes, brother to Duncan Forbes of Culloden. An apartment usually occupied by this gentleman, when lord advocate, is still known by the name of the *advocate's room*. While inhabited by the Crichtons, it was an irregular castle, and with its appendages covered the whole breadth of the point on which it stands, formed by a deep

recess on either side, running up towards the hills from the glen behind. The ground floor in the front of the present building made a part of its towers. It is arched above with slits for defence on every side; and its walls are so strong, as in one place to have a closet cut out of the thickness. On the north, overhanging the eastern recess, through which descends a rivulet, some vaults are left under the remains of a small round tower; and over the western, which is dry, was the chapel and prison; which last is still remembered to have been used for refractory colliers. In the time of Dr Pennycuik, some parties from General Monk's army are reported to have been detached to this neighbourhood, and distinguished a stream, which enters the glen in several considerable falls about a mile to the east. It is known by the name of Monk's burn. The hill from which it descends, by this tradition, was from hence called Monk's rigg; and the glade through which the Esk winds at its mouth, Monk's haugh. A little below this, surrounded with little knolls, and on three of its sides, by the wooded banks of the river, sweeping round far beneath, is a clear and deep lake, without any visible supply or outlet. At the meeting of two glens, farther up, and to the south of Monk's burn, is a singular rock, resembling a tower, called the *barbour craig*, on which are rudely carved a number of names and dates, corresponding to the time of the commonwealth. They are said to have been the work of some of the covenanters, who took shelter about it. The building seems to have remained unaltered till the time of Mr Forbes, when most of the old castle was pulled down, and the present house erected in its stead, in imitation of the house of Culloden. The grounds beyond, to the westward, called Carlips, a contraction for Carline's loups, now a part of the same estate, were supposed once to have been the residence of a carline or witch, who lived

Antiquities.

Monk's burn, &c.

Antiquities. in a dell at the foot of Carlip's hill, where a village is now begun near a pass between two conic rocks. From the opposite points of these rocks she was often observed, at nights, by the frightened and disordered eye of superstition and ignorance, leaping and frisking across the entrance.

Spittal or hospital. It is to be observed, that one of the Pentland hills, on the south side of the range, takes the name of the *Spittal hill*; and there are two buildings, the one called the Old, and the other the New Spittal. This name is extremely common in Scotland; and in all quarters of the country, there are farm-houses, or other sequestered buildings, which receive that appellation. These would seem to have been, in ancient times, either hospitals, to which the sick, or those coming from suspected places, were sent for a time during the unhappy ages in which Europe was wasted, first by the leprosy, and afterwards by the plague; or they were *hospitia*, places of hospitality, in which travellers were received by churchmen. In confirmation of this last interpretation, it may be remarked, that the benighted traveller upon the Linton or Biggar road, is still considered here as having a right to shelter and protection at the Old Spittal; and one of the out-houses, with some straw, is generally allotted for that purpose. Upon the supposition that this was church property, it will follow, that the names of Monk's rigg and Monk's burn, already mentioned, are much older than the times of General Monk and the commonwealth.

In the parish of Glencross there are some vestiges of camps at Castlelaw, from which the place has probably taken its name. Rullion green. At Rullion green was fought the battle of Pentland hills on November 28th 1666. The people in the west of Scotland having been driven to despair by oppression, on account of their dislike to the episcopal form of church-government, unadvisedly took up arms, and ad-

vanced to Edinburgh. Finding it impracticable to seize the city, they were pursued by a party of the king's troops under General Dalziel, and overtaken on a small plain called Rullion green. They twice repulsed the king's troops, and Duke Hamilton narrowly escaped with his life; but upon a third attack they were routed, and upwards of fifty of them slain. The dead were buried upon the spot; and after the revolution, a stone was erected to their memory with an inscription. Antiquities.

Old Woodhouselee, in the same parish, was formerly the property and residence of Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. It was from this house that his lady was turned out by the regent Murray, to perish amidst the inclemency of a stormy night. Her husband Hamilton avenged her death by assassinating Murray; after which he fled to France. About 140 years ago, the tower of Fulford, which was likewise a place of great antiquity, was repaired from the stones of this house, and received the name of Woodhouselee. Old Woodhouselee.

Below Pennycuik, on the North Esk, are the celebrated ruins of Roslin castle. It is situated upon a mount which is peninsulated by the river, and it is separated from the country on the land side by a deep ravine, over which the only access is by a stone bridge, which remains entire. Its situation is uncommonly romantic, on a steep rock, rising in some measure out of the bed of a river, which runs along a rocky channel, with banks which are extremely precipitous, though covered with natural wood. A small part of the castle is still inhabited; but upon the whole it is almost entirely ruinous. It is uncertain when this castle was built, most probably it was in the beginning of the twelfth century, when William de Sancto Clere, son to Waldernus de St Clere, who came over with William the Conqueror, obtained from Malcolm Canmore a grant of the barony of Roslin. No mention is made of it in history till the reign Roslin castle.

Antiquities. of James the Second, when we read of Sir William Hamilton being confined therein for engaging in the rebellion which Earl Douglas had raised against that monarch. In 1554 it was burned by the army of Henry the Eighth, along with Leith and Craigmillar. This castle was the ancient seat of the St Clares; a family of great note in this country. They had very extensive possessions and many titles, being Earls of Caithness and Orkney, Dukes of Oldenburgh, &c. and they were for many generations patrons and grand masters of masonry in Scotland. This honour was conferred upon them by James the Second, and continued in their family till lately.

Chapel of Roslin. On the hill, immediately above the castle, is the chapel of Roslin, founded by William Earl of Caithness and Orkney, for a provost, six prebendaries, and two singing boys. This chapel is a beautiful piece of Gothic architecture; and notwithstanding some damage it sustained by a mob at the revolution in 1688, is still very entire.

Tradition relates that the design for this chapel was drawn at Rome; and in order that it might be properly executed, the founder caused dwellings to be built near it for the workmen, the ancient village being half-a-mile distant. Here he gave to them houses and lands in proportion to their abilities, with ten pounds a-year to each mason, and forty to the master-mason; also proportionable rewards to the other artificers. By these bounties he attracted all the best workmen in this and the neighbouring kingdoms.

The founder dying about the year 1484, before the building was finished, it was carried on and completed by Sir Oliver Sinclair of Roslin, his eldest son of the second marriage, whose mother was Lady Margaret Sutherland, descended from the blood royal, her great-grandmother Jean being the younger daughter of King Robert Bruce.

The following tale is related respecting part of this

building. The master-mason of this chapel, meeting with some difficulties in the execution of the design, found it necessary to go to Rome for information; during which time his apprentice carried on the work, and even executed some parts concerning which his master had been most doubtful, particularly a fine fluted column or pillar near the high altar, ornamented with wreaths of foliage and flowers in *alto relievo* twisting spirally round it. The master on his return, stung with envy at this proof of the superior abilities of his apprentice, slew him by a blow on his head with a mason's hammer. In support of this story, an old woman, who shows the place, points out not only the column called the *apprentice's pillar*, but several other heads supporting brackets in the wall, said to be the heads of the parties. One is called the master's, another that of the apprentice, whose wound is marked with red ochre; and the head of a weeping mother is said to represent the mother. Grose, in his *Antiquities*, justly observes, that most certainly this is all fiction. The head pointed out for that of the apprentice exhibits a bearded old man. Similar stories are told of different buildings; one in particular of the famous rose window at Rouen in Normandy, said to have been built by an apprentice, whose master, out of jealousy, knocked out his brains with a hammer.

Antiquities.

Apprentice's pillar.

This chapel is surrounded at a little distance by a stone wall, with the entrance on the north side. The entry into the chapel is by two doors; one in the north, the other in the south side. The height of the chapel within, from the floor to the top of the high arched roof, is forty feet eight inches; breadth, thirty-four feet eight inches; the length, sixty-eight feet.

At the south-east corner there is a descent, by a flight of twenty steps, into a cript or chapel, partly subterraneons, which likewise is supposed to have served for a sacristy and vestry. The east end of this building is above

Antiquities. ground, occasioned by the sudden declivity of the hill. The height is fifteen feet, breadth fourteen feet, length thirty-six feet. It is lighted by a single window.

This whole chapel is profusely decorated with sculpture, both within and without. On the outside are a number of niches for statues; but whether any were ever placed there is doubtful. The inside is divided into a middle and two side aisles by seven columns on each side, supporting pointed arches; and over them, in the middle aisle, which is higher than those on each side, is a row of windows. The roof, the capitals, key-stones, and architraves, are all covered with sculptures, representing flowers, foliage, passages of sacred history, texts of scripture, and grotesque figures; all executed with an astonishing neatness. The apprentice's pillar, before mentioned, by some called the *prince's pillar*, probably from its superiority to the others, has on its base a number of dragons and other monsters, whose interwoven tails are quite clear of or detached from its surface. The author of a pamphlet, containing a minute description of this chapel, speaks thus of this pillar: "It has on the base of it several dragons in the strongest or first kind of *basso relievo*, as one can easily thrust a finger or two between some parts of the dragon and the base. The dragons are chained by the heads, and twisted into one another. This beautiful pillar has round it, from base to capital, waving in the spiral way, four wreaths of the most curious sculpture of flower work and foliage; the workmanship of each being different, and the centre of each wreath distant from that of the neighbouring one a foot and a half. So exquisitely fine are these wreathings, that I can resemble them to nothing else but Brussel's lace. The ornaments upon the capital of this pillar are the story of Abraham offering up Isaac; a man blowing on a Highland bagpipe, with another man lying by him; and on the architrave joining it to the

smaller one on the south wall, with your face to the east, and to the entry of the sacristy, you read the following inscription in old Gothic characters, thus: *Forte est vinum, fortior est rex, fortiores sunt mulieres, super omnia vincet veritas.*"—Esdras, ch. iii. 4. Antiquities.

Here were formerly several monuments, two of which are remarkable; that of George Earl of Caithness, who died A. D. 1582, and another engraved on stone, supposed to be for Alexander Earl of Sutherland, grandson to King Robert Bruce. He is represented in armour, in a cumbent posture, his hands on his breast, as in the act of prayer; on each side his head a lion rampant, at his feet a greihound. At the front of the third and fourth pillars, between them and the north wall, there is a large flag-stone covering the opening to the family vault, wherein ten barons of Roslin are now buried. This vault is so dry, that their bodies have been found entire after eighty years, and as fresh as when first buried. "These barons," says Mr Hay, in his MS. in the Advocate's Library, "were buried of old in their armour, without any coffin; and were successively, by charter, the patrons and protectors of masonry in Scotland. And," continues he, "the late Roslin, my goodfather (grandfather to the present Roslin), was the first that was buried in a coffin, against the sentiments of King James the Seventh, who was then in Scotland, and several other persons well versed in antiquity; to whom my mother (Jean Spottiswood, grandniece of Archbishop Spottiswood) would not hearken, thinking it beggarly to be buried in that manner." The great expence she was at in burying her husband occasioned the sumptuary acts which were made in the following parliaments.

It appears that William St Clare, the founder of Roslin chapel, lived in great state at his castle here. The author

Antiquities. of the description of the chapel before quoted, says, from Hay, "About that time (*i. e.* building of the chapel, A. D. 1440), the town of Roslin, being next to Edinburgh and Haddington in East Lothian, became very populous by the great concourse of all ranks and degrees of visitors that resorted to this prince at his palace of the castle of Roslin; for he kept a great court, and was royally served at his own table in vessels of gold and silver; Lord Dirleton being his master-household, Lord Borthwick his cup-bearer, and Lord Fleeming his carver; in whose absence they had deputies to attend, *viz.* Stewart, Laird of Drumlanrig, Tweedie, Laird of Drumerline, and Sandilands, Laird of Calder. He had his halls and other apartments richly adorned with embroidered hangings. He flourished in the reigns of James the First and Second. His princess, Elizabeth Douglas, already mentioned, was served by seventy-five gentlewomen, whereof fifty-three were daughters of noblemen, all clothed in velvets and silks, with their chains of gold and other ornaments; and was attended by two hundred riding gentlemen in all her journeys: and if it happened to be dark when she went to Edinburgh, where her lodgings were at the foot of Blackfriars Wynd, eighty lighted torches were carried before her."

Battle near Roslin. Near to Roslin is the scene of a battle, or rather of three battles, which were fought on one day betwixt the English and the Scots on 14th February 1303. The English and Scottish writers differ much in their accounts of this action. We have from our own historians the following particulars: During a truce, Ralf Confrey, treasurer to Edward the First, invaded Scotland at the head of 30,000 men, well armed, and mostly mounted on horseback. With a view to plunder, he divided his forces into three bodies; and, having reached the neighbourhood of Roslin, encamped them in as many different stations. On

hearing of this invasion, Sir Simon Fraser and Sir John Cuming, the Scottish generals, drew together such an army as they could muster in haste, amounting to 8000 or at most to 10,000 men. With these they marched from Biggar, and fell unexpectedly on the first division of the enemy, whom they totally routed, and drove those who escaped back to the second camp. Here, on the alarm being given, the English took to their arms, and sallied forth on the Scots while they were dividing the spoil. The conflict was again renewed, and the Scots were a second time victorious. Scarce had they begun to refresh themselves after this bloody engagement, when a third army appeared in view. The fate of battles, especially in barbarous times, before the art of war is greatly improved, or men have learned to resign themselves to a commander's will, and to act steadily in every situation, depends more upon the temporary feelings or state of mind of the combatants than upon their physical strength. As ancient battles were fought man to man, and was a laborious and toilsome struggle, the Scots must on this occasion have been greatly fatigued; but the human form, when filled with the animating passions of courage and of hope, is capable of renewing its efforts for an uncommon length of time. Accordingly it is no way marvellous, that on this occasion, after gaining two battles on one day, the Scots should also have gained the third. They would by this time have become a sort of veteran troops, enured to blood and peril, and accustomed to expect conquest from perseverance in their efforts. The English general had committed the unpardonable error of dividing his forces in the country of an enemy whom he had not previously vanquished in the field: and the whole of that fatal day's fighting was evidently a succession of blunders on the part of the invaders; because, after the first divi-

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Antiquities. sion had been vanquished, the two remaining divisions ought obviously to have united their strength before they encountered an enemy already elated with victory, and consequently possessing more than usual intrepidity and discipline.

Hawthornden. About half a mile below Roslin castle Hawthornden is situated. From the one to the other, the scenery is extremely beautiful and romantic. The banks of the river consist in all parts of broken and abrupt precipices; almost every spot of which, where a tree can stand, is covered with wood. The river, which is nearly inaccessible, is seen winding among the precipices over a bed of broken rocks; and at intervals the massy corners or summits of the rocks, by which it is enclosed, are seen projecting beyond the foliage of the trees. The neighbouring high grounds, also, on each side of the river, abound with wood; so that on viewing this beautiful spot, we are reminded, or almost persuaded, of the truth of Peter Pindar's remark concerning Dr Samuel Johnson, who, in the opinion of his humorous satyrist,

> Went to Hawthornden's fair scene by night,
> Lest e'er a Scottish tree should wound his sight.

Caves. The path from Roslin castle and chapel down to Hawthornden is on the opposite or southern bank of the river, through alternate woods and opening lawns. Upon the precipice which overhangs the south side of the Esk, is situated the house of Hawthornden, with the caves adjoining to it or under it. There are various conjectures as to the original intention of these subterraneous caverns. Dr Stukely has given credit to a fabulous tradition, that they were a stronghold of the Pictish kings; and accordingly one cave is called the *king's gallery*, another the *king's bed-chamber*, and a third the *guard-room*. Setting aside this

groundless tradition, the most probable opinion is, that they were intended as places of refuge during the destructive wars that subsisted long between the Scots and Picts, or English and Scots. Detached from the principal caves, there is a small one called the *cypress grove*, where Drummond is said to have composed many of his poems. It was in these caverns that the famous Sir Alexander Ramsay, one of the ancestors of the Dalhousie family, and who performed many memorable exploits during the contest for the succession to the crown between Bruce and Baliol, used to conceal himself. Here he was resorted to by the young warriors of his day, who considered it as a necessary piece of military education to have been of his band; and from thence he sallied forth as occasion presented itself, and attacked the English, then in possession of Edinburgh. Antiquities.

The caves are hewn out of a free-stone rock. Adjoining to them, on the summit of the precipice, a seat is formed, from which a commanding view is obtained of the river and its banks. Hawthornden is remarkable for having been the property of William Drummond, a celebrated poet and historian. It was to this beautiful retreat that Ben Johnson came from London on foot to pass some weeks with him. He was zealously attached to the cause of Charles the First; and it is said that the fate of that monarch hastened the death of Drummond, which took place on the 4th of December 1649.

In the same parish of Lasswade, near the house of Mavisbank, built by the late Sir John Clerk, is a mount of earth of considerable height, which is supposed to have been a Roman post. It is circular in its form, and begirt with ramparts, now cut into terraces. Here several articles of brass, and of ancient form, have been found; such as weapons, bridle-bits, chirurgical instruments, stili, Roman station.

Antiquities. fibulæ, &c. Some of these being Roman, the rest have been considered as such also. They are still to be seen at Pennycuick. In a neighbouring farm is a mount where several urns, filled with burnt bones, have been dug up. These circumstances led Sir John Clerk, who was well acquainted with the antiquities of this country, to suppose that this must have been a Roman station; and accordingly the late General Roy has pointed it out in his maps as the place where the Romans passed the North Esk in their way from the south to Cramond.

Borthwick castle. In the parish of Borthwick, which is situated upon one of the streams that run into the South Esk, are the vast ruins of Borthwick castle, which belonged to a noble Scottish family of that name. Their ancestor is said to have accompanied Queen Margaret from Hungary to Scotland in 1057. They had immense possessions in this part of the country during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; but their peerage is now extinct. There is on the lands of Harvieston, beautifully situated by the side of the water, a ruin, which is said to have been the residence of the family of Borthwick before they were created peers, or had risen to such eminence in this country. About the end of the fourteenth, and beginning of the fifteenth century, lived a Sir William Borthwick, who, being a man of distinguished talents, was employed as an ambassador in several important negociations, and concerned in most of the public transactions of his time. This William appears to have been created Lord Borthwick before the year 1430; for in October that year, at the baptism of the king's two sons, several knights are said to have been created, and among the rest William, son and heir of Lord Borthwick. He obtained from King James the First of Scotland a licence to build a castle. A stately and most magnificent fabric was accordingly reared, and afterwards became the

chief seat of the family. This large mass of building is yet, upon the whole, very entire, and of astonishing strength. There is indeed in the middle of the east wall a considerable breach; but whether this has been occasioned by a flash of lightning, or by the influence of the weather, or by some original defect in the building, cannot now with certainty be determined. The form of this venerable structure is nearly square, being seventy-four by sixty-eight feet without the walls, but having on the west side a large opening, which seems to have been intended to give light to the principal apartments. The walls themselves, which are of hewn stone without and within, and most firmly cemented, are near the bottom thirteen feet thick, and towards the top are gradually contracted to about six feet. Besides the sunk story, they are, from the adjacent area to the battlement, ninety feet high; and if we include the roof, which is arched and covered with flag-stones, the whole height is about one hundred and ten feet. In one of the low apartments is an excellent spring well, which, however, is now filled up with rubbish. On the first story are state rooms, which were once accessible by a draw-bridge. The great hall is forty feet long, and had its music gallery. Its roof is lofty, and has once been adorned with lustres, painting, and tapestry. The chimney, which is very large, has been nicely carved and gilded; and in every corner may be traced the remains of fallen greatness. The castle is surrounded on every side but one by steep ground and water; and at equal distances from the base are square and round towers. This stronghold, therefore, before the use of artillery, must have been accounted impregnable by force; so that all who were under its protection would be perfectly secure. Its owners appear to have been at all times attached to the monarchy. The unfortunate Queen Mary retired hither

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Antiquities. for some time with the Earl of Bothwell before her final separation from him at Carberry, in consequence of the insurrection of her subjects. During the civil wars, Lord Borthwick remained attached to the royal cause. On the 18th of November 1650, he was summoned by Oliver Cromwell, in a letter which is still extant, to surrender his castle. He made a stand, however; but on seeing no appearance of relief, he capitulated, and received permission to march out with his family unmolested; and fifteen days were allowed to remove his effects.

Cairns. In the same parish of Borthwick, on the property of Mr Brown of Currie, there were many of those heaps of stones which in every part of Scotland are well known by the name of *cairns*. These are evidently sepulchral monuments; and as a multitude could rear them in haste, this artless method of perpetuating the memory of chiefs slain in battle, seems to have been universally adopted by the different tribes of the uncivilized northern nations. Below, and all around, the heaps of stones now mentioned, there have been discovered, and dug up, numbers of earthen pots full of half-burnt human bones, and each of them covered by a flat stone. These have generally been found about a foot or a foot and a half in the earth, and sometimes so near the surface that they have been uncovered by the plough. Some of these pots, with their contents, are very entire, and others considerably wasted. Most of them may contain about two Scottish pints. Specimens of them have been preserved, and are still in possession of the proprietor of the ground. They are of coarse workmanship, ornamented with various figures, and probably have been of British manufacture. They tend to confirm the opinion of those who think, that the Britons in ancient times burned the bodies of the dead.

In the mountainous parish of Heriot, are several circles

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Rings or enclosures.

or rings of different sorts, which form a kind of enclosures. There is on Heriot-town hill-head a circle of high stones seventy or eighty feet in diameter; and on Borthwickhall mid-hill-head, there are three large rings, or deep ditches, about a hundred paces diameter. There is also a circle on the side of the Gala road near the bridge over the water of Heriot, to which it was once customary to drive horses, cattle, and sheep, taken in execution at the instance of creditors.

Use of ancient rings.

Such circular enclosures, we have already mentioned as existing at the head of the North Esk, in the parish of Pennycuick. They are not unfrequent in the mountainous districts of the south of Scotland. As the Roman encampments were of a square form, there is little reason to consider them as the work of that people; and they have given rise to much speculation. They must evidently have been works of considerable labour, and intended for some permanent purpose. The question chiefly is, whether they were meant to be subservient to war or religion? the passions of mutual hostility and of devotion being the most powerful over the minds of barbarians, and the most likely to unite them in social or united labours. From the mountainous situation in which most of these circles are found, it seems probable that they were not devoted to religion; for in all ages the clergy had the good sense to select the most fruitful and best sheltered spots for the place of their residence. Even the Druids resided in stately groves; and trees are never very stately on a barren soil. To this day, in a mountainous or barren district, if a snug and fertile corner occur, it will generally be found that it has been judiciously selected as the site of the parish church, with its appendages, the house and garden, and piece of ground denominated the *glebe*, which are allotted to the minister.

Antiquities. It may reasonably be supposed, therefore, that the circles or enclosures, now alluded to, were prepared for the purposes of war. Among our ancestors, a war generally consisted of a succession of predatory incursions. The invading party pressed eagerly forward, burned the houses of their enemies, and carried off their cattle with all possible speed. As soon as the country was fully alarmed, it became necessary for them to make a hasty retreat, that they might not be cut off by an armed and vindictive people, collecting around them on all sides. To resist an invading enemy, who possessed no other offensive weapons than the sword, the bow, and the lance, it was only necessary to possess an enclosure that was proof against a sudden assault. Irruptions by the English border chieftains or barons were extremely common in the south of Scotland; and under the anarchy of the feudal government, hostile barons, at the head of their vassals, were accustomed to wage war against each other. Accordingly it became necessary to make some permanent provision for defence against sudden hostility. With this view, every baron or chieftain built for himself a tower or castle; to which he and his family and vassals retired in times of alarm, and in which they waited in safety till the storm was past, or they issued forth, as occasion offered, to assail the enemy, who found himself in the midst of a country filled with hostile fortresses, which rendered it dangerous for him to divide his force into small plundering parties. But although the towers or fortresses of the barons might protect their own persons, and those of their principal vassals, with perhaps a few domestic animals, they could not afford safety to herds of cattle; and for the protection of these, there seems every reason to believe that the circular fortifications, already mentioned, were devised. Thither the country people could repair

with their flocks of cattle on the first alarm; and as the works appear to have been elevated and substantial, and such as if furnished with cannon, and used as redoubts, might retard or embarrass the movements even of a powerful modern army, they would be defended with ease. Antiquities.

It is well known that this island, like the neighbouring continent, was at one time infested by wolves; and several spots still bear the name of that animal: as wolf-clyde, wolf-cleugh, &c. In the same parish of Heriot, tradition reports, that the glen or cleugh called the *wolf-cleugh* was once inhabited by a great wolf which laid waste the country, and attacked and destroyed every passenger. An offer was at last made, that whoever would destroy this terrible animal should have as his reward a considerable portion of the territory infested by it. A man named *Dewar* at length atchieved this enterprise, and called the lands by his own name. Wolves.

Near the high road which passes through this parish from Edinburgh towards Selkrig, is a great stone called *Mary Gibb's*, from an old woman whom tradition reports to have been burned upon it as a witch. On the boundary of the parish, towards Tweedale, is a spot called the *Piper's grave*, from a tradition, that the piper of Peebles fell down and died here, and was buried. He was engaged at the time in an attempt to blow his bag-pipe from Peebles to Lauder, a distance of about eighteen miles, at a certain number of blasts. Piper's grave, &c.

At the eastern extremity of the county upon Soutra hill, in the parish of Fala, are the remains of an ancient hospital. It was founded in the year 1164 by Malcolm Fourth, king of Scotland, for the relief of pilgrims, and for poor and sickly people. To this charitable institution the royal founder annexed some lands near to St Leonard's in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh. It had also the privi- Soutra hospital.

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lege of a sanctuary, as appears from the name of the road leading to it from the abbey of Melrose. From Bridgend, about half a mile above Dornock to the west, on the south side of the Tweed, there has been a plain road or causeway through the muirs to Soutra hill, called the *Girthgate*, from the word *Girth*, which, in the Gaelic, signifies *an asylum or sanctuary*. The traces of this road are still visible in many places of the muir. Another circumstance, illustrative of Soutra's having formerly been a place of refuge, is, that about half a mile to the south of the hospital, there is a small eminence or rising ground still called *Cross-chain hill*. It would appear, that along this hill, and across the Girthgate, there had been a chain, suspended for a considerable way, in the direction of east and west, to mark the boundaries of the privileged ground. Criminals, who had the happiness to pass or cross this chain, however closely pursued, were safe from every harm, and exempted from prosecution.

Old monastery.

In the parish of Cranston are the ruins of some buildings and enclosures, supposed to be ecclesiastical antiquities; that is, the ruins of a monastery. The enclosures were undoubtedly orchards; as cherry trees and the remains of gooseberry bushes continued there till within these few years: a bell also hung in one of the buildings, till some tinkers, apprehending they could apply it to some use, carried it off. The whole was probably dedicated to St Bartholomew, as some lands in the neighbourhood receive the appellation of *Bartholomew's firlot*.

In the parish of Crichton are two objects of antiquity well deserving notice. These are a Roman camp and the castle of Crichton. The camp is situated upon rising ground, commanding an extensive prospect. The intrenchments in many parts may be easily traced. It is probable, that a considerable battle had been fought in this pa-

rish from the great number of bones which have been dug up. In the lower ground, several *chevaux de frise* have been found, which were used for wounding horses feet. They are in the form of rings, six inches in diameter, and armed all round with sharp pikes, turned up in a circular manner. The castle of Crichton is a very ancient and magnificent building. "This castle," says Pennant, "was once the habitation of the Chancellor Crichton, joint-guardian with the Earl of Callander of James the Second; a powerful and shrewd statesman in that turbulent age; and the adviser of the bold but bloody deeds against the too potent Douglas. During the life of Crichton, it was besieged, taken, and levelled with the ground, by William Earl Douglas. It was afterwards rebuilt, and part of the new work is uncommonly elegant." Antiquities.

In the parish of Newton, to the southward of the North Esk, and adjoining to the high road from Edinburgh to Dalkeith, is a very high ridge of a circular form, and of very considerable extent in a level territory. It is evidently altogether artificial. The people of the country have always called it the *kaim*, supposed by some to be a corruption of the word camp, but which in the Scottish dialect is of the same import with the English word comb. What is here called the kaim, has no resemblance to a Roman camp, or to the rings already described, as existing in mountainous districts. It must have been a work of great labour, and resembles more the rampart of a city than any inferior object. It is of such breadth and strength, that the top of it is used for a considerable distance as a carriage road. It is more likely to have been the permanent rampart of a Roman town, than any other work that can readily be conjectured. It may be remarked, that throughout all Scotland, small ridges, though evidently, or at least The kaim near Newton.

Antiquities. apparently, formed by nature, receive the appellation of *kaims*.

Craigmillar castle. In the parish of Liberton, the most remarkable remnant of antiquity is Craigmillar castle, a magnificent *chateau*, which must have in former times possessed considerable strength. It is situated on the summit of a circular hill, and commands on all sides an extensive prospect; of the city of Edinburgh with its precincts, and the distant mountains bordering upon the Highlands; of the Frith of Forth, and of the fertile valleys of the North and South Esk. Craigmillar castle is itself also a conspicuous object in a great part of the county; a part of it was lately inhabited. The front of the building is towards the north; and over one of the doors is carved on stone, a press and a barrel or ton, in allusion to the name of Preston. A thick rampart wall, thirty feet high, with parapets and turrets, or watch houses, encompass it. The inner court is of considerable extent: on the west end of which is a very large building, consisting of several very stately apartments, which was built in 1661 by Sir John Gilmour, lord president of the court of session, and for some time was the mansion-house of the family. The outer court is large and spacious; the entry to it is from the east. On the west side of this court was erected a protestant presbyterian meeting-house, upon the indulgence granted by James the Seventh; on the east was the chapel.

There is no evidence for ascertaining when this very magnificent castle was built; but the rampart wall, as appears from the inscription on the gate, was built in 1427.

Here John Earl of Marr, a younger brother of James the Third, was confined in 1477. For some time it was the residence of James the Fifth during his minority, when he left Edinburgh castle on account of the plague;

and in this castle the queen-dowager his mother had, by fa- Antiquities.
vour of Lord Erskine, his constant attendant and guardian, frequent interviews with him, when the Duke of Albany the governor was in France. It was taken, was much demolished, and a great deal of it burned, according to Piscottie, by the English in 1543.

Here Queen Mary chose to reside as much as she possibly could, after her return from France in 1561. On that account, her French servants took up their residence in the neighbouring village, which, from that circumstance, had the appellation of *Little France*; and the name is still Little France.
retained. There is a room in the castle which goes under the name of *Queen Mary's*, for it is said she slept in it; and it is always shown to strangers. It is situated immediately under the south-east turret, and has a fire place, but is not much above seven feet long and five broad.

The orchard is on the south side, and immediately adjoining to the castle; it consists of two acres. There are at present only a few old fruit trees in it.

Craigmillar anciently belonged to a family of that name. In 1374, it was purchased by Sir Simon de Preston, which family were sometimes styled Prestons of Craigmillar, sometimes Prestons of Gorton, as well as of Prestons of Preston, or, in the Scottish dialect, Preston of that ilk. We have already mentioned, that one of them in the reign of James the Second bestowed the arm-bone of St Giles upon the community of Edinburgh. The Prestons continued in the possession of Craigmillar almost three hundred years; and during that period they maintained an eminent character here, distinguished by many public marks of respect, and had great influence in the neighbouring city.

August 24th, 1565, Sir Simon Preston of Preston and Craigmillar was recommended by Queen Mary, and her

Antiquities. husband Darnley, as a proper person to be elected provost of Edinburgh. The recommendation was successful, and the preferment immediately took place. He appears to have joined the party against the Queen and Bothwell that associated to revenge the death of Darnley. He was provost of Edinburgh in 1567, and the queen lodged in his house in town the fatal night after she left the army at Carberry hill. About the time of the restoration, Craigmillar came to the family of Gilmour, to which it still belongs. This family, after residing some time at Craigmillar, came afterwards to reside at a building at the foot of the hill, which is now in ruins, and is termed the *Inch*, which signifies an island. It was anciently encompassed with water, and the entry to it was by a draw-bridge.

Morton. In the same parish, near the house of Morton, may still be discovered a part of the remains of a rampart of a circular, or rather of an oval form, intersected by the turnpike-road leading from Edinburgh to Biggar. Within these few years it was entire on the eastern side, but nearly the whole stones have now been carried off to repair the high road, it is supposed. It could not be one of the Roman camps, as they were of a square form, but is supposed to have been a Roman town. The Roman military way from Burnswork hill to the north issued into two branches at the town of Biggar. The left hand branch went by Carstairs and Cambus-Nethan, to the celebrated wall between the two Friths of Forth and Clyde, and at length was carried as far as the Roman arms penetrated. The other branch proceeded by Linton to the Roman town just now mentioned, and from thence was directed to Cramond, where the Romans had an important station, and where certain of their ships always attended for furnishing them with provisions. Another military road came from Teviotdale, or perhaps from the celebrated wall which

the emperor Hadrian erected between Carlisle and New- Antiquities.
castle upon Tyne, and led to this town. In the Celtic or Gaelic language, *more* signifies great or large. Hence the appellation *Morton* has been supposed to signify the great or large city. The road here for nearly a mile is formed precisely upon the line of the old Roman military way. This was intentionally done by the direction of the learned antiquarian, already mentioned, the late Sir John Clerk of Pennycuik, one of the barons of exchequer for Scotland.

On the north-east boundary of the parish of Dudding- Fishwives
ston, is a causeway of some antiquity, which at present re- causeway.
ceives the appellation of the *fishwives causeway*. It once formed a part of the great post road to London; and the fishwives, after that road was turned into a different direction, long refused to alter their well-known path. As it had been made in such a substantial manner, as to render it impracticable to reduce it easily under the plough, and as it afforded a convenient access to the adjoining fields, it was not shut up. It is said to be a remnant of those regular roads which the unfortunate queen Mary was anxious to form for the improvement of her barbarous kingdom. To the northward of this, in the parish of South Leith, in a direct line from the foot of the Canongate of Edinburgh to the sea, another road remains, which tradition ascribes to the same princess; but it does not appear to have been at any time substantially formed.

In dragging marl out of Duddingston loch some years ago, were found some coins, the inscription of which were effaced; the blade of a sword, and the heads of some spears and javelins. All of these, from their structure and materials behoved to be Roman. Some of them were sent to the museum of the king, and some were presented to the antiquarian society. In the adjacent meadow, in the opening of drains and ditches, under the first

Antiquities. strata of moss and gravel, have been found wrecks of oak trees, hazel bushes and nuts, and the almost consumed iron of horse-shoes of different dimensions. At the mouth of Duddingston, or the Figgat burn, have also been observed, immersed in a deep stratum of clay, the trunks of large oak trees, which, when cut or broken, have been found black as ebony to the heart. They may perhaps be remnants of the king's forests to the east of Edinburgh, in which it appears, by the original charter of erection of the monastery of the holy cross, the monks obtained a privilege to send their hogs to feed. According to tradition, this forest afforded shelter and a place of rendezvous to the chief of all the Scottish heroes, Sir William Wallace and his friends, while they were preparing to attack Berwick.

Inveresk. The parish of Inveresk, or the neighbourhood of Musselburgh, was the scene of many ancient transactions. It is observed by the respectable clergyman of that parish, Dr Alexander Carlyle, that the Romans did not fail to observe the fortunate situation of the hill of Inveresk, which, though not more than fifty feet above the level of the sea, commands an extensive view, not only of the adjacent country, but of the spacious bason of the Forth, which is there about eighteen miles broad, and of the coast of Fife, from Bruntisland to the mouth of the Forth. History assures us that they had a station here; and repeated discoveries point out the spot where the *prætorium* was built. It was undoubtedly on the summit of the hill where the church now stands. A building of high antiquity was situated at the east end of Musselburgh, which belonged to the abbey of Dunfermline. It was called the *Chapel of Loretto*. There are no remains of it now but a small cell, about twelve feet by ten, covered by a mount in the garden of the villa called *Loretto*. Soon after the reformation, about the year 1590, the tolbooth of Musselburgh

was built out of the ruins of this chapel, which must have been of considerable dimensions. The old steps of the tolbooth stair, which was repaired not long since, were the bases of the pillars of the chapel, according to the report of masons still living. This is said to have been the first religious house in Scotland whose ruins were applied to an unhallowed use; for which the good people of Musselburgh are said to have been *annually excommunicated*, till very lately, at Rome. Antiquities.

The bridge of Musselburgh over the Esk, between the two villages of Musselburgh and Fisherrow, is of unknown antiquity. It has been supposed to be a Roman work, as that people not only had many houses in Fisherrow, but also their harbour; and it would undoubtedly have proved extremely inconvenient to suffer their colony to be divided into two parts, or their harbour to be separated from their fort by a river, which frequently for many days cannot be forded. The arches are fifty feet wide, their spring only ten feet. The coomb of the most westerly arch appears to have sunk before the arch was thrown over, as it is on one side much flattened. It must have been the intention of those who erected this bridge, to place the road leading to it out of the reach of the tide: this circumstance, together with the situation of the harbour, demonstrates, that the sea, although it has been encroaching on the land above Leith, has at the bottom of this bay neither gained on the land nor retired from it. Musselburgh bridge.

At different times Roman coins have been found upon the territory adjacent to Inveresk. An altar was also found, with this inscription, *Apollini Granio*. Some years ago also a Roman bath of two rooms was discovered by some workmen when employed in removing a few feet of earth from the surface of the soil around a gentleman's villa. It is well known, that wherever this people went, they Roman baths.

Antiquities. made provision for the enjoyment of the most favourite of all their luxuries, the warm bath. At this place, only the floors and foundations of the baths were discovered, the superstructure having been cast down and removed, and the whole covered with earth in some former age. The floor remained entire, and about six inches high of the wall of the smallest room, which was nine feet long and four and a half wide. There was a communication through the partition wall for water by an earthen pipe. The other room was fifteen feet by nine. The floors of these and of the other rooms were covered with tarras, uniformly laid on, about two inches thick. Below this coat there was a coarser sort of lime and gravel, five inches deep, laid upon unshapely and unjointed flags. This floor stood on pillars two feet high, some of stone, and some of circular bricks. The earth had been removed to come to a solid foundation on which to erect the pillars. Under the tarras of the smallest room there was a coarser tarras, fully ten inches thick, which seemed intended to sustain or bear a more considerable fire under it, than the *hypocaustum* or floor above the fire of the largest room. There appeared to have been larger fires under it, as the pillars were injured by them; and there was found a quantity of charcoal in perfect preservation.

The *hypocaustum* of the larger room, or space under the tarras floor, was filled with earth, and with slices made of clay, which were laid every where between the rows of pillars, and were a little discoloured with smoke; a smaller degree of heat having been conveyed through them than through those under the other room. But those contrivances under the floors seem only to have been intended to preserve heat in the water, which had been carried warm from a kettle built up or hung on brick-work on

one side of the largest room. This brick-work was much injured by strong fires, and was four feet square. Antiquities.

The cement or tarras sufficiently proves the origin of the work, as the Roman composition used for cement is superior to any of later ages. The cement of the grand sewers under the city of Rome is said to be of the same kind; and it is also said that in Hindostan, in the very ancient buildings, the same preparation appears to have been used. Tradition reports, that in digging foundations for houses in Fisherrow, on the western-side of the river, there have been found similar ruins of baths; a circumstance which appears to demonstrate that this was not merely a military station, but a colony; that the Romans must have had many houses and buildings near the sea, as well as their *prætorium* at Inveresk. From the place where Fisherrow harbour now is there was once a Roman causeway, the traces of which, though now obliterated by cultivation, are not entirely forgotten. This causeway led towards Borthwick.

As a branch of later antiquities, it is to be remarked that Randolph Earl of Murray died at Musselburgh of the stone in July 1332; and tradition points out the house where he died near the east end of the town, on the south side. It is a vaulted house of two rooms on the ground floor; the rooms are about fourteen feet square, and the arch eight feet high, with a passage between them six feet high.

In this parish is the field of the battle of Pinkie, which we have already mentioned, and which was fought in the year 1547, during the infancy of our celebrated and unfortunate Queen Mary, whose name occupies so large a space in the later history of Scotland, and of whom we have already had occasion to notice several particulars. The battle of Pinkie was fought on the field that lies be- Battle of Pinkie.

Antiquities.

twixt the village of Inveresk and Walliford and Carberry, and was brought on by the usual rashness and impetuosity of the Scots. The Duke of Somerset, as protector of England during the minority of Edward the Sixth, attempted to enforce the project of Henry the Eighth to accomplish an union between Scotland and England. With this view, he raised an army of 18,000 men, and equipped a fleet consisting of thirty sail of ships of war, and thirty transports laden with ammunition and provisions. The war was attempted to be justified by the pretext of revenging some incursions of the borderers; at the same time, the ancient pretension was revived of the supremacy of the English crown over Scotland. A manifesto was issued, stating these reasons, and declaring a resolution to negociate upon no other terms than the union of the kingdoms by the marriage of the young English king to the infant Scottish Queen Mary. It was urged, that nature obviously intended the whole island for one empire, by surrounding it by a barrier which cuts it off from all communication with foreign states: That the language and customs of the people concurred with nature, and invited them to an union: That under one royal family, and one government, their ancient hostility would speedily give way to sentiments of amity, resulting from the prosperity which would arise to both nations from the more successful cultivation of the arts of peace, which would take place as soon as they should be relieved from the necessity of maintaining a warlike posture towards each other. These arguments did not convince the Scots, who were moreover influenced by the attachment of their Queen Dowager Mary of Guise to the interests of France and the catholic religion.

Origin of the war.

On advancing into Scotland, and encamping in this parish, the Duke of Somerset found the Scots so strongly posted that

no prospect existed of attacking them with success. He therefore offered to retreat, on condition that the Scots would agree not to contract their queen to any foreign prince till she should arrive at a proper age for choosing a husband for herself: but the Scots, rashly presuming upon the weakness of the English, from the moderation of the tone which their leader had now assumed, and being moreover urged on by their Roman catholic priests, who represented the English as detestable heretics, whom God had devoted to destruction, abandoned the advantage resulting from their strong position, and resolved to come to battle. They were divided into three bodies, commanded by the Earls of Angus, Arran, and Huntly, with some light horse and a body of Irish archers, whom the Earl of Argyle had brought over into Scotland.

Antiquities.

Proposal of peace.

The Scottish army were encamped on that large field west of the Esk which went by the name of *Edmonston Edge*; the English lay at the places now called *Drummore* and *Wallifford*. As the Scots passed the bridge of Musselburgh, and marched to the field up the hill of Inveresk on the west side of the church, there being then no village, and only two shepherds houses on that hill, they were annoyed by cannon-shot from the English galleys in the bay, insomuch that the Lord Graham, eldest son of the first Earl of Montrose, was killed on the bridge, with many of his followers. To have crossed the river at any other place would have been still more dangerous, as there was then a thick wood on the banks of it all the way to Dalkeith. After passing the church of Inveresk they must have been covered from the shot, as the ground slopes from thence down to the *How Mire* (in those days a morass, though now drained and cultivated), from whence it rises gently to the bottom of the hills of Carberry and Falside. On this gentle rising lay the field of action.

March of the Scots.

Antiquities.

The Scots, while crossing the bridge, having been put into some disorder by the fire of the English ships, Lord Grey, who commanded the English heavy armed horse, left his ground and attacked them, contrary to orders, in the hope of gaining to himself the whole glory of a victory. On advancing, however, he met with bad ground, beyond which the Scots were posted on a ploughed field, in a deep phalanx, with their spears pointed. The English horse could make no impression, and were instantly discomfited, and their leader dangerously wounded; but the Scots, having no good cavalry, could take no advantage of their success. Somerset rallied his cavalry, and in the mean while assailed the Scottish compact body of infantry with his artillery, with the fire of some Italian and Spanish Arquebusiers, and with a shower of arrows from his English archers. The van of the Scots, dismayed by these attacks, and by the approach of the English infantry, began to stagger, and the Irish archers fled. The panic rapidly communicated itself to the whole army, and a total route commenced. The English infantry began, not a battle but a pursuit, with shouts, and continued to commit bloody execution all the way to Edinburgh. They did not lose two hundred men, while of the Scots 10,000 were killed and 1500 made prisoners. The English gave no quarter to the priests that fell into their way. Somerset might have imposed almost any terms upon the Scots; but learning that dangerous intrigues were going on against him in England, he hastened home, and thus lost the opportunity of accomplishing the object of which he had come in pursuit.

Defeat of the Scots.

Hill of Carberry.

Just over the field of battle there is a hill, which was still more fatal to Queen Mary, and has been known ever since by the name of *the Queen's Seat*. It is the top of the hill of Carberry, where this unfortunate princess sat on

a stone, and held a conference with Kirkaldy of Grange, who had been commissioned for that purpose by the confederate lords. During this parley, Bothwell, who had taken leave of the queen for the last time, rode off the field to Dunbar. As soon as he was out of danger, Mary suffered herself to be led by Kirkaldy to Morton and the lords, who received her with due marks of respect, and ample promises of future loyalty and obedience. The sequel is well known. From that hour she was deprived of liberty for life, except for the few days that intervened between her escape from Lochlevin castle and her surrender to Elisabeth, after the fatal battle of Langside. The bloody field of Pinkie, under her eye, might have put this ill-fated queen on her guard; but, unfit for the rugged times in which she lived, she had the misfortune to be at once facile and obstinate. The late proprietor of Carberry, John Fullarton, Esq. has marked this spot to posterity by planting a copse of wood on it. Antiquities.

Before concluding the subject of the antiquities of this county, we may shortly take notice of the island of Inchkeith, situated in the middle of the Forth off Leith. A few sheep and rabbits live upon it. On the highest point are the remains of an ancient fortress, which was, about the time of the Reformation, accounted of considerable importance, but has long been demolished. The island itself, along with the barony of Keith in East Lothian, and other lands, were granted, along with the office of hereditary grand marshal of Scotland, by King Malcolm, to one Robert, as a reward for killing Camus, the king and champion of the Danes, at the battle of Barry, in the year 1010. From the lands Robert took the name of Keith, and they belonged for many ages to his family. The celebrated Marshal Keith, in the Russian and Prussian services, was a younger son of this family; but its fortunes in Inchkeith.

Country-seats, &c.

this country were all forfeited to the crown, and the property sold, in consequence of the head of it joining in the rebellion in 1715. A lighthouse was established on Inchkeith during the last winter.

In the western part of this county, near the Pentland Hills, there are a considerable number of proprietors whose estates are of moderate extent. Such estates are frequently changing their owners; a circumstance which is extremely advantageous to the improvement of the country. The new proprietors are usually active and wealthy men, who eagerly engage in ameliorating and adorning the territory which they have acquired. Hence, in this quarter, plantations and inclosures are daily springing up; and the moors and mosses which border upon the Pentland hills are subdued, and rendered fertile by human industry.

Brotherton.

In almost every part of Scotland, in consequence of the deep glens in which the waters run, it is extremely easy, by planting their banks, to beautify, in an uncommon degree, a variety of sequestrate spots. As an example of this, we cannot avoid taking notice of the successful efforts of the lately deceased Mr Davie of Edinburgh upon the estate of Brotherton, in the parish of West Calder, on one of the small streams which fall into the Almond. He not only reduced the lands in general under the most perfect agriculture, from a state of extreme rudeness and sterility, by planting, in a judicious manner, the lofty and rugged banks of the stream adjoining to his house, but he contrived to produce an extent of pleasing and interesting scenery which is surpassed in few situations. At a trifling cost winding walks have been cut out along the shelving or precipitous banks of the stream. These walks are everywhere overhung with wood, through which openings have been judiciously formed to afford views of the sur-

rounding scenery. Rustic seats are placed in proper situations; and in a retired corner a rude cave has been formed in the solid rock. At one point, where the lofty banks of the river recede from each other, a small valley is formed, in which a rustic grotto has been built. As the spot is sheltered from every blast, so as to produce as great a stagnation of air as the current of a flowing stream will permit, the sun's rays have great power here; and an uncommon luxuriance of vegetation prevails during the summer months, which gives to the flowering shrubs and trees which skirt the valley a richness of aspect, which is highly pleasing, because almost unexampled in this climate. Country-seats, &c.

We have already remarked that the parish of Mid Calder is much adorned with plantations; and Calder house, the seat of Lord Torphichen, already mentioned, is a very stately fabric. In the parish of Ratho we have also mentioned a variety of pleasure grounds. Hatton, in particular, which formerly belonged to the Earl of Lauderdale, is a venerable ancient house, with extensive gardens, and is surrounded with plantations and inclosures of at least 800 acres of ground. Eastward from this is Dalmahoy, the principal seat of the Earl of Morton. Dalmahoy house is beautifully situated in the midst of a park which contains between 400 and 500 acres. The Park is inclosed by a well-built wall, and is subdivided into lesser commodious inclosures by a sunk fence and belts of planting. Calder house, Hatton, &c.

In the parish of Collinton, Sir William Forbes, banker in Edinburgh, has lately erected, upon the banks of the Water of Leith, a beautiful dwelling, which, on account of its conspicuous situation, is no small ornament to the neighbourhood. Nearer to the Pentland hills a house is now building, upon the lands of Dreghorn, by Mr Trotter, secretary to the navy, which, when completed, must be a work of vast magnitude. But it is in vain to at-

Country-seats, &c.

tempt to specify the elegant villas which abound in the vicinity of Edinburgh. One of them, however, to the

Braid, &c.

southward of the city, that of Braid, deserves notice, on account of its singularity, being a handsome and costly house, placed in the bottom of a ravine, or narrow glen, planted with wood, through which runs a stream of water. The house is so completely concealed that a stranger may almost look down the chimneys from the adjoining height before he discovers its existence. On the north side of the city, in the parishes of St Cuthberts and Cramond, are a great variety of beautiful buildings. That of Ravelstone, at the eastern foot of the Corstorphine hills, is remarkable, on account of the ancient woods around it, and irregular grounds, affording a vast variety of interesting prospects. The ancient house of Royston, upon the sea-shore, is one of the largest buildings in this part of the country.

Pennycuick house.

To the south of the Pentland hills, the house of Pennycuick is the first that deserves notice. This edifice was built, about 1761, by a former proprietor, Sir James Clark, Bart. It stands upon a flat above the Esk, and by taking advantage of a turn in the river, the back front looks up the glen, formed by its banks, to the ruins of Brunston castle and the western extremity of the Pentland hills. In a flat immediately below the house, in the same direction, is an artificial piece of water, and the garden, with extensive green and hot houses. Both sides of the river are diversified with eminences and glens; and the ascents behind the garden, and on the opposite side of the river, are entirely covered with wood. The front of the house is ornamented with a handsome portico, supported by eight columns, having a flight of steps on each side defended by ballustrades. The materials were brought from the Mairfield quarry, near the upper end of the parish. The roof

is covered with lead, and a row of vases are placed on the top. In the house are a considerable number of Roman antiquities, cut in stone; part of which were brought from a Roman camp at Netherby, and some from Graham's dyke. The front of the offices lies nearly diagonally to the house, at the distance of 280 feet. They form a large square, with a rustic portico and elegant spire, with a clock in front; and behind them, to answer the purposes of a pigeon-house, is an exact representation of the celebrated Roman temple called *Arthur's Oven*. To the westward, and above the level of the house, is another large piece of water, well stocked with various kinds of fish. A round tower, placed on a conic eminence in front, is seen at a great distance. On the opposite side of the river, facing the south, an obelisk is raised, at the end of an avenue, on the top of the bank, to the memory of Allan Ramsay, the famous Scottish poet. The approach towards the village from the tower, anciently called *Terregles*, along the northern declivity to the river, exhibits one of the most luxuriant and striking scenes any where to be seen. About one-eighth of a mile above the garden, a timber-bridge formerly crossed the river, at the south end of which is an entry into a subterraneous passage called *Hurly Cur*, forty-nine yards long, seven feet high, and six feet broad; in the middle of which, on the west side, is a dark cell, with seats cut round capable of containing six or eight people; the whole being cut out of the solid rock in 1742. At the south end are the remains of a small summer-house, where was a little kitchen and dining-room; and in the front is a pond well stored with fish and trout. The large plantations of trees of various kinds, in summer, form a most beautiful amphitheatre. These appendages to Pennycuick house render it unusually interesting, although in itself it is by no

Country-seats, &c.

Country-seats, &c.

means magnificent or conspicuous, when compared with multitude of other buildings in this county. The most remarkable part of the interior of it is an apartment styled the *Hall of Ossian*, which strangers frequently visit. Here the most singular and striking scenes described in these interesting poems are represented by the pencil of Runciman, a painter whose representations are of a bold and striking character, though seldom corresponding with the simplicity of nature.

On the same river, the North Esk, are a variety of beautiful country seats, which are surrounded with considerable plantations. Among these, in particular, may be

Melville castle, &c.

mentioned, Dryden, Polton, Mavisbank, and Melville Castle. This last is a splendid building, erected not many years ago by Henry Dundas, Esq. now Lord Melville. It was built on the site of an old house of the same name, which, with the estate attached to it, Queen Mary anxiously but unsuccessfully endeavoured to procure for her favourite David Rizzio.

On the South Esk, the most remarkable buildings are

Arniston.

Arniston, Dalhousie Castle, and Newbattle Abbey. The first of these is chiefly of importance, as it has long been the residence of the elder branch of that family of Dundas, which, during the greater part of the late century, afforded so many conspicuous members to the department of the Scottish bar; and which, in the person of Lord Melville, has attained, for a long series of years, to such permanent political importance in the councils of the empire.

Dalhousie.

The Castle of Dalhousie, in the parish of Cockpen, is a building of great antiquity, constructed in the old Scottish taste. It is pleasantly situated on the northern bank of the river, which runs at a few yards distance from the foot of the walls. This castle was modernized by the

late Earl of Dalhousie, and has thereby lost much of its former venerable aspect. The grounds around it are by nature peculiarly adapted for extensive and romantic pleasure grounds. A little lower, on the opposite bank of the same river, stood the mansion-house of Cockpen, lately purchased by the Earl of Dalhousie from Mr Baron Cockburn, by whom the adjacent lands had been inclosed and greatly improved. Along the steep and woody banks of the river he had also formed various walks, at a great expence, and in the best taste; but a few naked walls are all now that remain of this mansion; serving, however, to increase the wild and romantic beauty of the surrounding scenery. Country-seats, &c.

Newbattle abbey, the seat of the Marquis of Lothian, is a large modern building; and the plan of it, especially within, discovers good taste and judgment in the architect. In the library are several manuscripts in folio, written upon vellum, in the Saxon character; and every page of them is adorned with pictures emblematic of the respective subjects of which they treat. Of these books the most highly finished are, *Jean Boccace des cas des Nobles Hommes et Femmes*, 1409; *John Tikyt hymni; Titus Livius, per P. Berceun; Augustin de la Cit de Dieu.* And in all of them the figures are coloured and gilded with so much delicacy and richness, as to afford a very interesting specimen of the labour and elegance with which they have been executed. These manuscripts had in former times belonged to the abbey, the monks of which were of the Cistertian order. It was founded and endowed by David the First. A wall surrounded it, which is almost entire, and retains the name of the *Monkland wall.* The modern house is raised upon the spot which was formerly occupied by the monastery. Newbattle abbey.

Country-seats, &c.

At Newbattle abbey are many valuable portraits and paintings. Among others are to be found,

Portraits at Newbattle abbey.

MARK KER, prior of Newbattle, who at the reformation complied with the times, and got the estate of the abbey.

The heads of MARK Earl of Lothian and his lady, by Sir Antonio More.

A remarkable fine piece of our three first circumnavigators, DRAKE, HAWKINS, and CANDISH, half-length.

Three Boys and Girls in low life by Morillio.

The DOGE OF VENICE by Titian.

Earl MORTON, regent, half-length, a yellow beard.

Lady TUFTON; a fine half-length.

A full length of JAMES the First by Jameson. Another of CHARLES the First when young, in rich armour, black and gold.

Head of ROBERT CAR, created Earl of Somerset by JAMES Sixth of Scotland and First of England. The countenance is effeminate, with small features, light flaxen or yellowish hair, and a very small beard. Is an original of that favourite.

His father Sir ROBERT CAR.

A head of an Earl of Somerset, with long, light, yellowish hair.

The Wife of PHILIP the Bold, inscribed, *Marga Mala Lodo Mala*.

His daughter the Duchess of Orleans.

A beautiful half-length of Henrietta Queen of Charles the First.

His daughter the Duchess of Orleans.

Some small portraits, studies of Vandyke. Among which is one of WILLIAM Earl of Pembroke, of whom Lord Clarendon gives so advantageous a character.

Prince RUPERT and Prince MAURICE in one piece.

A head of Madame MONTPENSIER, and of several other illustrious persons belonging to the court of Louis XIII. Country-seats, &c.

A large half-length of HENRY DARNLEY, the husband of Queen Mary.

A beautiful head of MARY OF GUISE, the mother of the same queen.

The modern house is surrounded by a level lawn containing about thirty acres of ground. It is watered on the one side by the river South Esk, which, after rolling through the rocks of Cockpen, flows along the park in a quiet stream, and is overhung with flourishing plantations. On the other side it is skirted by a waving line of woods, which, complying with the ascents and swelling of the banks, are seen rising above one another, and exhibits a beautiful variety of shades. At the east end it is terminated by an aged bridge, rudely built, and overspread with ivy. Rows of trees, in the opposite direction, close at a proper distance into vistas; while the eye, in wandering over the beauties of the scene, is caught by the simple spire of the parish church, and by the smoke, which, mounting from the adjacent village, lingers among the tops of the trees.

Farther down the river stands Dalkeith house, the principal seat in Scotland of the Duke of Buccleugh. In ancient times, this appears to have been a place of considerable strength, and to have stood some sieges. It was situated on a perpendicular rock of great height, and inaccessible on all sides except on the east, where it was defended by a fosse, through which the river is said to have formerly run. It was for some centuries the principal residence of the noble family of Morton. And history records, that James the Ninth, and last Earl of Douglas, exasperated against John Douglas, lord of Dalkeith, for espousing the cause of King James Second, who had basely Dalkeith house.

Country-seats, &c.

murdered William, eighth earl of the illustrious house of Douglas, at Stirling, laid siege to the castle of Dalkeith, binding himself, by a solemn oath, not to desist till he had made himself master of it. It was, however, so gallantly defended by Patrick Cockburn of Clerkington, that the Earl of Douglas and his followers, after undergoing much toil, and receiving many wounds, found themselves unable to reduce it, and were obliged to raise the siege. On the defeat of the Scottish army at Pinkie, A. D. 1547, many fled to the castle of Dalkeith for refuge; among whom were James Earl of Morton, afterwards regent of Scotland, and Sir David Hume of Wedderburn. It was besieged by the English, and defended for some time; but as it contained not a sufficient store of provisions for such a number of men as had fled to it, and as the besieged had no hopes of succour against the victorious army, it was obliged to surrender; in consequence of which the earl and Sir David were made prisoners.

In the year 1642, the estate of Dalkeith came into the possession of the family of Scot of Buccleugh by purchase from the Earl of Morton.

About the beginning of the late century, the present very magnificent house was built, on the site of the old castle, by Ann Duchess of Buccleugh and Monmouth. The fosse, already mentioned, which guarded the castle on the east, was filled up, and a large mound of forced earth raised around the rock. It is now a pleasant bank, and adorned with a variety of delightful shrubs. The beauty of the situation, which is deservedly admired, is greatly heightened by the windings of the river, and the abundance of thriving wood with which it is surrounded. The Duke has lately built an elegant bridge of beautiful white stone over the North Esk, which is a great ornament to the surrounding scenery, and forms a fine object

when seen, as it is in great perfection, from the windows of the house. It consists of one large arch seventy feet wide and forty-five in height. By means of this bridge, a new approach will be opened to the house, and one of the most delightful that can be imagined. The park in which Dalkeith house is situated is of great extent, containing about eight hundred Scotch acres. It is completely surrounded by a wall built with stone and lime, and about eight or nine feet high. There is a great variety of excellent wood in it, particularly a number of fine venerable oaks of great antiquity; but several of them begin to experience the effects of time, and are seeming to decay. The North and South Esk run through the park, and unite their winding streams about half a mile below Dalkeith house. Country-seats, &c.

The portraits at Dalkeith house are numerous, and some of them very valuable. Among others are, Portraits at Dalkeith house.

The first Duke of RICHMOND and his duchess.

The Duchess of CLEVELAND.

Countess of BUCCLEUGH, mother to the Duchess of Monmouth, and Lady EGLINTON her sister.

The Duchess and her two sons: the Duchess of YORK, her hand remarkably fine: the Duchess of LENOX.

Mrs SUSANNA WATERS, mother of the Duke of Monmouth, with his picture in her hand.

Duchess of CLEVELAND and her son, an infant; she in the character of a Maddona.

The Duke of MONMOUTH in the character of a young St John.

Lord STRAFFORD and his Secretary; a small study of Vandyke.

HENRY the Eighth, and Queen CATHARINE with the divorce in her hand; two small pieces by Felbein.

Anna BULLEIN, by the same, dressed in a black

Country-seats, &c.

gown, large yellow netted sleeves, in a black cap peaked behind.

Lady JANE GRAY, with long hair, black and very thick, not handsome.

The Duke of MONMOUTH on horseback; also in armour.

The Duchess of RICHMOND, by Sir Peter Lely. A head of the late Duke of ORMOND, much admired. A beautiful head of our unfortunate Queen MARY, with many others.

In this ducal palace is an apartment which was entirely furnished by Charles the Second on occasion of the marriage of the Duke of Monmouth with the heiress of the house.

Prestonhall and Oxenford.

To the eastward of the vale of the Esk the country ascends, as already mentioned, and, after some interval, again descends, forming another valley, in a higher level, in which is the river Tyne, which flows in a north-easterly direction into East Lothian. In the parish of Cranston, on opposite banks of the Tyne, are the two magnificent structures of Prestonhall and Oxenford castle, around which is a richly cultivated territory, chequered with trees and corn fields. To the westward of the valley of the Esk, and betwixt that valley and Edinburgh, are a great variety of seats and pleasure-grounds.

Drum.

Of these may be noticed that called the *Drum*, a large building, which belonged to Lord Somervile; and in the park adjoining to which, the most remarkable part of the ancient cross of Edinburgh is still preserved. It is worthy of notice, that the family of Somervile, and that of Wauchope of Niddry, were for some time the most ancient in the county of Midlothian. The estate of the family of Somervile has been lately sold, and the nobleman who bears that title resides in England. The prio-

rity, therefore, of antiquity among the families of this county now remains with the Wauchopes of Niddry.

Country-seats, &c.

In the same parish of Liberton, in which these are situated, is Mortonhall, which in the reign of James the Third formed a part of the property of the St Clairs (Sinclairs) of Roslin. It came by purchase into the possession of the present family of Trotter in 1641. The present house was erected in 1699. It is a massy fabric of hewn stone, in the modern taste, and is probably the most substantial and best furnished great house in Midlothian. Every part of it is elegant, though, at the same time, accommodation is not sacrificed, as is too frequently done in modern buildings, to the ostentatious display of one or two great apartments. It contains a library of upwards of 3000 volumes, in which is a very complete collection of the Greek and Roman classics, and of the principal of the French, English, and Italian writers. The house is situated on the south side of a rising ground, which conceals it from Edinburgh. It is surrounded by abundance of forest trees; and the present proprietor is now forming the environs into a beautiful park.

Morton-hall.

Last of all, we shall mention the house of Duddingston. About the year 1767 the late Earl of Abercorn began to subdivide his estate into commodious farms, to build convenient farm-houses and offices upon each, and to inclose them with ditches and hedges. The estate was thus reduced into a regular and progressive state of cultivation, and the country beautifully adorned with hedgerows, clumps, and plantations of various forms and extent. The house and offices were finished, and exhibit a beautiful specimen of Grecian architecture, but with no great extent of accommodation. This villa, with the pleasure grounds or park which have been annexed to it, exhibits an example of all that money or art can do to

Dudding-ston house.

Eminent Characters.

adorn a merely flat surface, through which a small stream of water naturally runs: Clumps, groves, canals, lakes, isles, cascades, temples, shrubbery, serpentine walks, and spreading lawns. In every corner Art and expence have been ostentatiously displayed; and Nature is evidently employed merely as her handmaid. Such a place as this, however, has considerable beauty, and excites much interest, in a country like Scotland, where bold natural scenery so much abounds, by the striking contrast which it exhibits to the general aspect of the surrounding territory.

Sir James Sandilands.

In the parish of Midcalder, about the time of the reformation, Sir James Sandilands appears to have been a man of considerable distinction. Being a knight of Malta, he was raised to the preceptory of Torphichen, in the county of Linlithgow, where the order to which he belonged had their principal residence in Scotland, and where the ruins of their house and chapel are still to be seen. He was engaged in several important negotiations during the reformation of religion in Scotland; and when popery was overturned, the preceptory of Torphichen was converted into a temporal barony; and it, together with the title and dignity of a lord of parliament, was conferred on Sir James, for which he immediately paid 10,000 crowns, and became bound that 509 merks should be paid annually to the sovereign by him, and those who should succeed him. The title has remained in the family ever since.

Spottiswoods.

In the same parish, two clergymen of the name of Spottiswood, the father and son, were distinguished men in former times. Mr John Spottiswood, the father, was parson here during the tempestuous period of the reformation; he was afterwards appointed superintendant of

the churches in Lothian, Merse, and Teviotdale. These superintendants were a sort of dignitaries in the Scottish church, who were established after the bishops had lost their power, but before the presbyterian form of government had been brought to its perfection so as to equalize the whole clergy. The son of this superintendant succeeded him as parson of Calder, but was afterwards, on the temporary restoration of the hierarchy, made archbishop of Glasgow. He was one of the privy-counsellors of James the Sixth; he crowned Charles the First in the chapel of Holyroodhouse; and died archbishop of St Andrew's. He wrote a history of the church of Scotland. A house, and part of the furniture belonging to him, remained at Midcalder within these few years. Eminent Characters.

In the parish of Kirknewton, the celebrated Dr William Cullen, physician in Edinburgh, was proprietor of the estate of Ormiston hill, and he lies interred in the churchyard of Kirknewton. This gentleman's great talents as a teacher of medicine, as a practical physician, and as a philosopher, are universally known and acknowleged. He taught in succession different classes in the university of Edinburgh; and in all of them he at once demonstrated the superiority of his own powers, and gave greater interest than it had formerly possessed to whatever subject he endeavoured to illustrate. He held the chair of chemistry before that science had received those wonderful improvements which in modern times have rendered it so engaging as well as useful. Even then, however, his sagacity not only rendered it interesting, but pointed towards some of those discoveries which have since become of so much practical utility, and have thrown so much light upon the operations of nature. This was particularly the case with regard to a part of the doctrine of heat. He pointed out the singular and important fact of cold being Dr Cullen,

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generated by evaporation, or that this is the mode in which heat, in many bodies, equalizes or distributes itself. Thus, water never rises above 212 degrees of heat, because at that point a rapid evaporation commences, which carries off whatever additional heat can be thrown into it. This, no doubt, every body knows; but it ought to be remembered, that for ages the fact had not been understood, and that the acuteness of the man who first discovered it must have been superior to that of former labourers in the same department. It is, indeed, the fate of the labours of men of true science, that, unless in the judgement of the wise, they do not lead to very lasting renown. Time, and the patient observation of successive minds, are necessary to the investigation of nature; each individual can only add a moderate portion to the great fabric of science; and future times, raised to a more elevated station by the efforts of successive investigators of truth, are apt to look back with neglect upon the industry of those who laid the foundation of the structure. Boyle is scarcely now remembered as a chemist, though his ingenuity was great, and his labours most valuable and extensive; and, in the progress of science, the time will no doubt arrive, and its arrival is to be regarded as a consummation devoutly to be wished, when the labours of Lavoisier in chemistry, of Cullen in medical science, and of other philosophers in those branches of knowledge which of late have been most successfully improved, will be neglected, in consequence of the superior progress and more extensive attainments of future times. This, however, will not diminish the just estimation due to those active and penetrating minds who accelerate the progress of science, and thereby produce that very superiority of intelligence which ultimately causes themselves to be forgotten.

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Dr Cullen extended his researches much beyond the mere labours of his profession. He was an ardent speculator in agriculture. In the year 1758, he delivered to a number of his friends and favourite pupils nine lectures on the subject of agriculture. In these he endeavoured to explain the principles of that art; and is said to have pointed out the chief practical improvements which have since been adopted in it in this country, and have augmented, in a most remarkable degree, the productive powers of the soil. The justness of his principles he demonstrated by his practice on the lands of Ormiston hill, which, though naturally of an ungrateful soil, rendered worse by immemorial bad management, and situated in an unfavourable climate, he raised, in a few years, to a surprising degree of culture and fertility. Early in life he was a proficient in botany, and was the first person in Scotland who understood the Linnæan system, and recommended the study of it to his pupils at a time when it met with much opposition from others. In his gardens and pleasure grounds of Ormiston hill he formed an extensive collection of rare trees, shrubs, and herbaceous plants. The cultivation of these, and the accurate determination of their species, afforded him always an agreeable relaxation from the more serious studies and labours of his profession. But, however much he may have been distinguished as a philosopher, and as a teacher of science, Dr Cullen was perhaps still more remarkable for his urbanity of manners, and the humanity of his character. In Edinburgh his students had at all times easy access to him. He paid particular attention to great numbers of them, and introduced the practice, which still exists, that when any student of medicine attending the university falls into sickness, he receives gratuitously the attendance of any one or more of the medical professors whose assistance he may think fit to re-

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quest. While he resided in the country, Dr Cullen testified the utmost readiness to give his valuable advice to the poor *gratis* on every occasion of distress, and attended them as anxiously as those of the first rank in the realm, for whom he daily prescribed. In this he seemed to be of the opinion of his famous predecessor Dr Boerhaave, who used to say, that the poor were the *best patients*, for God is their paymaster.

A great part of the property of the county of Midlothian appears to have been at some period or other possessed by men connected with the profession of the law. From the vicinity of the capital, when such men acquired wealth, they would naturally endeavour to lay it out in the purchase of lands here, as not withdrawing them far from the scene of their employment. At the same time, the vicinity of a capital, by the habits of expence which it introduces, is unfavourable to the preservation of riches. Accordingly, before families were protected by strict entails, many changes of property here occurred. Still, however, a considerable portion of territory remains possessed by persons whose ancestors acquired it in the profession of the law. In the parish of Currie, Sir Thomas Craig of Riccarton was lord advocate, and the defender, in a learned treatise, of the independence of his country, and the expounder of the feudal system. Being a man of singular modesty, he refused the honour of knighthood, nor would he ever give the king an opportunity of conferring it upon him. He enjoyed it, however, during his life without any creation, which was still a higher honour, by the express order of the sovereign. The Scots of Maleny, father and son, were likewise eminent lawyers at the same period, and the latter had a seat upon the bench. Sir John Skene of Curriehill, lord register in the reign of James the Sixth, was of a family nearly related to the blood royal. Sir

Sir Thomas Craig.

James Skene, his son, was president of the court of session. Eminent Characters.

The late Dr William Wilkie was minister of Ratho, till, in 1760, he was appointed professor of natural philosophy in the university of St Andrews. This gentleman, along with some peculiarities of character, such as that of encumbering his person with an enormous quantity of clothes to keep himself warm, possessed very distinguished talents and extensive knowledge. In particular, he wrote an epic poem, which he entitled the *Epigoniad*, and which possesses great poetical merit. He was, however, undoubtedly unfortunate in the choice of his subject. It is evident that a piece of Grecian history could not well furnish materials for an epic poem which would prove highly interesting in Britain. Homer and Virgil judiciously selected, as objects of description, the early heroes of their own country, whom tradition had reported to be founders of states, or ancestors of the people who were to peruse their works. Voltaire did the same; and the great English epic poet, Milton, not finding a suitable subject in English history, adopted one which could not fail to prove interesting to mankind, or at least to the Christian world at large. But the Epigoniad of Wilkie, containing the siege of a Grecian town, necessarily contains nothing which could interest his own countrymen in the fortunes of his heroes; and from its resemblance to Pope's Homer, it appears to our feelings nothing more than a mere imitation or continuation of that book. Dr Wilkie.

In the parish of Cramond is an ancient mansion, which, with the lands adjacent, was the property of the celebrated John Law of Lauriston, and still belongs to his family. He was a bold speculator in the slippery science of political economy, while that science was still in its infancy. Having published upon that subject previous to the Law of Lauriston.

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treaty of union, when Scotland still possessed an independent legislature, he attracted the notice, and obtained the implicit confidence, of many persons of high rank. At the time when the Scots were extremely dispirited, and their commerce severely injured by the failure of the Darien expedition, and the losses sustained by the African company, Law brought forward a project, which was instantaneously to exalt Scotland to the highest pitch of riches and prosperity. It appears to have been founded upon the erroneous notion, which was long prevalent among speculative men, that as current money is the representative of lands and goods, there may be at any time circulating money in a country equal to the whole price of all the lands and goods belonging to the nation; the money and the property being regarded as the representatives and counterparts of each other. It was likewise supposed that this money might safely be made to consist of paper or promissory notes; and thus it was thought, that, by issuing abundance of notes on the security of lands and goods, money might be made to abound in such an enormous degree, that the Scots would be enabled to equal, in their activity and commercial enterprises, the wealthy states of England and Holland. Now that farther experience has instructed mankind better upon this subject, it seems strange that so obvious a fact should have been overlooked, as that money only represents goods or lands which are brought to market; and that in the course of one day a guinea may pass through ten different hands, or may become the means of buying and selling ten times its own value in goods. Thus in the course of a year, a guinea may represent property to the amount of two or three thousand times its own worth. Law's project for the exaltation of Scotland consisted of constituting a council of trade, under the controul of parliament, with power to is-

sue notes, which were to be circulated in three ways: 1*st*, By purchasing lands, and paying the price in these notes; 2*dly*, By purchasing lands at a full price, to be paid in these notes; but with a power of redemption for a certain time in favour of the seller; and, *lastly*, By lending money to proprietors of land at ordinary interest, to the extent of two-thirds of the value of their land. It was alledged that the security of the notes would be undoubted, being thus uniformly fixed upon land; and that they would be preferred to gold and silver. And it was proposed to declare them a legal tender of payment, or to compel the acceptance of them in all transactions.

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The Scottish nation have usually been extremely fond of novelties, and ready to run eagerly into them. On this occasion, however, a majority of the parliament resolved that it was improper to oblige the public to receive paper money of any sort. The scheme is said to have been considered as extremely practicable; but an apprehension was entertained, that, by means of Law's scheme, government would become the creditor, and thereby the master of every proprietor of land in the nation.

Law, thus unsuccessful in procuring the acceptance of his scheme in his own country, next visited the principal cities on the continent of Europe. His personal address, and his uncommon skill and success as a gamester, procured him countenance and support in all countries. He settled at last in Paris, and was there during the regency of the Duke of Orleans as guardian of Louis XV. The expensive wars by which the ambition of Louis XIV. had exhausted France, had brought the national finances into such a state of embarrassment, that a bankruptcy on the part of government seemed inevitable. Law stood forward at this critical juncture with projects for creating paper money; in which he alledged that no nation could sufficiently

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abound. With a people much more volatile, and enthusiastically fond of novelties, than the Scots, his projects were received with boundless avidity; and he speedily rose to the office of comptroller-general of the finances of France—an office equivalent to that of prime minister. He created, what had not been permitted in Scotland, a royal bank, and united with it the plan of a company for colonizing the great territory of Louisiana; the access to which territory being by the river Mississippi, gave to his project the name of the *Mississippi system*. His project produced its natural effect. As no provision was made for preserving the credit of the paper money, either by giving specie in exchange for it on demand, or by making the quantity so small, that its credit might be supported by its being received in payment of the usual taxes, it soon sunk in value; and along with it the shares of the company for colonizing Louisiana sunk almost to nothing. The royal bank and the company became at once insolvent, and along with them the government itself. Law was under the necessity of flying from the kingdom to escape the fury of a people who had recently looked up to him with a sort of adoration, and expected to attain to boundless riches by his ingenuity. He ultimately retired to Venice; where, in the year 1729, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, he died in obscurity and indigence. His property, however, in the parish of Cramond (Lauriston) still belongs to his family, who from his time have been settled in France. It is in the memory of every one, that the ratification of the short-lived treaty of peace, concluded during the administration of Mr Addington, was brought to London by an aid-de-camp of Bonaparte, citizen Lauriston, the owner of the mansion of that name.

Balmerinoch.

In the same parish of Cramond, Barnton was at one time the property of the family of Balmerinoch. John

Elphinston, second Lord Balmerinoch, a nobleman noted for his spirited opposition to the tyrannical proceedings of Charles I. for which he narrowly escaped losing his head, and for being the best friend that the covenanters ever had, as he spent a great fortune in support of their cause. This family appears to have changed sides; for Arthur, sixth Lord Balmerinoch, was beheaded on the Tower-hill of London, on the 18th of August 1746, on account of his having supported the Stuart family in the unfortunate rebellion of the preceding year. Eminent Characters.

Sir Thomas Hope of Granton, advocate to Charles I. was one of the most distinguished lawyers at the Scottish bar, and gave great assistance towards the establishment of the presbyterian mode of worship. Royston, in the same parish, was the residence of Sir George M'Kenzie, afterwards Earl of Cromarty. His voluminous and ingenious writings upon theology and municipal law, and his zeal for the advancement of literature, might have gained to him an honourable fame, and the gratitude of future times; but his memory has been rendered justly odious by his having prostituted his talents in subserviency to the unprincipled politics of the two last princes of the Stuart family. Sir Thomas Hope. Sir George M'Kenzie.

It may be remarked, that in the parish of St Cuthbert's, south-west from Edinburgh castle, stands on an eminence an ancient building, called *Merchiston tower*, which was the residence of the celebrated Napier of Merchiston, the inventor of the logarithms. In ancient times, every baron, or proprietor of lands holding immediately of the crown, was bound to attend the king when summoned to parliament. This was considered as a grievous hardship by the petty barons; and accordingly, as a matter of favour, they obtained permission to send delegates, whose expences they defrayed in the same manner as had Lord Napier.

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been previously done by the boroughs. Still, however, such barons as thought fit, or could afford the expence, continued personally to attend in parliament. The family of Napier are said to have been of this number; and upon that footing, to this day, to retain their privileges as lords of the Scottish parliament.

Judge-Admiral Philp.

In the parish of Glencross, the character of James Philp, Esq. of Greenlaw there, is worthy of notice. He was educated as a lawyer under Heineccius, Vitriarius, and other eminent civilians in Germany and Holland. Soon after his return from abroad, he was appointed judge of the high court of admiralty. His profound knowledge in maritime law enabled him to execute this office for many years with much reputation. He was a man noted and beloved for the mildness and urbanity of his mind and manners; but he appears also to have been a man of inflexible rectitude.

In the year 1754, the gentleman, who was afterwards admiral Sir Hugh Palliser, was commander of the Seahorse man of war lying in the roads of Leith. A man, under indentures as an apprentice, had been enlisted as a sailor on board this ship. On a petition from his master, and on production of the indenture, judge Philp granted a warrant to bring the man ashore to be examined. A messenger went on board to apprehend him; but was told by Captain Palliser, that he considered himself as subject only to the lords of the admiralty, and that he would not suffer the man to go ashore. Upon this the messenger, with his blazon on his breast, broke his rod of peace, and reported this illegal act of deforcement to the admiralty court. The judge, Mr Philp, then granted a warrant to apprehend Captain Palliser himself, and to commit him to prison. No attempt was made to execute this warrant till Captain Palliser accidentally came on shore, when he

was instantly seized and imprisoned. Next day he was brought into court, and refused to submit to its jurisdiction, asserting that he held his commission from the board of admiralty, to which alone he was responsible for his conduct. He was therefore sent back to prison, where he remained about six weeks, till the apprentice was delivered up to his master. When the case was reported by the Earl of Findlater, then lord high admiral of Scotland, to Lord Chancellor Hardwick, the latter remarked, that "he was a bold judge who had done this; but what he had done was right." This high-spirited conduct, from a man of uncommonly mild manners like Mr Philp, met with universal approbation. It reminded his countrymen of the behaviour of the English Chief-Justice Hall, who, in the court of king's bench, ordered the speaker of the house of commons, attended by a committee, to take himself away, assuring him, that if he did not instantly depart he would commit him to Newgate though the whole house of commons were in his belly. Eminent Characters.

It is said, however, to this day, by the Scottish *bons vivans*, or lovers of good wine, who are not few, that Sir Hugh Palliser obtained a severe revenge against the Scots on account of the affront he sustained in the above affair. Before the treaty of union French wines had been subjected, on their importation to Scotland, to very trifling, or rather to no duties. They were therefore imported in great abundance; and claret was universally used by all persons in easy circumstances. After the treaty of union, and after what is called the *Methven treaty* with Portugal, by which the Portuguese wines obtained a preference in Britain, the French wines being thereby subjected to double duties, the British ministry avoided enforcing the law in Scotland. They had two reasons for this. In the *first* place, Scotland was considered as a poor country, the re-

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venue from which was of little importance; and, *secondly*, they did not wish to render the union unpopular, by violently attacking, or attempting to alter the ancient habits of the people. Accordingly, they connived at the importation to Scotland of French wines under the name of Portuguese wines. It is said, however, with what truth we know not, that Sir Hugh Palliser, on his return to England, represented Scotland as now become a wealthy and luxurious country; remonstrated with administration against their past conduct, in allowing the revenue to be defrauded annually of a large sum of money; and threatened, that unless the law should be enforced, he would endeavour to bring the subject before the public in England. A British ministry has always sufficient occasion for money. Sir Hugh Palliser having thus pointed out a quarter where it might be obtained without the troublesome necessity of having recourse to a jealous house of commons, his remonstrances were favourably listened to, and the collectors of the revenue in Scotland were instructed to enforce the law relative to French wines. This was for some time accomplished with difficulty. The deep bays or friths, which run far into the country of Scotland, afforded great opportunities for smuggling, at a time when the British navy did not possess that absolute dominion over the ocean which it has since acquired. When seizures were made, the juries in exchequer, during a long period, would never confess themselves able to distinguish the taste of French from that of Portuguese wines. Their verdicts were therefore almost uniformly against the crown. Nor was this spirit absolutely got quit of till the early part of Mr Pitt's administration, when the duties upon wine were reduced under the management of the excise.

Tytler.

The late William Tytler, Esq. of Woodhouselee, also

belonged to the same parish of Clencross. His *Inquiry into the Evidence against Mary Queen of Scots* was the means of producing a very considerable alteration in the opinion of the world concerning the conduct and character of that unfortunate princess. Besides historical researches, he was also remarkable for his learning and taste in the belles lettres. He rescued from oblivion tha curious fragment of antiquity, the *King's Quair*, a poem written by James the First of Scotland during his captivity in England. This remarkable poem, written near 400 years ago, is mentioned by some old writers, but was supposed to be lost. Mr Tytler was so fortunate as to discover it among the Seldenian manuscripts in the Bodleian library, and printed it for the first time in the year 1783, accompanied with a very learned and judicious commentary. There are two fine Scots poems, formerly of uncertain origin, *The Eagle and Robin Redbreast*, and *The Vision*, which, from careful inquiry, he restored to their genuine author, Allan Ramsay. From personal knowledge he also ascribed to that poet the whole merit of the *Gentle Shepherd*; of which, by detraction, or by mistake, he had been in part deprived.

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Mr Tytler was also a master of the musical art. He wrote an ingenious dissertation upon the Scottish music. He was a zealous promoter of the musical society at Edinburgh, which we formerly mentioned; and in his early years he sometimes performed upon the German flute in the concerts given by that society.

The late Reverend Dr William Robertson, principal of the university of Edinburgh, was born in the parish of Borthwick, of which his father was the minister. The works of this celebrated historian are too extensively known to render it necessary here to make any remarks concerning them. He was extremely fortunate in the

Dr Robertson.

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choice of the subjects of which he treated; and at the same time, by his mode of discussion, he gave to them a degree of interest, of which the public had not previously supposed them capable. This was particularly the case with regard to his history of Scotland, and of Charles the Fifth. In both cases, nations are exhibited during a sort of revolutionary period, in which they never fail to produce bold and striking characters and singular events. In both these cases, however, Dr Robertson was fortunate in finding, in the person of Charles the Fifth, and in the unfortunate Queen Mary, individual figures, capable of being brought forward in such a striking light as might powerfully seize and interest the attention of mankind; and thus confer upon the writings of a general historian much of that power to engage our feelings, which in other cases is apt to belong exclusively to writers upon biography.

The style of Dr Robertson's writings was also calculated to gain considerable favour. All his periods are swelling, and polished with the utmost care, and are calculated to please the ear without offending the taste by the introduction of any foreign idiom, or of high-sounding and unusual words and phrases. At the same time his style is very far from being destitute of redundancy. It is more artful than that of Gibbon, because the art is less apparent. But it is evident that this historian was at least as anxious about the structure of the sentences in which his details are enunciated, as about the details themselves. He never descends from his dignity, like the historian of England, Hume, or assumes the tone of easy and negligent narrative. In other respects, Dr Robertson never forgets in his writings that he is a churchman, or ventures to hazard a sentiment, of which he is not certain that all the

world will readily approve. He was a writer of too much prudence to earn the praise of great originality of thought. Eminent Characters.

Dr Robertson in his time was, in a certain department, an orator and a political leader. In former times, the General Assembly of the church of Scotland, or ecclesiastical parliament, possessed a considerable degree of influence, in consequence of the popularity of the clergy, who form the majority of members; and in consequence of the respectability and distinguished rank of the lay members, it was always considered as an object of importance by government to retain an influence over this body. Queen Ann's tory ministry repealed a statute, which vested the right of patronage of all churches in Scotland in the proprietors of land, and the elders of the parish, and restored the former law of patronage, which placed a great proportion of the livings in the gift of the crown, and the remainder in the gift of great proprietors of land. This law of patronage was considered as a great grievance by the popular or most zealous presbyterian party; and as the church courts, with the General Assembly at their head, try the qualifications of the individuals whom the patrons nominate to be ministers of parishes, an attempt was made through this medium to counteract the law of patronage. The candidate nominated to a church by the patron was attempted to be considered by the church courts as unqualified for the office, if a considerable proportion of the congregation did not consent to receive him as their spiritual pastor. Thus under the maxim, *Vox populi, vox Dei*, the populace were allowed a negative upon the patron's nomination. Government always attempted, on the other hand, to procure a majority in the General Assembly to support the nomination of the patron to every vacant church, without regard to the question, whether the person nominated was acceptable to the congregation or Dr Robertson's political life.

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not? Dr Robertson acted, during a great part of his life, as the leader of the party of government, or moderate party as they were called; whose object was to repress the religious zeal of the people, and to restrain the church courts from encouraging that zeal, by opposing the law of patronage. In this character his conduct was temperate but vigorous. Being not only supported by government, but by the current of the age, his party was at last completely successful. The General Assembly ceased to interfere in opposing the establishment in churches of any candidate nominated by the legal patron, providing his character and talents were unexceptionable, and disregarded entirely the opinion of the congregation. The result naturally was, that as this was the principal subject of discussion that came before the church courts, when it was at an end, they ceased to be interesting to the public; and hence the theatre on which Dr Robertson acted may be considered as in some measure destroyed by the success of his exertions.

Monteith of Duddingston.

About the time of the civil wars in Britain, the name of the parson of Duddingston was Monteith. Having been so unmindful of his character and office as to engage in an illicit amour with a lady of rank in the neighbourhood, he found himself under the necessity of flying from the scene of his disgrace and degradation. He repaired to France, and immediately applied for employment to the celebrated Richlieu. He told him he was of the Monteith family in Scotland. The cardinal remarked, that he was well acquainted with the Monteiths, and desired to know to what branch of the family he pertained. The exiled parson, whose father had been a common fisherman in the salmon trade of the Forth somewhere above Alloa, was not put out of countenance, but readily answered that he was of the Monteiths of *Salmon-net (de Salmon-net)*.

Richlieu acknowledged that he had not heard of that branch; but admitted, with becoming candour, that notwithstanding his ignorance, it might be a very illustrious family. He received Monteith under his patronage, and soon advanced him to be his secretary; in which situation he wrote and published some essays, which were admired in that age as specimens of the remarkable purity of style and facility of diction which a foreigner could attain in the French language. Population, &c.

Of the population of this county, as of all the rest of Scotland, three different enumerations have been made. One was obtained in 1755 by the late Reverend Dr Webster of the city of Edinburgh from the clergymen of the different parishes throughout Scotland. A second was obtained by Sir John Sinclair, Baronet, from the clergymen also, with a view towards the compilation of the Statistical Account of Scotland, between the years 1790 and 1797. The third enumeration was made in 1801 under the population act. The following is the result of these enumerations.

Parishes.	1755. Persons.	1790-7. Persons.	1801 Persons. Males.	Females.	Occupations. Persons chiefly employed in agriculture.	Persons employed in trades.	All other Persons.	Total of Persons.
Borthwick	910	858	407	435	118	56	668	842
Calder, Mid	1369	1251	486	528	121	104	782	1014
Ditto, West	1294	1289	558	627	417	291	477	1185
Carrington or Primrose ..	555	329	198	211	90	19	8	409
Cockpen	640	1123	807	874	296	647	738	1681
Collington	792	1395	655	744	161	158	334	1397
Corstorphine	995	1037	356	484	115	88	637	840
Cramond, Edinburgh division	1455	1485	687	716	668	359	376	1403
Cranston	725	839	421	474	84	45	766	895
Crichton	611	900	419	504	94	49	780	923
Currie	1227	1300	536	576	244	121	747	1112
Dalkeith	3110	4366	1666	2240	22	914	2970	3906
Duddingston	989	910	448	555	54	67	880	1003
Fala, Edinburgh division	312	372	101	133	29	22	183	234
Glencross	557	385	191	199	138	113	139	390
Heriot	209	300	156	164	50	14	256	320
Inveresk and Musselburgh	4645	5392	3143	3461	533	1743	4328	6604
Kirkliston			214	227	370	50	21	441
Kirknewton	1157	812	524	547	337	79	655	1071
Lasswade	2190	3000	1577	1771	724	459	2165	3348
Liberton	2793	3457	1629	1936	155	687	54	3565
Newbattle	1439	1295	625	703	302	60	960	1328
Newton	1199	1135	497	563	107	23	930	1060
Pennycuick	892	1721	747	958	497	669	539	1705
Ratho	930	825	451	536	100	70	817	987
Stow	1294	1400	957	919	279	105	1492	1876
Temple	905	593	409	446	113	104	638	855
	32616	39397	18863	21531	6218	7116	23346	40394
City of Edinburgh	57796	83258	35361	47199	1540	13920	66910	82560
Total	90412	122655	54224	68730	7758	21036	90256	122954

Fragments of the parishes of Cramond and Kirkliston are in Linlithgowshire or West Lothian; and a part of the parish of Fala is in Haddingtonshire or East Lothian. The population of the parts of these parishes belonging to this county has been discriminated in the reports made out under the population act; but it was not thought necessary to do so in the previous reports, which were merely parochial, and did not relate to counties. But although a part of the parish of Stow is in Selkirkshire, the entire population of that parish is stated under this county in the report made out under the population act. Population, &c.

Many of the most important branches of moral science are still in their infancy; and in particular the principles are yet very defectively understood upon which the prosperity of nations depends. Even the circumstances which give rise to an augmentation or diminution in the population of a country are ill understood; and much less has the connection been yet sufficiently perceived between population and national prosperity. It is possible for a people to be numerous, and yet to be poor and ignorant, as we understand to be the case with regard to a considerable portion of Ireland, and of many parts of the continent of Europe. It is also possible for a nation to be numerous, and yet, like the Chinese, to be extremely weak, and unfit to defend their prosperity against a vigorous agresion. It is likewise possible for a state to send out annually a large proportion of its youth for the purpose of extending its empire in unfriendly climates, from which few of them indeed can be expected to return to deposit their ashes in their native land; and yet the same state may be all the while augmenting with considerable rapidity its population at home. This has actually, in a considerable degree, been the case with the British islands. During the last half of the late century, independent of Value of inquiries into population.

Population, &c.

the destruction occasioned by sanguinary wars, and of the numbers lost by voluntary emigration to North America, the population of Britain has suffered a severe and constant drain for the purpose of extending and maintaining the cultivation of the West India islands, and to acquire and maintain our empire over Hindostan; yet during all that time, instead of the population of the British islands being diminished, or their strength injured, as was feared by some politicians, the people have been becoming more numerous at home; while, at the same time, the riches which have been derived from our foreign possessions, and which ultimately centre in this country, together with the increasing skill which has been acquired in agriculture, and in every other art, have enabled every class of persons to live in a style of far superior comfort and luxury to that which was known to their ancestors. It appears that, like every other commodity, men and women increase in a country in proportion to the demand that exists for them. The productive powers of nature in this respect are almost unbounded; and it is now evident, that the way to obtain a numerous population in any country is precisely the same with that which ought to be adopted for producing abundance of corn, or of any other article created by human industry. Procure a good market, or facility of disposing to advantage of the commodity, and it will not fail to abound. Permit a free exportation, or, in other words, shew to parents that there is little difficulty in providing for their children, and there is no doubt that the country will overflow with people. Here we cannot avoid noticing the strange inconsistency, on a late occasion, and short-sightedness of the British legislature upon this subject. It encourages, and even gives a bounty, in certain cases, for the exportation of grain, for the purpose of encouraging agriculture; while at the same time, with-

in these two years, it has passed an act, restraining very severely the number of passengers to be received on board ships, with the view of rendering emigration extremely difficult. The effect of this last statute can only be to discourage marriages, and thereby to injure the sources of population at home. Scotland has at all times been accustomed to pour forth myriads of its youth into foreign countries; yet the very frugal mode of subsistence which long prevailed, and in the remoter districts still prevails, in this country, completely demonstrates, that at least a sufficient number remain at home to consume all that the country produces, or ever produced. Indeed the poverty of the common people, and the cheapness of their wages, when compared with their good education, is a proof that they were at all times sufficiently numerous. Population, &c.

As it appears, therefore, that this important subject is not yet in all its parts completely understood, it seems proper here to notice, as minutely as possible, the causes of the alteration which has occurred in the population of particular districts or parishes. To avoid prolixity, however, we shall only do so in this and some particular districts, which may serve as a sufficient example of the general progress of the country.

In the parish of Borthwick, the population has declined during the last fifty years. The reason is sufficiently obvious: It is an agricultural district, into which no manufactures have been introduced. In such situations, however, the population has necessarily decreased. By the improvement of the agriculture of the country, the soil is more completely subdued, or better cleaned and pulverised than formerly. Less labour, therefore, both of men and cattle, is necessary for the management of it. The plough is now an instrument conducted by one man and two horses; whereas formerly four horses at least, toge- Borthwick,

Population, &c.

ther with two men, were necessary for the same purpose. By the accumulation of capital, also, in the hands of farmers, one of them is now enabled to occupy three or four times as much land as was done by his predecessors; and thus there are fewer families of farmers left in the country. The improvement of the roads, and the universal use of wheel-carriages, is also a cause of depopulation to the country; because all the fruits of the earth are now carried to market by less expence of human labour than formerly.

Thus we see that the improvement of agriculture, and of the mode of conducting the different sorts of labour connected with it, has a tendency to diminish the population of the country, and to send the superfluous inhabitants to towns in search of employment. At the same time, after all, the diminution of the population in this parish is not great. The soil of Midlothian, by superior cultivation, now produces, in the opinion of the most skilful persons, nearly three times the quantity of food for men and cattle that it did in the year 1740; and it appears, that where there is abundance of food, men and women will contrive to exist and to get a share of it. Here the average number of annual marriages, in the parish alluded to, is 8, of baptisms 20, and of burials 15; but the people here, as well as elsewhere, are apt to neglect the registration of baptisms, and the burials are not always of persons residing in the parish, because many persons endeavour to bury their kindred in the parish in which they were born. As a similar interchange takes place in almost all parishes, this circumstance is noway hostile to calculation. The proportion of persons to each family is about 4 or 4½.

Midcalder.

In Midcalder, the population is represented as having so much increased, that there seems reason to suspect that the enumeration was incorrect in 1755. It is said to have

been upon the decline during the last 30 years, from the cause already mentioned, that of an improving agriculture, and the extension of farms. Previous to that period, the population may have been upon the increase, in consequence of this being upon the great Glasgow road, and of considerable quantities of waste land being at that time reduced under the plough, which now require little labour. In three years there were in this parish 23 marriages, and 97 baptisms. Population, &c.

In the parish of West Calder, where the average number of individuals to a family is 4 or $4\frac{1}{7}$, the population is upon the decline; because no manufactures are established, and the improvement of agriculture has not tended to augment the population. The same remark may be made, and for the same reason, with regard to Carrington or Primrose, Cramond, Glencross, Kirknewton, Newbattle, Newton, Ratho, and Temple. In general, however, the case has been different, as will appear from inspecting the table of population. In the parishes of Currie and of Collington, the Water of Leith, which runs through them, may be considered as the cause of their augmented population; that is to say, the paper mills established upon that stream of water have given employment to a great multitude of persons. The augmented population of the parish of Pennycuick is explained in a similar manner, from the establishment of the cotton work there, and also of a paper mill. In general, along the coal field upon the valley of the Esk, the population has considerably increased; at least in those parishes in which coal pits have been opened, and are carried on; such as Cockpen, Lasswade, Liberton, and Inveresk. West Calder.

In the parish of Carrington, the average of births recorded from 1752 to 1762 was 16.5; from 1762 to 1772, 12.5; from 1772 to 1782, 11.5; from 1782 to 1792, Carrington.

Population, &c. 9.6. The number of families in 1792 was 85. There were then in the parish nine farmers, one smith, one wright, two weavers, three tailors, one shoe-maker, one gardener, one small inn-keeper. The bulk of the rest of the people were farmers servants and labourers.

Cockpen. In the parish of Cockpen, the population of 1123 formed 288 families in 1790. The annual average of baptisms for seven years after 1741 was 25. For a like pe-

Collington. riod after 1784, it was 30. In the parish of Collington, the register of baptisms runs back with uncommon regularity for 140 years, or to the year 1655. The register of marriages commences at the same date; and that of bu-

Dr Walker's remarks. rials has been carefully kept from the year 1728. Upon these registers, the late Reverend Dr Walker, then minister of the parish, and professor of natural history in the university of Edinburgh, made the following remarks in 1797: Upon the register of baptisms he remarked, 1*st*, That during the above period of 140 years, there were 2447 male and 2268 female children baptized, which fixes the number of males born, compared to that of females, at 12 to 11 yearly. 2*d*, That in some particular years, the births of one sex greatly exceeded the other in number; but in the following, or in a few subsequent years, both sexes return to their ordinary proportion. Notwithstanding many temporary irregularities, the balance at last is preserved upon the par; yet this is but one among a thousand instances of an immediate, unremitting, superintending influence, directed by unlimited power and wisdom. 3*d*, That there are some years in which the inhabitants are remarkably prolific, compared to what they are in others. The number of children born in one year is sometimes nearly double that in the preceding or subsequent year, while the number of inhabitants must have

been nearly the same. 4*th*, That the average number of births for 10 years past is 39, and the number of people 1395. This allows 37 persons for each birth. 5*th*, That the average number of births being 39, and the number of houses or families 313, each annual birth corresponds to eight families. Population, &c.

And he farther remarks, 1*st*, That of 4715 children baptized in this parish, 94 were twins; therefore one twin child for 51 children baptized. 2*d*, That during 17 years, including the seven dear years, there was no twin birth. In one particular year, there were three such births. 3*d*, That in the whole period, the male twin children were to the female as 40 to 54. 4*th*, That the number of males prevailed in those years in which male twins were born; and that of the females in those years in which female twins were born.

With regard to marriages he remarks, There has been an exact register of marriages kept in this parish from the year 1655 to the present time.

From that register it appears, 1*st*, That during the period mentioned, there are 1395 marriages recorded; but reckoning only one half of those marriages where only one of the parties was a parishioner, the number would amount but to 1060. 2*d*, That from the year 1655 to 1704 inclusive, the baptisms were 4715, and the marriages 1060. During the last 10 years, the baptisms were 401, and the marriages 91. In both cases the marriages were less than a fourth, but more than a fifth, compared to the number of baptisms. 3*d*, That at present there is only one marriage annually for 155 inhabitants.

Upon the register of burials for 49 years, he remarks, 1*st*, That the burials were 994; during the last 10 years, 175. In the former period, the births had been 1696; in the latter, 394. In both cases the births, compared to the

Population, &c.

deaths, approach to the proportion of two to one; forming a very striking account of the increase of the people in this part of the country. 2*d*, That the number of strangers from other parishes buried here amount at an average to six persons annually, which is considerably more than the number of parishioners buried in other places. 3*d*, That of the 944 persons buried, 452, or nearly one half, were children under 14 years of age. 4*th*, That there are about 20 deaths annually, and above 60, perhaps 69, inhabitants for each annual death. 5*th*, That in this, as well as in all other registers of deaths, there are years most remarkable for their health, and others for their mortality. In some cases the causes of this great difference are to be observed; but in others they cannot be discerned. 6*th*, That near 70 years ago, and even about 50 and 40 years ago, the number of deaths was greater than at present, though the number of people was certainly less. The lower ranks, which form the body of the people, are now lodged, clothed, and fed, in a manner more friendly to health than in these former times.

In the parish of Corstorphine, a population of 1037 is divided into 250 families of $4\frac{1}{7}$ to each family. The tradesmen, consisting of tailors, weavers, carpenters, masons, &c. amount to about 38, and their apprentices to about seven in number; but no manufactures exist.

Cramond.

In the parish of Cramond, the following Table exhibits the proportion of births and burials in a century.

	Baptisms.			Burials.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	
From 1680 to 1699 . . .	557	515	1072	680
1700 to 1719 . . .	543	509	1052	586
1720 to 1739 . . .	513	520	1033	674
1740 to 1759 . . .	511	451	962	480
1760 to 1779 . . .	386	373	759	451
Total in a century . . .	2510	2368	4878	2871

In the parish of Cranston, the following proportion of births has been stated. From 1715 to 1726, the males that were born amounted to 112, and the females to 144; total 256: from 1739 to 1750, the number of males was 106, and of males 111; total born 217: and from 1770 to 1790, the males were 90, and the females 95; total 185. The annual average of male births, therefore, for the space of 30 years, is somewhat more than 10, of female more than 11, and of both nearly 22 yearly. This statement suggests an important remark. In the parish of Cranston, the population is increasing, yet we here find the number of births diminishing. There is no reason to doubt, however, that the above statements are perfectly correct. The actual state of the fact seems to be this, that in the present times, in consequence of more expensive modes of living, and of higher notions being now entertained of what constitutes a competency, fewer persons enter into the married state than formerly. On the other hand, the persons who now enter into that state, being better able to give proper care and nourishment to their children, a greater proportion than formerly grow up to maturity; and thus the population continues to augment, though the number of births decreases. Population, &c. Cranston.

In the parish of Crichton, the annual average of births for 10 years preceding 1791 was 21, and that of marriages was 10. The number of persons Crichton.

Under	10 years was	211
Between	10 and 20	148
	20 and 30	143
	30 and 40	104
	40 and 50	138
	50 and 60	73
	60 and 70	58
	70 and 80	18
	80 and 90	6
	90 and 100	1

Population, &c. Dalkeith.

In Dalkeith, the annual average of marriages, births, and burials, is as follows: Marriages 32, births 134, burials 124; but the register of births, or rather of baptisms, is supposed to be incomplete, as the dissenters are apt to neglect registration.

Duddingston.

In Duddingston, in the year 1794, when the total population was 910, the number of births was 45.

Glencross.

In the parish of Glencross, upon an average of eight years previous to 1792, the births were 60, the marriages 22, and the burials 40; the number of inhabitants being 385: 245 were unmarried. In Heriot the annual average of marriages, births, and deaths, is said to be about four.

In the parish of Inveresk, including the town of Musselburgh, the following list is given of births, marriages, and deaths, in seven years:

	Baptisms.	Marriages.	Deaths.
1786	203	49	118
1787	157	34	126
1788	211	59	189
1789	195	48	121
1790	207	47	149
1791	144	37	209
1792	161	47	205
Total	1278	321	1117
Average	$182\frac{4}{7}$	$45\frac{6}{7}$	$159\frac{4}{7}$

Kirknewton, Liberton, &c.

In Kirknewton, the average of births is stated at 26, and of deaths at 19. In the parish of Liberton, on an average of 20 years preceding 1786, there were 130 baptized, 25 couples married, and 102 buried. For 20 years preceding 1725, the annual average of baptisms was 117, of marriages 20 couples, and of burials 106. In the parish of Newbattle, the births, at an average of 10 years, are considered as amounting annually to 28, the deaths to 32,

and the marriages to 13; but the register of births is accounted imperfect. In the parish of Newton, the annual average of baptisms, previous to 1793 for 10 years, was 43, and of marriages 10. Population, &c.

In Pennycuick, the annual average of baptisms for 10 years previous to 1713 was 27, of marriages 11. The average previous to 1753 of baptisms was 27 annually, of deaths 26, and of marriages 11. Previous to 1793, the baptisms amounted to 41, the marriages to 13, and the deaths to 42. In Ratho, the annual average from 1st January 1782 to 1st January 1792 was of marriages $6\frac{1}{2}$, and of births $23\frac{7}{10}$, or 65 in all of the former, and 237 of the latter. In the parish of Temple, an average of baptisms, marriages, and funerals, taken for 10 years immediately preceding the year 1733, from the session record, the average of baptisms in a year was $31\frac{1}{2}$ Pennycuick.

Marriages	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Funerals	$33\frac{1}{2}$

Preceding the year 1794, the average of 10 years of baptisms in a year was $15\frac{1}{2}$

Marriages	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Funerals	16

We have accounted it necessary to insert these statements relative to the population of this county, on account of their importance towards the establishment of correct principles in an important branch of political economy, to which the notice of the public has of late been peculiarly attracted by the celebrated essay on the principle of population by Mr Malthus of the university of Cambridge. The above details may not perhaps be accounted sufficiently minute to form the basis of general principles; but, with the aid of other circumstances, they will probably be regarded as of considerable importance.

Population, &c. In the upper parts of Midlothian, near the hills, the frost frequently sets in early in the winter, and continues late in the spring, though in that variable and unsteady manner to which the whole island is more or less liable.

Diseases. Still, however, upon the whole, this territory appears to be abundantly healthy, excepting in the case of the small pox, and other diseases to which children are liable. Any fatal epidemic malady is extremely rare, and seldom or never spreads far. During the year which succeeded the late scarcity, a fever destroyed a considerable number of persons of the lower ranks, but chiefly of those residing in towns and villages; but almost nobody in easy circumstances suffered by it. The chief diseases to be met with here are those which result from colds, caught in consequence of the unsteadiness of the climate, and the severity of the easterly winds during the spring and the month of May. Coughs and other symptoms of cold, are apt to become so universal as to give rise to a notion that what is called the *influenza* prevails; but they are only dangerous to old and infirm people.

Longevity. Instances of wonderful longevity have occurred in almost all parts of this county; and with regard to persons of a sound and vigorous constitution, and of sober manners, human life is considered upon the whole as wonderfully secure till an advanced period; that is, till threescore and ten years, or from thence to 80 years of age. In the parish of West Calder, in 1796, eight persons were alive of from 80 to 90 years of age. In the parish of Ratho, which is rich and cultivated, and rather a level district, many instances are said to have lately existed of persons who lived to above 90 years of age. William Ritchie, in that parish, lived to above 105 years; and his brother Adam, who resided in Fountainbridge, reached 106. The latter was twice married, and had 22 children,

two of whom were born after he was 90 years of age, and his wife had a good character. In the parish of Currie, which is in the vicinity, or rather contains a part, of the Pentland hills, instances of very singular longevity have occurred. About the year 1792, died William Napier at the advanced age of 113; and till within five or six years of his death he followed his usual employment. He remembered distinctly the accession of Queen Anne, and some facts which occurred at the time of the revolution in 1688. William Ritchie, a farmer in that parish, incurred the censure of the ecclesiastical tribunals for his irregular connections with the other sex after he had attained the ninetieth year of his age. He lived upwards of 15 years thereafter; and in this parish, a great part of which is high and cold, several cotemporary inhabitants have exceeded the age of 90. In the parish of Borthwick, to live upwards of 80 years, is said to be not accounted by any means unusual, or beyond the ordinary endurance of human life; and the age of 100 years has been reached by different individuals. In the parish of Inveresk, which, as already mentioned, is upon the sea-coast, it was observed by the clergyman in 1795, that there are always many aged people; and what is of more importance, they preserve their vigour and faculties to the last. There are and have been many fisherwomen past fourscore, who travelled to Edinburgh with their creels, and returned by mid-day. Men of the same age are many of them not past labour; and there were, at the period above-mentioned, a few persons living in this parish who, though approaching to 90, were as stout and lively as some others at threescore. It is to be remarked, that the oldest person then alive, a woman of 94, carried the creel in her youth, and continued employed in spinning as her usual employment.

Longevity.

To understand correctly the state or condition of a peo-

Poor. ple, few objects are of more importance than to know the number of persons who are under the necessity of depending upon public charity for support, and what are the measures adopted for procuring funds for the relief of those who labour under poverty.

In Scotland there long existed, in practice, nothing of the nature of a compulsory poors rate. The poor were indeed supported by the public; but the funds from which their relief was derived were almost entirely the result of voluntary charity. In every parish a trifling tax is imposed upon marriages, and another upon funerals by lending out a pall or mortcloth belonging to the parish; but the chief fund consists of a collection made at every church door on Sunday; and the money thus obtained is administered by the minister and elders. These last consist of respectable persons, selected without regard to rank or wealth from the community at large, and generally nominated by the clergyman of the parish, with the consent of the former elders. From many causes the collections at the church doors have declined of late years. Formerly the gentry resided more in the country, and less in towns, than at present; and at the same time it was customary for the whole of them, without exception, regularly to attend public worship, and consequently to make a weekly contribution for the poor. At the same time a large proportion of the people had not as yet deserted the established presbyterian churches, or attached themselves to dissenters. Hence it was usual for the contributions at the church doors, not only to be sufficient for the relief of the ordinary poor, but the money thus collected in many parishes afforded a surplus, which was accumulated into a capital, and laid out at interest for the same purpose. The capital thus formed and augmented was preserved to encounter times of extraordinary scarcity, when the poor

Funds for supporting the poor.

might have occasion for unusual supplies. It is to be observed, however, that the funds thus collected were at all times very moderate. They were administered with extreme frugality by the ministers and elders of the different parishes; and the poor were merely preserved, by means of them, from absolute want. The effect of this system, combined with other circumstances, was undoubtedly very highly advantageous to the character of the people. Public charity was never withheld from those to whom it was absolutely necessary. At the same time nobody looked forward to it as a resource to which they could legally betake themselves. As the acceptance of it implied a state of extreme indigence, to which only the most scanty relief was given, all persons of ordinary rank were led to provide anxiously against the necessity of having recourse to it; and thus a spirit of frugality, industry, and decent pride, have been maintained among the lowest class of the community. Poor.

There is much reason to fear, however, that something in the nature of a poors rate is now gradually introducing itself into this country. From the less regular attendance of wealthy persons upon the parish churches, from the non-residence in the country of great proprietors of land, and from the number of dissenting meetings, the contributions at the church doors have diminished; and it has been found necessary to have recourse to compulsory assessments, made by proprietors of land, called in Scotland *heritors*. The money is payable, one half by the owners, and the other half by the possessors of property. These assessments, in cases of necessity, the law of this country requires to be made, and thus in fact authorises poors rates; but the law was long allowed to sleep. During the late years of scarcity, vast numbers of persons, who never formerly had recourse to such aid, were reduced to the necessity of accepting relief from the public. Extraor- A poors rate in danger of being introduced.

Poor. dinary assessments for this purpose were made in almost every parish; and the courts of law, under the authority of the old Scottish statutes, have sustained these assessments as valid and binding. From the diminution of the collections, therefore, at the churches, together with the necessity of accepting public charity in consequence of the late dearth, there is great reason to fear, that unless much precaution is used, the Scots may gradually at once degrade the character of their common people, and encumber the property of the country with a poors rate, similar to that of which so many complaints have been justly made in England. At the same time it must be remarked, that the evil as yet exists chiefly in speculation, and is only in its infancy. As we have the example before our eyes of the inconveniences resulting from great compulsory contributions for the poor, which never ultimately diminish in a country either poverty or misery, it is probable that we may derive benefit upon this subject from the experience of others. The probability that this warning will have effect, is rendered stronger from the consideration that it is addressed to the passion of avarice, which is usually abundantly quick-sighted in its own favour. In this case it has sound policy on its side. After a poors rate is once established, it can scarcely be abolished without the production of much misery, and perhaps injustice; but it is an evil which in ordinary times at least is easily avoided.

Societies for mutual relief. Of late years, in all parts of the country of Scotland, the common people have adopted the salutary plan of creating institutions for their own relief, in case of incapacity for labour in consequence of sickness or old age. These consist of clubs or societies, the members of which contribute weekly or monthly a certain sum, which is thrown into a common fund, and laid out at interest by certain office-bearers appointed by the society. These societies are

sanctioned by an act of parliament, on condition that their regulations be submitted to the revisal of the justices of peace for the county in which the society is situated, and receive their approbation at the quarter sessions. Of these societies, which may be considered as incorporated bodies, seeing they enjoy perpetual succession by law, and hold property, and can sue and be sued, a considerable number exist in different parts of the county of Midlothian. Their rules or bye-laws usually fix the weekly subsistence to be allowed to a sick or aged member. They also fix the sum to be paid towards the expence of his funeral, and an allowance to his widow if he leave one. These allowances are no doubt very moderate, suitable to the rank of the parties, and the contributions the members of such societies can afford to make; but they are usually equal to what would have been received from parish charity: and relief thus obtained in no way diminishes the honest pride of the persons who receive it; because they consider themselves as only receiving back their own money, which they fairly earned in their better days, and which they had intentionally deposited as a fund to be restored to them when they should have occasion for it. These societies also are useful in promoting good morals in a direct manner. One of their articles usually is, that any member who disgraces himself by a profligate life, or by any gross offence against the law of the country, shall forfeit all future interest in the funds of the society. Poor.

To give a correct idea of the extent of the relief which, by the practice of Scotland, is afforded to the indigent poor, we shall here take notice of some of the statements given by the parochial clergy upon the subject between the years 1791 and 1797.—In the parish of Cramond, it was stated, that the parochial funds amounted to about L.1220, yielding an annual rent of above L.56. The col- Relief granted to the poor in different parishes.

Poor. lection at the church doors came to about L. 39, and the profits of the mortcloths to about L. 7 annually, making a total yearly income of above L. 102. With this sum, 41 ordinary and 16 extraordinary poor were supported, and relieved according to their several necessities; after which there commonly remained a small surplus at the end of each year to augment the capital fund. This is stated from the average of the receipts and disbursements for 10 years previous to 1791. When the sacrament of the Lord's supper is administered, which in country parishes is usually once each year in Scotland, a larger collection than on other Sundays is received. The sum at Cramond is stated to amount at an average to L. 6, 4s. annually; a trifling sum compared with the produce at the communion 1690, L. 20, 5s.; and 1691, L. 23, 15s. Such was the superiority of the pious charity of our forefathers on such occasions to that displayed in the present times. Towards the end of the last, and beginning of the present century, the annual contributions were much the same as at present, while the average number of ordinary poor is now more than doubled.

In the year 1760, the parish of Ratho had no money at interest for about 30 years. Thereafter, however, L. 70 annually was collected at the church door, chiefly in consequence of the attendance of the late Earl of Lauderdale, who gave a guinea every week. The sum of L. 70 *per annum* was considered as a sufficient fund for pensions to 40 indigent persons. In addition to this there was a voluntary contribution of nearly L. 50 in the year 1782, which was a year of scarcity. After the death of the Earl of Lauderdale, it was necessary to have recourse to parochial assessments; but the same moderation was continued in the relief afforded to the poor, who received a

monthly pension of from 2s. 6d. to 6s. in proportion to their exigencies. Poor.

In the parish of West Calder, the number receiving charity, at the period above mentioned, is stated at from 10 to 15; whose allowance at an average was about 3s. *per* month each. The parochial tax upon marriages is 2s. 6d. and the collection at the church doors about L. 10 *per annum*. Here the parish in former times was able to accumulate L. 100.

In the parish of Kirknewton, the number of poor regularly receiving charity is stated at 12, and their provision at from 2s. to 4s. *per* month.

In the parish of Currie, the poor are stated at 28 or 29; and a capital of L. 500 Sterling had at a former period been accumulated for their support, in consequence of two incumbents in succession having been uncommonly popular preachers, which enabled them to assemble great audiences from the neighbouring parishes; by which means the collections at the church doors were unusually increased.

In Duddingston, in the immediate vicinity of the capital, the poor, 27 in number, received an aid of from 2s. to 4s. *per* month each; and this pension was forfeited by their becoming beggars. In the parish of Liberton, which is immediately adjoining to the former, the usual funds for the poor have amounted for many years to the following sums: The collections at the church doors have amounted at a medium to L. 42 *per annum*; the revenue from the mortcloths to L. 22; some rents of seats in the church, and of property purchased in former times, with funds belonging to the poor, to L. 21 : 7 : 4:—amounting in all to L. 85 : 7 : 4; the whole of which sum was annually expended. Besides this, however, a sum of L. 40 is annually distributed at Christmas to the poor

Poor. of this parish. It is the produce of a sum of money entrusted for that purpose to the magistrates of Edinburgh by Commodore Alexander Horn, a native of this parish. An additional sum of L. 5, the produce of another legacy, is also distributed annually. Sir James Stewart of Goodtrees, formerly his Majesty's advocate for Scotland, bequeathed in 1713 a legacy to the poor of this parish. It was long suffered to accumulate; but at last, in the season of scarcity of 1783, it was spent in the support of the poor.

In Pennycuick, the poor, amounting to 28 or more in number, have been in ordinary years supported by funds amounting to little more than L. 28. In Lasswade, about 50 poor persons have usually received an allowance of from 2s. to 4s. *per* month; besides, others receive occasional support. This parish is connected with several of the voluntary associations already mentioned. In Newbattle, 20 persons at a medium receive each from 2s. to 2s. 6d. monthly.

Work-houses. In the populous village of Dalkeith, there has long been a charity workhouse, in which there have been at different times from 24 to upwards of 40 persons; besides whom 16 or 18 have usually been out-pensioners in summer, and a greater number in winter. As usual, the support of the poor in a workhouse is found more expensive than when they only receive pensions in aid of their own industry. In the populous parish of Inveresk, which, as already mentioned, includes Musselburgh and Fisherrow, the number of poor amounts to about 110, who are supported by pensions at the expence of about L. 215. An attempt was made in this parish to support the poor by means of a workhouse, which was erected at a considerable expence by the proprietors and principal inhabitants, and was ready for the reception of the poor at Whitsunday 1752. Dr Carlyle has given the following account of it: "The

best rules of management that could be devised or collected were ordained; and the house went on for many years to the comfort of the poor, and the satisfaction of all concerned. An additional expence, as was expected, besides the building, was incurred for the maintenance of the poor; and an assessment was laid on the heritors that year for the first time. The object then being, not the most parsimonious plan of provision for the poor, but their comfortable subsistence, and the preservation of the young among them from idleness and profligacy, the arguments arising from the *danger*, by means of such institutions, of *erasing the sense of shame* of dependence on the poors funds from the minds of the indigent, or of *blunting the feelings of compassion* in the hearts of their relations, did not occur; or if they had, would have been considered as the suggestions of *avarice*, in no respect applicable to the state of this parish. The assessment was continued; and as the towns were populous, it was thought no more than justice that they should contribute their share. They were accordingly assessed of a certain sum by the annual meeting of heritors and elders, which was proportioned among them by a large committee of the inhabitants, appointed by the meeting. By this means, those who frequented any of the meeting-houses, or absconded altogether from public worship, were made to contribute their share, as well as those who regularly attended the established church, and paid both by their collections and by assessment. Poor.

"At the end of 30 years, many difficulties having occurred from the backwardness of some to pay their assessments, and a constant intrigue among the inhabitants about furnishing necessaries, or employing the poor, the most disinterested among the managers became heartily tired of the business. Add to this, that the house and far-

Poor. niture came now to need a thorough repair, which could not have cost less than L. 300 Sterling; all which, together with an opinion that the poor could be maintained cheaper in their own houses than the poor-house, induced the heritors and all concerned, after two years deliberation, to sell the house, and add the price to the poors funds; which was accordingly done in the year 1781."

In Borthwick, about 18 poor have been supported at the expence of about L. 30 *per annum*, collected by the usual means of mortcloths and contributions at the church doors. In Carrington, the poor usually amount to about 12 in number, receiving from 2s. to 4s. 6d. *per* month. In the parish of Heriot, which is chiefly a moorland district, there have seldom been any poor. In Stow, the poor usually amount to between 25 and 30.

What has been here stated will be sufficient to afford to the curious or enlightened reader sufficient principles upon which to understand the relative proportion in this county between the population and the number of poor, and even concerning the propriety of relieving the latter by outpensions in preference to hospitals. It is to be observed, that, with a single exception or two, it has been found necessary in all the parishes to have recourse, in a less or greater degree, to assessments for the purpose of supporting the ordinary poor. In the scarce years of 1800 and 1801, these assessments were rendered more heavy than they would otherwise have been, in consequence of a resolution very generally adopted by men of property to prefer a temporary payment in this form to allowing that enormous rise of wages which must otherwise have taken place, and which might not afterwards have been easily got quit of. Such assessments, as already mentioned, are imposed by the proprietors of each parish; but the Scottish statutes authorise them to impose one half of the bur-

den upon the inhabitants who have no real property; they themselves paying the other half of the sum which they have fixed upon as necessary or reasonable. Poor.

There is one point which is intimately connected with the condition of the inferior orders of men, and consequently with the welfare of the greater part of the human race, about which we consider it as impracticable to speak with any tolerable degree of precision; for which reason we shall avoid making the attempt. The point to which we allude relates to the price of labour. The great proportion of mankind have no other fund of subsistence in most countries than that which is derived from their personal exertions, under the form of hire for their services to others. Accordingly, in proportion as this hire is liberal or otherwise, the situation of the great body of a people will be comfortable or otherwise. In Scotland, it may be remarked, that from time immemorial, the general opinion of the country has fixed upon a certain rate of wages which a labourer ought to receive, and without which he cannot properly support himself and a family. It is understood that a labourer, while properly paid, ought not to receive less *per* day than the price of a peck of oatmeal, amounting in weight to $8\frac{1}{4}$ lb. avoirdupois. Oatmeal formed for ages the most important part of the food of the Scottish peasantry; and accordingly it was not unnatural to estimate the rate of their subsistence according to the price of that commodity. The hire of ordinary labour does not to this day greatly differ from this standard. At the same time it cannot fail to happen, in the neighbourhood of a great city, and wherever manufactures are established, that great deviations from the established standard should occur. In Edinburgh, for example, in consequence of numerous speculations in erecting buildings in Wages of labour.

Poor. the New Town, the demand for masons has at times been uncommonly great, and their wages proportionably raised. Thus during a late short interval of peace, when oatmeal was below 1s. 3d. *per* peck, the wages of ordinary masons were as high as L. 1, 1s. or rather L. 1, 5s. *per* week. In general, here as well as elsewhere, the labour of those engaged in manufactures is better paid than that of persons employed in agriculture. This last employment is not considered as requiring any special education or apprenticeship, like the business of a tradesman, which is better paid through life, because originally acquired with more difficulty, and at a greater expence.

Clothing. A more correct idea will perhaps be given of the situation of the lowest class of people, by taking notice of the degree in which they enjoy the ordinary necessaries and luxuries of life. In the remotest and poorest part of the country, the tartan or red plaid, close cuffs with or without elbows, gowns, petticoats, and stockings, of home manufacture, which thirty or forty years ago constituted the dress of women in the inferior conditions of life, have gradually given way to clothes made of English cloths, and other approaches to an improved dress; and these, in their turn, are now yielding to the dress cap, the silk bonnet, or beaver hat, printed or other cotton gowns, white petticoats, white thread or cotton stockings, and fine shoes or slippers. Formerly, the best handkerchiefs for the neck were strong cambrics, but now they are of fine muslin; and sometimes there is an addition of a shawl of from five to seven shillings value.

With respect to the male labourers and mechanics in the remotest districts, thirty years ago they wore a woollen bonnet on their heads; they had a coat, waistcoat, and breeches, of cloth which was manufactured in private families; their stockings were spun and knit at home,

or by some of their poorest neighbours; and their shoes were rather strong than neat. Now the whole of them wear hats of different qualities, coats of English made cloth, striped or white waistcoats, corduroy or fustain breeches, fine cotton or thread stockings, and slight neat shoes. In days of labour, however, they are clothed in a way more suitable to their various engagements. State of Society, &c.

In some of the remoter districts, oatmeal made into porridge, and thin hard cakes made of oatmeal, together with milk, butter, and cheese, still constitute a considerable part of the food of the inferior classes of people, and of such people in middling circumstances as are fond of adhering to the frugality and simplicity of the ancient times. Everywhere butchers meat is gradually coming very generally into use; and the practice of drinking tea is probably universal. In the neighbourhood of the capital there is scarcely a ploughman's house, and no tradesman's, in which it is not used. Within these fifteen years, bread made of wheaten flour was rarely found in the country, unless in the houses of gentlemen or wealthy farmers; but near Edinburgh it is now used by all ranks of people; and it is gradually, in the remotest districts, becoming a part of the ordinary food of the people. With regard to persons in easy circumstances, their mode of living is everywhere precisely similar to that adopted in Edinburgh. Food.

In every quarter of this county, all sorts of dwelling-houses are improving greatly in their character and appearance. The most ordinary cottages are built of stone and lime; they are usually covered with a thatch of straw or turf. In the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, in consequence of the vicinity of works for the manufacture of bricks and tyles, the latter are sometimes employed for covering the roofs of ordinary houses. A taste for neatness also prevails in proportion to the degree in which or- Houses.

State of Society, &c.

dinary houses have of late years been improved. The farmers, upon almost every estate, have houses suitable to their affluent circumstances, and the accommodation which a genteel family is in modern times understood to require. In general, it may be remarked, that this class of people in the Lothians live more liberally than any other. They are not encumbered by costly equipages; nor are they embarrassed by debts, like many small or even great numbers of large proprietors of land in Scotland. They have at the same time all the advantages which a country residence produces, in being enabled to rear, at a cheap rate, poultry, and other articles of subsistence or luxury. Hence, from these advantages, added to the profits resulting from their employment, many of them are enabled to live in a style of very considerable elegance, and with less attention to minute economy than is seen amidst greater ostentation in the families of many country gentlemen.

Manners.

With regard to the state of manners among the inhabitants of this county, it is perhaps difficult to speak instructively, or with precision. In every age, mankind have differed widely in their estimate of what constitutes, with regard to any particular class of persons, frugality or improvidence, knowledge or ignorance, piety or profaneness, vice and virtue. What has in one age appeared an impious disregard of religion, is apt to be considered in another as the ordinary and natural conduct of mankind; and, about a century ago, our present modes of life would undoubtedly have appeared immoderately extravagant. It would have appeared a strange thing, that a plougman's wife could not be clothed, or entertain her neighbour, without materials collected from the extremities of the habitable globe, and brought together by the efforts of an improved navigation. The characters of vice and virtue, frugality and extravagance, may be per-

manent in their nature, but the external actions by which they are indicated alter in every age; a circumstance which has brought a sort of ridicule upon the lectures of those moralists or politicians who have inveighed against their countrymen as in a state of utter depravity, or predicted the fall of empires on account of practices which, at a future period, have seemed unimportant or innocent. State of Society, &c.

The ancient character of the people of the south of Scotland is still in some degree to be found in the remote, and especially in the south-western parts of this county, on both sides of the Pentland hills. The following were, in former times, the leading traits of their character: Every man had learned to read and write tolerably our native tongue; and every woman could read. The books which they chiefly perused consisted of history, but more especially of polemical theology. The works of the Jewish historian Josephus has always been a favourite book among them, together with the histories of the reigns of the royal family of Stuart, written by Cruikshank and others of the whig party, the zealous enemies of that family, and the enemies of popery, and even of what is called prelacy, or the episcopal form of church government as established in England, on account of its resemblance to popery. A few also perused the works of our countryman Burnet, bishop of Salisbury, whose writings have been decried by Hume and the later historians, for no other purpose that can well be discerned, unless that they might be enabled to copy largely from him without their plagiarism being detected. In truth, he describes the characters of the distinguished men of his time with an animation and interest that has no equal, excepting perhaps in the writings of Plutarch. But Burnet was always distrusted by the common people of Scotland because he was a bishop, and because he was not sufficiently zealous in favour of the an- Character.

State of Society, &c.

cient covenanters. In theology, the writings of Boston, a Scottish presbyterian clergyman, were much respected; together with the sermons and writings of all zealous Calvinistic divines. The controversial publications, also, which have occurred at different periods between the dissenters and the established clergy, or between the former among themselves, have been eagerly read. Religion has at all times been a favourite subject of conversation among the Scottish peasantry, and gives rise to obstinate disputations. Such, indeed, from the train of their reading, reflection, and education, is their zeal upon the subject, that it has been remarked, that government, or the constituted authorities, never have any thing to fear from their discontent, provided they are left to the quiet possession of the two objects which they regard with great interest, viz. their religion and their oatmeal. For these, it has been said, that Scotchmen will always rise in arms, though, in other respects, sufficiently pacific and submissive to authority. In consequence of their great regard for religion, and their considering it as forming an important part of the business of life, besides attending regularly upon public worship, every father of a family formerly considered himself as bound to act as a priest in his own house, and to perform, at least once each day, religious service, in the form which our Scottish poet Burns has so interestingly described in the poem entitled, "The Cottar's Saturday Night." It was also customary, when any person was sick, that any elderly neighbour or acquaintance who happened to inquire for him, upon being desired to do so (which was considered as a sort of compliment), said long extemporary prayers at the bed-side in behalf of the distressed person and his family. These customs have been, in a considerable degree, abandoned in the neighbourhood of the capital (unless among dissenters), but they continue

to exist in the remoter districts of the county in their ancient purity; and in every quarter a less or greater degree of them is to be found. In their stead, the vices of a great city have spread themselves in a degree that is to be regretted in the vicinity of Edinburgh.. The poor are always apt to be corrupted when they come into contact with considerable numbers of rich persons: even when the latter act in a manner that exposes them to no reproach. In the neighbourhood of the city, young persons are sometimes found who can neither read nor write, and who imitate the vices of their superiors, without acquiring any part of their intelligence. Their attachment to religion is also less than it formerly was. Dissenters, indeed, abound in all quarters; and in several situations one-half of the community have clergymen of different denominations, elected by the majority of the hearers, and paid by the congregation: But, even in these cases, religion is very different from what it formerly was. The dissenters, who, before the middle of the late century, separated themselves from the established church, were acute, obstinate, and ingenious Calvinists, who discussed with astonishing subtilty the most difficult questions about foreknowledge, free-will, the efficacy of faith and good works, and the consistency with Scripture of the different forms of church government. Their zeal was, like that of political or philosophical disputants, apt to become intolerably acrimonious; because, to charge them with error, was to wound their self-applause, or the pride in which they indulged with regard to their own intellectual sagacity. In later times, there is less religious intolerance to be found; partly, no doubt, because there is less religion, but partly also because there is less spiritual pride, or fewer pretensions to superior wisdom or acuteness upon such subjects. Religion now consists, in a greater degree than

State of Society, &c.

State of religion.

State of Society.

formerly, of pious sentiments, or devotional feelings of hope and fear, veneration and gratitude, towards the Author of the universe. The subject is no longer studied by the common people as a speculative science, in which they are to distinguish themselves by acuteness of reflection or pertinacity of disputation. Hence it happens that they more easily change from one sect to another, because they have little attachment to peculiar notions, which appeared matters of weighty importance to their ancestors.

If dissenting meetings an evil.

It has been considered as a misfortune, because expensive to the country, that there should be so many dissenting clergymen established in it, and these too supported, in many cases, by the poorest of the people: but upon this, as well as upon many other points, it may well be doubted how far the soundest maxims of political economy are as yet sufficiently understood, and how far it may not be in some measure true, that "whatever is, is right." It is said that, in Siberia, men have no industry because they have no wants. They slightly scratch a fertile spot, and reap a sufficient crop. The grain, that is accidentally shaken by the winds, sufficiently sows the land for a succeeding crop; and this happens several years in succession; after which they have recourse to a new spot. In the mean while, they remain contented with the most miserable habitations, and food, and cloathing; and the soil does not produce one-tenth of the produce it is capable of yielding. It is evident that, were the Siberians to be instantaneously seized with an ardent fondness for fine houses, costly furniture, and a luxurious mode of living, their country would suddenly change its aspect; they would labour hard to raise grain wherewith to hire artists to gratify their ruling passion; and thus their own intellectual faculties would be improved, together with all the arts to which man owes his dominion over the creation. In like manner, in all countries, pro-

viding the energies of the human mind are called forth, it seems of little importance, either in a moral or in a political light, by what passion this important object is accomplished. If a Scottish peasant labour industriously, and recommend himself to the best employment, and to high wages, the community is certainly not injured, though his motive should be merely that of procuring money wherewith to contribute towards the support of a dissenting minister, to preach to him in the manner that is most agreeable to his fancy. Nor does it appear that the community would, in most cases of this sort, derive benefit from an alteration of the motives which render men active and industrious, in as much as an individual is neither less innocent, nor less useful, when he labours hard to procure money wherewith to purchase the luxury of hearing sermons, than when he labours to gratify his personal vanity by purchasing fine clothes. The same principle obtains with regard to other luxuries. If tea is now consumed by the common people, it is because they labour more incessantly and more skilfully than in former times. Half the number of men produce twice or three times more grain from one hundred acres of land than was formerly done. The superfluous hands are employed in manufacturing hardware and other goods, which are exchanged in South America for gold and silver, which are carried to China, and there bartered for tea. In other words, the men, formerly occupied in awkward and useless labour, are now employed in the preparation of the price of tea for the community. That they might be better employed is perhaps possible; but it is evident, at least, that their change of employment can be no misfortune to the community.

State of Society, &c.

In this county, as over the whole of Scotland, there are two regular establishments in every parish for public

Literature.

Parish schools.

instruction. These are, the parish schools and the clergy. The parish schools are established upon the same principle with the university of Edinburgh; that is to say, the schoolmaster receives a small salary from the public, and, in other respects, depends for a subsistence upon the fees paid to him by the parents of his scholars. In all the parish schools the English language is taught, together with writing and aritlimetic; and in most of them the principles of the Latin language are also taught.

As the teacher is not allowed to raise his fees above a fixed rate, which is very moderate, the poorest peasants have an opportunity of procuring education for their children. So very moderate, indeed, has this rate of payment been, that the editor of this Work was in his youth taught the Latin language by a parish schoolmaser, who was a man of talents, and the brother-in-law of the celebrated author of the Seasons, for the very moderate fee of 1s. 6d. *per* quarter.

Taste for literature.

The effects of the institution of parish schools have been extremely important. In consequence of the opportunity of giving education to their children which the law afforded to all classes of society, this opportunity was naturally seized with avidity by every well-disposed person. Hence, during a very long period, a sort of fashion has been established in Scotland of paying respect to literature; and a considerable degree of odium attaches itself, among the common people, to the character of the meanest labourer or mechanic, whose sons should not have been taught to read or write, and whose daughters should not have been taught, at least, to read their own language. Very frequently, where a parish schoolmaster happens to be somewhat more accomplished than usual, or more skilful in his profession, it becomes a sort of fashion to give the greater number of boys in a neighbourhood the rudi-

ments of a classical education; one consequence of which is, that if the quarter of the country is poor, the young men, being thus qualified to pursue Fortune in a better situation, or a more wealthy country, an almost universal emigration never fails to take place; and such a district becomes a kind of breeding territory for men, as poor districts usually are for other animals also. It is worthy of notice, that, in the most barren districts of the south of Scotland, the people are very frequently by far the most anxious about the education of their children, and seem to be most ambitious to push them forward in life by means of literature. In consequence of the cheapness of education, one of the easiest ways in which a Scottish peasant can make his son a gentleman consists of breeding him to the church. As the livings are not sufficiently great to attract to that profession the younger sons of the gentry, the chances of success to a young man of low rank are sufficiently flattering. Accordingly, it happens usually in the moorland parishes, providing the means of education be tolerable, that a far greater number of young men are educated for the church than in the more fertile districts; and this sometimes in no less than a tenfold proportion. Literature.

It frequently happens, where the parish school is situated at a considerable distance from the residence of some part of the inhabitants, that another school is set up and supported by the inhabitants there who have children to educate; and sometimes a few farmers join together for the purpose of procuring a teacher for their children.

When all this is considered, it will not appear surprising that Scotchmen abound in so remarkable a degree in every part of the British empire, and in so many foreign countries. As the whole children of the common people receive a tolerable education, sufficient to qualify them for occupying situations of some trust, all of them that Schools produce emigration.

Literature. have any spirit or ambition are apt to forsake the place of their nativity, and to fly to great towns at home, or to foreign countries, in quest of fortune, leaving behind none but the tamest spirits that are easily satisfied with their condition.

Advantages from literature. An illiberal doubt has been sometimes entertained, how far a nation derives advantage from the general diffusion of literature among the common people; but the example of Scotland has demonstrated, that the highest purity of morals uniformly accompanies the greatest degree of intelligence. There is no doubt that, to the establishment of parish schoolmasters, it has been owing, that, at all periods, crimes have in Scotland been so extremely rare. In periods of political effervescence, which occur in a nation once perhaps in a couple of centuries, the diffusion of literature rapidly spreads an acquaintance with whatever new notions are afloat in the world; but it also spreads, with equal rapidity, whatever can be stated against their truth or practibility, and thereby prevents their being rashly adopted. In all the ordinary occupations of life, also, an early education confers habits of reflection. It shows that honesty is the best policy; and inspires a pride of spirit, which is the best guardian of most mens integrity. It is true, that literature does not always tame a disorderly spirit; but, to a very late period of life, it renders reformation possible, and its result valuable; and renders the first follies, or even the vices, of youth not absolutely fatal. Hence it happens, that he who in Scotland was a very foolish young man, afterwards, in another country, is only distinguished by his soberness and successful industry. The celebrated Marshal Keith, who was under the necessity of passing his life in exile from Britain on account of the accession of his family to the rebellion of 1715, and who was so highly

distinguished as a skilful and gallant officer in the service of Russia and Prussia, is said to have related the following anecdote, which, in a striking manner, illustrates the wandering temper of the Scots He was at one time sent to negociate some important affairs with a Turkish provincial officer of high rank, and was received in the usual style of eastern solemnity and magnificence, by which business is always greatly embarrassed and rendered tedious. To his no small surprise the Turk inquired what languages he could speak; and on learning that he understood the French, which the Turk also understood, the latter proposed to dismiss their interpreters and servants, as they would in all probability more easily adjust their business when undisturbed by the intervention of third parties. The proposal was readily agreed to. The apartment was no sooner cleared, than, to the utter astonishment of Marshal Keith, the Turk, walking familiarly up to him, addressed him in broad Scotch, and asked him when he was last at Aberdeen. "Weel, man, whan was ye last at Aberdeen?" On an explanation, it was found that this Asiatic chief was no other than the son of a Scottish peasant, who had seen Marshal Keith in Aberdeenshire, and who after various wanderings in quest of fortune, had taken up his residence in Turky,

Literature.

And chang'd his gods for theirs, and so grew great."

By a statute lately passed, the salaries of the parish schoolmasters in Scotland have been augmented upon a very judicious principle of permanency, or of rendering them less dependent than formerly upon the fluctuating value of money. The salaries are fixed at from one chalder and a half to two chalders of oatmeal. A chalder is sixteen bolls, and a boll sixteen pecks. Four pecks contain 2688$\frac{1}{4}$ cubic inches; an English bushel contains 2150$\frac{42}{100}$ inches. The

Salaries of schoolmasters augmented.

Literature.

salary is payable to the schoolmaster in money at a certain rate *per* chalder; and the court of exchequer in Scotland is directed to take measures periodically for estimating the medium price of oatmeal; and according to that estimate the schoolmasters are to be paid. One branch of the statute has met with some censure. The ecclesiastical church courts, called *presbyteries*, of which schoolmasters are not members, are authorised to take trial of all delinquencies committed by schoolmasters in the execution of their duty, with power to suspend or dismiss them from their offices. No appeal from the sentence of the presbytery is allowed, either to the civil courts, or to the superior ecclesiastical tribunals, the synod of the district, or the general assembly of the church.—Three complaints are made against this arrangement. First, that it tends to create a depression or degradation of character in this valuable body, the schoolmasters, by making them dependent upon a different body, the clergy; a class of men who, in all ages and countries, have at times been liable to become restless and ambitious, or lovers of power. Secondly, it creates a multitude of territorial jurisdictions, which are always an evil in a country, as being liable to adopt local passions and prejudices. The jurisprudence of England owes much of its value to this, that matters are so arranged, that the judges of the supreme courts can decide all causes, or at least review all decisions. Lastly, this statute is accused of violating that important principle to which England owes so much, and towards which the Scots ought to endeavour to approximate, that every man ought to be tried by his peers.

Objections to the statute.

Ecclesiastical state.

Concerning the ecclesiastical establishment of this county nothing need here be said, as it is noway distinguished from what occurs in other parts of the country. The poverty of the Scottish clergy has often been talked of as

remarkable, though with no propriety or reason. It is true, that the emoluments of the best endowed parish church in Scotland are very trifling, when compared with the ample and princely revenues of the bishops of Durham, Winchester, or Canterbury. But this is only because the clergy of Scotland are upon a more equal footing among themselves than those of England. There is little doubt that a thousand clergymen in Scotland, which is about the whole amount of their number, divide among themselves a larger sum annually than is enjoyed by an equal number of clergy in holy orders in England, taken promiscuously from the whole body of churchmen. Here there are no curates who, for a miserable pittance, perform the whole duty, while a wealthy non-resident clergyman enjoys the benefice. Every Scottish clergyman is not only bound by law to reside, but actually does reside, within his parish. The livings in this part of the country are very various; but, in consequence of late augmentations, they have been raised much above their former amount. As a part of them in country parishes is usually payable in grain, they vary according to the market price of that commodity. They are worth from about L. 80 to L. 200, L. 300, or even L. 400 *per annum*, and, in years of scarcity, some of them rise above this last amount.

Church.

Livings of the clergy.

The duty of a Scottish clergyman consists of preaching twice or three times every Sunday, of administering the sacraments, of performing the marriage ceremony, of visiting the sick who request his attendance, of once a year at least making a visit at each family in his parish to administer religious counsel; and, lastly, of annually catechising such persons as choose to attend the diets appointed for that purpose. In great towns, the duties of visiting and catechising are now in a great measure dropt; bu

Duties of the clergy.

Church. they are still retained in the country. It is to be observed, that Scottish clergymen are considered as paid by the public for every part of the duty which they perform, and would account themselves degraded from the character of gentlemen by receiving perquisites or payments from individuals for the performance of particular branches of their office, as is said to be done by the inferior clergy of England.

Besides the duties already mentioned, it is accounted a part of the business of each clergyman in his own parish, along with the elders who have been selected by himself or his predecessor, and hold their places for life, to inquire into the situation of the poor, and to distribute properly for their relief the collections made at the church doors. The minister and elders also, holding a court under the appellation of the *kirk-session*, exercise a sort of jurisdiction in the case of certain offences against morality or decorum. The chief question that comes under their cognizance relates to the illicit intercourse of the sexes. They can inflict no civil penalties; but they refuse to the parties admission to the sacraments of our religion, till they expiate the offence by submitting to be rebuked before the congregation in the church upon Sunday. This is called *sitting upon the stool of repentance*. The practice has long been relinquished in Edinburgh, Musselburgh, and other towns; and in some of the country parishes a fine to the poor has been substituted in its stead, but in others it is still practised. There is undoubtedly a wonderful degree of indelicacy attending it; and, unless from its connection with religion, it is inconceivable how such a practice should have existed so long in a civilized country. There is no reason, however, for believing that there is any truth in what has often been said, that it induced women of low rank in this country

Kirk session.

Stool of repentance.

to be guilty of destroying the offspring of their unlawful amours; as it does not appear that this crime was at any period more frequent in Scotland than elsewhere, nor has it been diminished in proportion to the disuse of the stool of repentance. Indeed it is probable that this ceremony, by destroying all delicacy, had a tendency to render women of low rank very negligent in matters of this kind, and thereby rather to augment the sin of incontinency, which it was intended to restrain. Church.

With regard to the character of the Scottish clergy, it is unnecessary here to make any remarks. Their literary qualifications are secured by a longer course of study than is necessary for any of the other learned professions, and by strict examinations and trials, which take place before different bodies of established clergymen. The purity of their lives in general has certainly been equalled in few countries, and surpassed in none. Though some of them have attained to high celebrity as men of letters; yet this is a difficult task, and ought seldom to be expected from them, whatever their talents or qualifications may be, on account of the laborious nature of their duties, and particularly on account of their being incessantly occupied in the preparation of sermons for preaching weekly. Their hearers consist often of a sort of connoisseurs in sermons, and resent much any attempt to impose upon them an old for a new dicourse. Character of the clergy.

EAST LOTHIAN.

Boundaries and face of the country.

THE county of East Lothian, or, as it is often called, Haddingtonshire, is situated on the east coast of Scotland at the mouth of the Frith of Forth. It may be considered as in some degree peninsular, as it is bounded on two sides by the sea. On the east, it has the German Ocean as its boundary; and on the north, the Frith of Forth separates it from Fife. On the west, it has the county of Edinburgh or Midlothian, to the extent of about 14 miles. On the south, it touches Berwickshire, in a line somewha irregular, extending to about 26 miles; and in this direction, from east to west, it stretches to a greater extent than in any other. Upon the German Ocean, from North Berwick to the south-eastern border of the county, it scarcely extends 15 miles, and it stretches to nearly an equal extent along the Frith of Forth.

This county, which, from the statement of its dimensions now given, is of moderate extent, contains, however, within itself a very great diversity of soil and climate.

Lammermoor.

The southern part of it consists of a range of lofty mountains, of considerable breadth, in general covered with heath, and fit only for the pasture of a small and hardy race of sheep. These mountains formed in ancient times a barrier for the defence of the county, and of the Scottish capital, against the hostile invasions of the English, whose armies usually advanced along the coast from Berwick by Dunbar towards Haddington and Edinburgh. Accordingly this county and its vicinity was in ancient times the scene of much warfare. At present it is the scene upon

which agricultural skill and industry have been displayed in a degree that has perhaps been exceeded in no part of the British islands. The elevated tract or sheep-walk, which constitutes the southern division of the county, overlooks, towards the north and north-east, a fertile peninsula, descending gradually towards the sea on the north and west, and which in every part exhibits marks of the most successful industry. The elevated territory, which occupies the southern border of the county, receives the appellation of the *Lammermoor hills*, and forms a part or branch of a great range which crosses the whole island. Face of the country.

General Roy, in his Military Antiquities, observes, that, "advancing northward from the isthmus between Newcastle and Carlisle, the ground rises gradually, and at last forms a lofty range of mountains, which, beginning at Cheviot on the east, runs quite across the island to Loch Ryan on the west. The steep face of this range is from the north, particularly towards the east side of the island, where, for a long way together, it makes the boundary between South and North Britain. The middle and western parts of it are all comprehended in Scotland. It is highest in the centre of the island near the sources of the Tweed, the Annan, the Clyde, and the Nith, where it is known by the general name of the *Lothers*.

"From the middle of this lofty range, a smaller and much less remarkable chain of hills branch off, which, running eastward by Soutra and Lammermoor, end at St Abb's head at the mouth of the Frith of Forth. The level country, watered by the Tweed and its branches, is bounded by these hills on one side, and by the Cheviot range on the other.

"Beyond or on the north of these united chains of hills, the principal part of the Lowlands of Scotland are situated, extending quite across the island from sea to sea, and

Face of the country.

reaching as far as the Grampian mountains; that stupendous and seemingly impenetrable barrier, which, like a mighty wall, stretches along the southern front of the Highlands.

"Into this extensive plain the Friths of Forth and Clyde indent themselves from opposite seas, thereby forming that remarkable isthmus which is by far the narrowest part of Britain; and along this neck of land the Romans conducted their second wall."

Hills.

As this county, from the foot of the Lammermoor hills to the sea, is in general of a regular aspect, whatever hills or rising grounds it contains are extremely conspicuous. The most rmarkable of these is North Berwick Law, which, in a level country near the sea, suddenly rises to the height of nearly 800 feet, and forms a remarkable object at Edinburgh, and along the whole coasts of the Forth on both sides. Besides this, and not less remarkable, are the rocks of the Bass and Tamtallon, and *Traprene* or Dumpenderlaw; which will be afterwards mentioned as the scene of singular events.

River Tyne.

The only river of any importance, of which can deserve that appellation, in East Lothian is the Tyne. It has already been noticed as taking its rise in Midlothian, or the shire of Edinburgh, among the hills which form the southern boundary of a great part of that county, as well as of Haddingtonshire. It enters the county from the west near Ormiston, and, advancing in an easterly or north-easterly direction, passes Haddington, and falls into the German Ocean below the village of Linton. It receives in its course a considerable number of small tributary streams, which descend towards it from Lammermoor heights on the south. To the north of the Tyne, west from Haddington, is a long ridge, called *Gladsmoor*, which overlooks the Tyne on the south, and the Frith of Forth

on the north. From this ridge the country descends some- River.
what rapidly towards the sea-shore; but from Haddington, eastward, the country is upon the whole level and beautiful. The Tyne is in general a dull and slow-running river. Like the other Scottish streams, it produces trout through its whole length. At the lower part of it, near the village of Linton, it has a kind of rapid, or falls over some broken rocks. Below these it proceeds along a flat fertile territory to the sea; and in this lowest part of it salmon are taken. The Tyne, like all the streams which descend from the heights of Lammermoor, has at different periods been exposed to very sudden and violent inundations. The sudden melting of snow, and heavy falls of rain upon these hills, frequently produce considerable swellings or floods; but as these, on ordinary occasions, produce little damage, they are not regarded: But particular instances of floods are recorded which have given no small alarm to the neighbourhood, and have even been productive of serious danger. The continuator of Fordun and Buchanan mention one of these. On Christmas eve 1358, Flood in
there happened a most extraordinary inundation. The ri- 1358.
vers, swollen by excessive rains, rose above their banks, and swept away many villages, houses, and bridges, and many persons lost their lives whilst endeavouring to save their property. Not only cattle, but tall oaks and other large trees were torn up by the roots, and carried off to the sea. Sheaves of corn were carried off the adjacent fields; from whence it appears that the harvest that year must have been remarkably late. The suburb of Haddington, called *Nungate*, was levelled to the ground. As it approached the abbey of Haddington, a certain nun snatched up the statue of the Virgin, and threatened to throw it into the water, unless Mary protected her abbey from inundation.

River. At that moment the river retired (says the continuator of Fordun), and gradually subsided within its ancient limits.

Flood in 1756, The year 1755 or 1756 was marked by a considerable flood of the same river. In the month of June, when the day was still and clear sunshine, not a drop of rain having fallen either on that day or the preceding, a sea of water came rolling along the plain through which the Tyne runs, covering the adjacent fields with about three feet deep of water. This flood was supposed to have proceeded from a water spout falling in the lofty grounds near the source of the river.

In 1775. On October 4th 1775, there happened another very extraordinary inundation, which it has been supposed was undoubtedly owing to the bursting of a water spout to the southward, amongst the mountains of Lammermoor; for the day was not very rainy, and the inhabitants of the country, a few miles to the northward, when told next day what had happened, could hardly believe it, until, with their own eyes, they beheld the dismal effects of the inundation. The main branch of the river Tyne, which rises about 12 miles to the westward of Haddington, was not remarkably increased: it was from the rivulet called *Gifford water* that the immense flood poured into the river Tyne; which about two o'clock afternoon began suddenly to increase to an uncommon height, and in less than an hour rose 17 feet perpendicular above the ordinary bed of the river. It continued in this state for several hours, and then gradually subsided. The mansion-house of Clerkington, and the beautiful Chinese bridge over the river near the woollen manufactory, were immediately swept away. The whole suburb called *Nungate*, and more than half the town, were laid under water. The inhabitants were obliged to abandon their houses, and take sanctuary in the fields. Had it happened in the night, many must have

perished; but happily no lives were lost, though several of the aged and infirm were saved with great difficulty. On the banks of Gifford water, by which the flood descended from Lammermoor, sufficient traces were left to mark its course. A considerable number of trees were carried off from Yester, belonging to the Marquis of Tweeddale; and most of the bridges upon that stream were destroyed. Agriculture

Concerning the soil of the mountainous part, or southern tract of this county, it is unnecessary to make many remarks. From the centre of it, the waters descend towards the Tweed on the south, and the Frith of Forth on the north. It consists, in general, of elevated mountains, not sharp or tapering, but with a broad surface. They are intersected by various openings with small streams of water, adjoining to which are some narrow stripes of verdure, which are sometimes subjected to the plough, but with little success, not on account of any defect in the soil, but from the severity of the climate; for in a very favourable season, tolerable crops are produced; but as they are late in arriving at maturity, the frost is apt to set in, and to whiten the grain before it is ripe. Excepting these narrow stripes, which are only trifling exceptions, the whole of Lammermoor is a sheep-walk, and is upon the whole covered with heath. It is a breeding district; and the farmers sell annually as large a portion as possible of their stock to the low country grasiers, who carry the sheep to richer pastures, and fatten them for the butcher. Soil of Lammermoor.

Smearing of sheep is a practice which universally prevails throughout all Lammermoor. A composition is made of tar and butter or oil; and this mixture is laid on or spread over the whole body soon after the separation of the fleece, or at the commencement of winter. It is thought that this greatly contributes to preserve the animal from vermin; to improve and even increase the quan- Smearing sheep.

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tity of wool; and to secure it firm to the body, so as to hinder any part of it from falling off. This fact having been controverted, some storemasters have made an experiment of the effects that would be produced by omitting this operation; and, it is said, the result was, that the animal was more infested with vermin, more sickly and diseased, and that the quantity of wool was much less than if smearing had taken place. Whether this is owing to the peculiar nature of the breed of sheep in these hills, which are covered with fleeces loose, open, and shaking, and not thick, close, and matted, or whether smearing is advantageous to every sort of hill sheep, does not seem to have hitherto been in this country fully determined.

Breed of sheep.

The large English breed of white-faced sheep have also been tried on these hills, but unsuccessfully. They have only climbed the sides of the hills, but do not succeed on the soil of the bleakest and highest moors. It was found that the English sheep grew lean, meagre, and pined away, and were neither calculated for the climate nor the pasture. On the whole, it seems probable, that in this, as in most other matters, innovation, with a view to improvement, is attended with great difficulties. After a particular breed of sheep has, like the black-faced, active, and restless kind, been for ages habituated to a territory, it becomes a rash measure to dislodge them hastily for any other breed, however valuable, or even to attempt greatly to alter the habits which they have acquired. Hence, in all probability, has arisen the want of success which has attended every attempt to introduce a larger breed of sheep, reared on better pastures, to these bleak hills, which are exposed to the easterly and northerly winds coming from the German Ocean; and hence also arises the difficulty of putting an end to the practice of smearing. The sheep, being once accustomed to the

warm and close covering which this operation produces, it becomes necessary to the health and safety of the constitution of the animal; and as habits become hereditary, the practice cannot safely be abandoned with regard to the young. The best, and certainly the safest, mode of improving a race of animals under such circumstances, undoubtedly consists, not of introducing strangers of a different race, unsuited to the climate and soil, but of selecting the most valuable individuals of the ancient stock, and of endeavouring, from these, and from the most select of their race, to procure a constantly improving breed, till it shall reach the highest perfection of which the situation admits. It was in this way that Bakewell, and other celebrated improvers of sheep and cattle, obtained the kinds of stock which are now so justly valued in situations similar to those in which their improvements were undertaken; and this example may, without doubt, be successfully followed with regard to every species of animals in every variety of climate and of territory. The only objection to this mode of improving a breed of sheep, or of any other animal, is, that it requires a considerable length of time and much perseverance, while the prospect of profit is very distant; and in an enterprising age, remote benefits are apt to be undervalued. It is only by some sacrifice of time, however, that changes in the constitution of animals can be accomplished. If the ancient practice of smearing sheep is to be suddenly relinquished in a high and exposed territory like that of Lammermoor, it can only be safely undertaken, by discovering and bringing thither a race of sheep which have never been accustomed to it, and which have at the same time been produced in a like unhospitable climate. Agriculture

The cultivated territory of East Lothian, from Lammermoor hills to the sea, affords a distinguished example of

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General soil and climate.

the dominion which well exerted industry enables man to acquire over the surface of the globe. East Lothian can by no means be justly considered as very highly favoured by Nature. Consisting of an inclined plain, descending from Lammermoor to the sea, it may be considered as averted from the sun's rays, and held out or exposed as a mark in a northern climate to the fierce and chilling blasts which proceed from the shores of the Baltic. The soil also is in general of that sort in which clay greatly predominates, ; although upon the sea-coast, and in a variety of situations, a light loam is to be found, together with the gradations in the upper districts from that to clay. Upon the whole, however, a clay bottom predominates, or forms the principal characteristic of the soil ; yet under these disadvantages, and although much territory is unenclosed, a skilful agriculture has rendered this county almost the pride of Scotland as a corn country ; as there is undoubtedly the greatest reason to boast of the successful art and industry which have here been displayed. It must be remarked, however, that notwithstanding the northerly exposure of the county, its climate is on the whole very favourable to the growth of corn. The heavy falls of rain, brought from the Atlantic Ocean by the westerly winds, which so frequently deluge the western part of Scotland, are very little known in this county. The greater part of these clouds are attracted and broken by the high grounds between the valley of Clyde and Linlithgowshire or West Lothian. The few that escape this attraction are broken and divided by the Pentland hills. Part of them trevel north by Arthur's seat, and are wasted in the Frith of Forth ; another division is attracted by the Moorfoot hills, and they proceed along that ridge by Soutra hill eastward along the summit of Lammermoor.

A few, however, of these clouds, from their height,

sometimes escape both attractions, and take their course by Dalkeith towards the vale of Tyne, and to the district above it; but they are generally diverted out of this course by Garleton hills and Traprene Law; and they either take a southerly direction towards the hills of Lammermoor, or a northerly direction by North Berwick Law to the Frith of Forth. Agriculture. Rains and winds.

This is the general progress of the western clouds after the turn of the season; and progressively, as the year advances, rain with a west wind is less and less felt; and during the summer and autumn the wind in that point is a tolerable security for dry weather.

During the winter, the wind, in every point from the west, round by the north to the east, occasionally brings snow or rain.

The snow, however, does not lie for any time in the lower district; and even in the highest, they do not reckon at an average above three weeks of what they call *close weather*; that is, when the snow lies so deep as to render it necessary to *hand-feed* their flocks of sheep.

It is generally towards the end of June before the weather sets in steadily mild. It is even a proverbial expression, that the crops upon the clay and the strong lands seldom begin to mend until the nights are turned; that is, when the summer heats are partly commenced.

The spring in this county is generally dry, with occasional severe showers of hail or rain from the north-east.

During the whole of May the winds generally blow from some point to the north, with a bright sun, and a dry, keen, penetrating air.

It is at this time that the diligent husbandman endeavours to have his fallow, particularly upon strong land, lying under a cross furrow, and in lumpy clods.

The state of the atmosphere, above described, so effec-

Agriculture

tually dries the clods, that most of the rooted weeds enclosed in them are withered and killed.

During the summer, and in the beginning of autumn, the only rainy point in this county is from the south and east; and in ordinary seasons, the wind generally sets in from that point at the change and the full moon, and brings from ten to eighteen hours of continued rain.

It seems hardly necessary to qualify this average account of the climate with observing, that in so high a latitude as 56 north, it must be subject to considerable changes and variations.

Rotations.

On the high grounds adjoining to the hills, the favourite rotation of crops is, 1*st*, Turnips; 2*d*, Barley or oats; 3*d*, Clover; 4*th*, Oats. This rotation belongs to a soil and climate unfit for producing wheat. In the lower, that is, in the greater part of the county, the land is found, or by cultivation is rendered, fit for bearing crops of wheat. On such lands a considerable variety of rotations prevails. The following is frequent on clay soils: 1*st*, Fallow; 2*d*, Wheat; 3*d*, Beans or peas; 4*th*, Barley; 5*th*, Grass; 6*th*, Oats. Turnips are also introduced to a great extent, even on some clay soils, on account of their value towards the production of manure, or fattening cattle; and the general principle, which for two centuries rendered the Flemish husbandry superior to that of the rest of Europe, appears to be now established here, *viz.* that the crops ought to be alternately white and green, or one crop for man, and one for beasts. It is to be remarked, however, that the practice is found advantageous in many situations, and seems to extend itself, of introducing two or three years of pasture after every five, six, or eight crops obtained by means of the plough.

The East Lothian farmers have not been able to accomplish in practice the agricultural project which is urged

with so much eagerness by Arthur Young, Esq. that of abandoning the use of summer fallow, and of substituting for it drilled crops. The predominance of a clay soil, which so greatly abounds here, as well as in other parts of the island, has hitherto prevented summer fallows from being abandoned; turnips and other drilled crops being least suitable upon such a soil. Concerning turnips, however, a remark may here be made, which is not peculiar to this county, but applies to Scotland in general. It is this, that this root, the turnip, seems better adapted to our climate than to a more southern latitude. The fly is the great enemy of that crop; and it no doubt does at times prove pernicious here, but far more rarely than in England, on account of the greater coldness of the climate, and the frequency of rain during our summers; in consequence of which the young plants seldom suffer from heat so as to encourage the fly.

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Summer fallow.

The great object here, as in the rest of the Lothians, is to raise as many wheat crops as possible; and towards the raising of that grain farmers in general direct their whole skill. With this view, the practice is very prevalent of sowing wheat upon a clover ley, which is accounted a valuable preparation for that costly but scourging crop. Still, however, neither this preparation for wheat, nor the very favourite one of drilled beans, has been able to exclude the periodical loss of a crop for the sake of summer fallow. In general, it may be remarked, that the agriculture practised here is similar to that used in Midlothian, with the exception, that as this county contains no very great city, farmers are in general under the necessity of preparing the manure which is to be used upon their farms, having no other means of procuring that important source of fertility. Hence arises a strong biass towards the use of turnips, as already mentioned; and hence also

Wheat crops.

Agriculture. results a disposition towards converting considerable portions of good land into grass for pasture, as it is found no manure is ever superior, or even equal, to that produced by grass turf turned down into the soil. But although grasing is practised, it is in no respect prejudicial to the culture of grain. On the contrary, although more land in East Lothian is now in grass than in former times, yet there is no doubt that the general quantity of grain produced by the soil has considerably increased.

Farms in East Lothian are in general large; and in proportion as agriculture has improved, and become a source of wealth, they have gradually become larger. Accordingly farmers here, as in Midlothian, are men of liberal education, and are of an enterprising character. This reputation they have long possessed. At the same time it must, after all, be remarked, that the improvement of this county is not very ancient, as the introduction of summer fallow is said to be of no older date than the beginning of the late century, having been first attempted by John Walker, a farmer in the parish of Prestonkirk, in consequence, it is said, of the advice of an English gentleman. His neighbours having remarked the success which attended the practice, gradually ventured to imitate it, till at length it prevailed universally. In Scotland, an advantageous practice is no sooner introduced into any part of the country than it is eagerly adopted almost everywhere. This may be interpreted in two ways: The Scots are poor, and they are all extremely eager to become rapidly rich; a circumstance which leads them to grasp at every source of profit: or there is perhaps a fairer mode of interpreting the propensity to relinquish ancient practices for others which afford a prospect of improvement: The Scots, being all possessed of literature, have few prejudices to combat, and readily believe that much may be done towards

Introduction of fallow.

ameliorating the arts, from which mankind derive safety, subsistence, or accommodation. By the diffusion of literature, information of the success of every improvement is rapidly diffused over the whole country; and a farmer finds not merely his interest, but his personal respectability, injured by much tardiness in adopting it. Proprietors of land, also, are anxious to see their estates assume that aspect of fertility and good order which appears upon those of their neighbours; and hence a skilful farmer, at the termination of his lease, is considered as a person whom every proprietor of land accounts an acquisition to his estate. He has therefore every advantage in an attempt to establish himself anew. Thus the diffusion of literature, among the different orders of society, has a powerful tendency to encourage the improvement of this as well as every other art. Agriculture

Upon the sea-coast, in various situations, sea-ware is used as a manure. A prejudice long existed, in certain districts, against the use of lime, founded upon this notion, that as the soil, in these districts, rest upon a great bed of limestone, it had already enough of that mineral, which ought not therefore to be brought from the bowels of the earth to be spread upon the surface: but this idea has been gradually relinquished, in consequence of experience of the salutary effects of that valuable stimulus upon a clay soil. In other respects, the manure here used is in general the produce of the farm-yard. Manure.

It is worthy of remark that, in this county, that valuable agricultural instrument, the threshing machine, was first invented, or at least brought to its present state. —From the remotest antiquity the practice prevailed, and still prevails in America, of treading out the corn from the ear by means of the feet of cattle. In the United States of America, where human labour is very expen Threshing machine.

Agriculture

sive, the same mode of proceeding is still adopted. It also exists in the southern parts of Europe. Mr Young speaks of it as practised in the province of Languedoc, and other parts, in the following terms: "*Languedoc*: Through all the southern parts of this province they tread out the corn with horses and mules; a man in the center of the threshing floor, in the open air, drives them round, and other men supply the floor, and clear away the straw. In some conversation I had on this method, between Narbonne and Nissau, I was assured it was far preferable to the use of flails; that twenty-four mules or horses and twelve men would *depique*, as they term it, 150 septiers of wheat in a day; that some farms produce 2000 septiers of corn. What would flails do for such a quantity? I examined the wheat, and did not find it more damaged than with flails; but the climate is to be remembered, which makes the grain much harder than any with us. Seeing some flails going also, I demanded the reason; and was told that the master would sometimes have particular parcels of straw thrashed so, to get the corn that was left in it, if he suspected too much; at others, the labourers desire to do it for themselves, which is sometimes granted.

"*Provence*: Seeing a large quantity of the president's wheat spread on cloths for drying in the sun, and inquiring what it meant, I found it was washed, as all is of which the best bread is made; owing, beyond all doubt, to the mode of threshing, which renders it so foul that this operation is necessary."

The softness of the grain in our northern climates, together with the superior cleanness of the operation, appears to have introduced, at an early period, and to have rendered universal, the practice of separating the grain from the chaff and straw by means of the flail, consisting

of two sticks loosely attached to each other at one end by a rope; the one being held in the hands, while with the other the sheaves of corn are beaten with repeated strokes. The laborious, tedious, and expensive nature of the operation, long induced farmers to wish that some mode could be contrived, by means of mechanism, to abridge the toil of beating out the grain by flails. Accordingly, we understand that various attempts were made by ingenious men to construct a threshing machine. In particular, about the middle of the late century, Mr Menzies (of Culterallers, we believe, in the upper part of Clydesdale) constructed one, which consisted of a number of flails moved by a water-wheel. A Mr Stirling of Perthshire contrived and used another upon the principles of the flax-mill. About the year 1773, a Mr Ilderton at Alnwick erected a machine, which acted upon the principle of rubbing or pressing out the corn. At the same time, a Mr Oxley at Flodden framed one with skutchers, but of a defective nature, and possessing little velocity. The late Sir Francis Kinloch of Gilmerton, Bart. brought to Scotland a model of Mr Ilderton's machine, which he sent to be tried by means of the water-wheel of a barley-mill belonging to Mr Andrew Meikle, civil engineer at Houston mill, near Haddington. It was torn to pieces in the trial; and when tried anew upon a larger scale, the same accident occurred. Mr Meikle himself, however, invented the new machine which is at present in use, and which is now known and employed, not only in Britain, but also on the continent of Europe and in America. We have learned with regret, that, like many other ingenious men, Mr Meikle has derived little or no emolument from his invention, though of the utmost utility to the most important of all arts. The machine has received various improvements, or at least alterations, but without depart-

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ing from the mechanical principles on which it was originally formed by him. It is accounted a necessary appendage to every farm; and one advantage resulting from it is accounted of great utility, that with little loss of time it enables the farmer personally to superintend the important operation of beating out and measuring his grain, without entrusting much either to the fidelity or the attentiveness of his servants.

Winter lambs.

Among an active and enterprising class of farmers, like those of East Lothian, it would be in vain to attempt to enumerate particular examples of industry, or the branches into which it has been directed. As an example, however, of these, it may be remarked, that from the western part of this county, the luxurious capital of Scotland was for some time almost exclusively supplied with lamb during the middle of winter, one farmer having sent annually to market 100 lambs at a guinea each, and this even while full-grown sheep could be obtained for little more than half that price. The ewes from which they are obtained are of the Cowley breed; they are kept till they are old, and well fed through the year. By a similar management, it is said that lambs may be had from any breed of sheep at any season; but it is necessary that the ewes and lambs be kept as warm as possible in a house or shed; the ewes being fed with turnips and oats, at the rate of a peck of oats daily to twenty of them.

Roads.

In East Lothian much attention and expence are bestowed upon that essential requisite to the improvement of agriculture, the formation and care of the high roads. One of the great roads from Edinburgh to London passes through the center of the county, and is preserved in good repair; but, on account of the nature of the soil, it is found extremely difficult, in many parts of the county, to preserve the roads in good condition during winter.

This county contains abundance of wood. Indeed more trees and hedges are found in the level parts of it than is agreeable to many of the farmers, as they afford shelter to multitudes of birds, and prevent the drying and ripening of the grain during unsteady weather in the harvest.—It would lead to extreme prolixity to take notice here of the multitudes of beautiful plantations which surround the seats of the nobility and gentry in the south-western parts of the county. Humbie wood consists of about 300 acres of oak and birch; and being contiguous to Salton wood, presents a beautiful object to a traveller when the Lothians open to his view from Soutra hill. There are some wood-cocks and pheasants in it. It is infested with that distemper, so pernicious to cattle, called the *wood-ill*, or *moor-ill*; the effects of which may, however, be prevented by castor oil, or any other laxative. To the north of this, in the parish of Ormiston, the lands are in general inclosed with hedges of white thorn, mixed with sweet briar, honeysuckle, and hedge-row trees. As the appearance of the country is in general flat, to a stranger it is thought to bear a striking resemblance to the country in England. Some of the woods in the parish of Pencaitland are said to have suffered much from squirrels, which have penetrated hither from the Esk in Midlothian, where they were originally introduced. They attack the young Scotch firs, but more particularly the larix and elm. The degree of vegetative activity of this soil and climate will be sufficiently understood by stating the growth of an elm or oak during five years, as noticed by Sir Andrew Lauder.

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Woods and plantations.

Salton wood.

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	Feet.	Inch.
Girth of the elm in 1788, three feet above ground	5	2¼
Ditto of ditto in 1793	5	11½
Medium annual increase	—	1¾
* Girth of an oak in 1788, at the same height	3	6
Ditto of ditto in 1793	4	2½
Medium annual increase	—	11¹⁵⁄₁₆

Great yew. In the parish of Ormiston, in Lord Hopeton's garden at Ormiston hall, a remarkable yew-tree has been deservedly admired. Its trunk is 11 feet in circumference and 25 feet in length; the diameter of the ground overspread by its branches is 53 feet; and there is about the 20th part of an English acre covered by it. This tree is still growing in full vigour, without the least symptom of decay in any of its branches, which increase yearly in length about an inch. There is no tradition that can be depended upon for exactly ascertaining its age; but, from the best information, it cannot be under 200 years old. It seems rather more probable to be between 300 and 400 years old.

To the eastward of Haddington, as well as southward to the foot of the mountains, the country abounds with beautiful plantations. In particular, towards the south, the inclosures and pleasure grounds of Yester, the seat of the Marquis of Tweeddale, are about ten miles in circumference; and in these there are woods and plantations to a very great extent. In the parish of Haddington, the

ethington rk. park of Lethington deserves notice on account of its origin. The Duke of Lauderdale had been told by the Duke of York, the brother and unfortunate successor of Charles the Second, that he understood that the country of Scotland was so naked and barren that it could not ex-

hibit a single instance of a deer park. Thereafter, when this prince was about to visit Scotland, the Duke of Lauderdale, to support the pride of his country, enclosed between 300 and 400 acres with a stone wall of 12 feet in height, and stocked it with deer. Some years ago Lord Blantyre reduced this wall to seven feet. It was at this place that the excellent species of apples called *Lethington* were first cultivated in Scotland, having been brought hither from France about the middle of the 16th century. In the north-eastern part of the county, on the shore of the German ocean, between the mouth of the Tyne and North Berwick, it has been found that forest trees may be successfully planted even upon the sea-beech. When Thomas, 6th earl of Haddington, came to reside at Tynningham, in the year 1700, there were not at that time above 14 acres of woodlands upon the estate, it being supposed that no trees could grow because of the sea air and north-east winds. The earl at first rather believed the common opinion; but some successful trials having produced a hope that the climate might be overcome, his Lordship entered eagerly into the plan of sheltering and enriching his lands by plantations. In 1707, was begun the inclosing and planting of the moor of Tynningham, to which at that time was given the name of Binning wood. Prior to that period, it was common to some of his Lordship's tenants and a neighbouring gentleman, excepting a small part of it, for which one of the tenants paid a trifling rent. After the planting of Binning wood, his Lordship inclosed and divided his fields with stripes of planting of forty, fifty, or sixty feet broad. The East Links, which are situated close upon the sea-beech, were at that time a flat barren sand, with scarcely any grass upon them, and of no use but as a rabbit warren. A gentleman from Hamburgh, happening to be at Tynning-

Agriculture

Woods at Tynningham.

Agriculture

ham, mentioned, that he had often seen trees growing on the continent on such a soil. This hint was taken, and the Links were immediately planted. All who saw the operation thought the expence of trees and labour thrown away; but, contrary to their expectations, they throve as well as on the best ground. The trees planted in the Links are the Scotch fir. In Binning wood there is a great variety, viz. oak, ash, beech, elm, plane, fir, willows, and several others; the thinnings of which have for many years past yielded a considerable income, often above L. 500 a-year; and, besides the advantage that is derived from the shelter which the plantations afford, the grass in the woods is much more valuable than it would have been if allowed to remain in its original state. Binning wood consists of about 300 acres; the plantations upon the estate have at different times been extended; and there are now about 800 acres of ground planted at Tynningham.

Minerals.

It would appear that a very great proportion of this county, or at least of the western parts of it, from the borders of Lammermoor to the sea, rests upon a bed of the most valuable mineral strata; lime, coal, ironstone, and freestone, every where abound; and it is known that several extensive parishes rest upon a bed of limestone rock. In the western part of the county various coal mines are at present wrought. One of excellent quality, belonging to the Earl of Hopeton, is wrought in the parish of Ormiston. In the parish of Tranent there are various collieries. A seam of about two feet thick, at the depth of fifteen fathoms, has been wrought by a company of distillers at St Clement's Wells. Besides this, there are three collieries in the same parish, Tranent, Elphinstone, and Birsley. The best seam is that of Elphinstone, being no less than nine feet thick at the depth of thirty-two and

twenty-five fathoms, according to the ascent and descent of the surface. Below this is a stratum or seam of five feet thick; and, besides these, are several others not thought worth working. Minerals.

These collieries supply Prestonpans and other places in the neighbourhood, although coal would seem to exist in all the neighbouring parishes, particularly in the estate of Prestongrange, in the parish of Prestonpans, where, however, none has been wrought during these last 40 years. At the same time, as abundance of basaltic rock or whinstone is here found, the bed of coal is not considered, like that of Midlothian, as uninterrupted. In the adjoining parish of Pencaitland, on both sides of the Tyne, coal has also been wrought; and from the pits there, large quantities are conveyed for the supply of the more southern and of the eastern districts of the county. Considerable quantities, also, are conveyed beyond Lammermoor into Lauderdale. Towards the eastern part of the county, the coal, which is justly accounted the most valuable mineral, fails. At the same time, on the east coast, about Inverwick and Oldhamstocks, though coal is not worked, various small seams of it are seen; and it is probable that, by boring to a considerable depth, richer strata might be discovered. Freestone, ironstone, and lime, are there found in great abundance.

In a country abounding in mineral productions, it cannot fail to happen that some springs should receive an impregnation from the various substances deposited in the bowels of the earth; but in this county no mineral waters have of late attained to any great degree of celebrity. In the parish of Humbie there is a spring of martial acidulous water, which was much resorted to about 60 years ago by people of fashion for scorbutic disorders. In the parish of Tranent, there was, within these few years, a Mineral springs.

Minerals. chalybeate spring in considerable repute at Bankton; but it has now disappeared, having found its way, as is supposed, into the waste below; that is, into the empty space in a coal mine after the minerals have been removed. In the parish of Spott, Kesthill well, near Bothwell (a seat of the Earl Bothwell), was formerly resorted to for scorbutic complaints. In the parish of Salton, near Salton house, a mineral spring has been discovered, within these twenty years, which has been represented as in no respect inferior to the medicinal waters of Bristol, and as possessing the same properties. Lastly, in the parish of Innerwick, there is a spring, the water of which is said to be remarkable for its uncommon lightness.

Royal boroughs. In this county there are three royal boroughs, Haddington, Dunbar, and North Berwick. The borough of

Haddington. Haddington is governed by a council, consisting of a provost, three bailies, a dean of guild, a treasurer, and nineteen other members, under the appellation of merchant or trades counsellors and deacons of crafts. Its revenues amount to about L. 400 Sterling *per annum*, arising chiefly from the rents of certain mills, petty-customs, &c. Haddington is the tenth in the order of precedency among the royal boroughs, and pays L. 1 : 16s. of every L. 100 of the assessments imposed upon them. Along with Jedburgh, Lauder, Dunbar, and North Berwick, it possesses the privilege of electing a member of parliament.

The town consists of four streets, which intersect each other nearly at right angles. The buildings are in general very ordinary; though some good houses are to be found. As in other Scottish towns they are of stone. The only public buildings of any importance which belong to the borough are the town-house and the schoolhouse. The town-house was built in 1748, from a design of the late Mr William Adam, architect; and ad-

joining to it an elegant assembly-room was built in 1788. Here balls are frequently held by the families of rank of the county. The school-house is large and commodious. By the charter of the borough two annual fairs, or great markets, are appointed to be held; the one on the feast or St Peter, and the other on Michaelmas. Since the alteration of the style these fairs are held in the beginning of July and October. Neither of them are much frequented. At Haddington a weekly market for grain is held every Friday. It is accounted the greatest of the kind in Scotland: that of Dalkeith is second to it. The weekly prices of grain at the Haddington market have long been regularly published in all the Scottish newspapers. Haddington.

Haddington and its vicinity has long been the seat of an woollen manufactory. For several centuries past a coarse sort of woollen goods have been manufactured here, particularly in the suburb called Nungate. During the time of Cromwell's usurpation, an English company, of which one Colonel Stanfield was the principal partner, expended a very considerable sum of money in establishing a manufactory of fine woollen cloths. For this purpose they purchased some lands, formerly belonging to the monastery of Haddington, erected fulling mills, dyeing houses, &c. and called the name of the place *Newmills*. After the restoration, several Scots acts of parliament were made for the encouragement of this company, and Colonel Stanfield had the honour of knighthood conferred on him. Sir Philip Stanfield was barbarously murdered, A. D. 1687, by his eldest son; who was tried, condemned, and executed for the murder, and his head and right hand placed on the east port of Haddington. The trial, which is a very curious one, is published in the state trials; and what appears remarkable is, that even at so late a period Woollen manufactory.

Haddington. Remarkable superstition.

the superstitious notion seems to have universally obtained, that if the body of a person who has been murdered is touched by the murderer, the wounds will bleed afresh: For not only was Sir Philip Stanfield's body taken up, several days after it had been buried, and his son compelled to touch it, but Sir John Dalrymple, when king's advocate, afterwards Earl of Stair, though a man of the greatest abilities this country ever produced, and who possessed a mind as little tinctured with vulgar superstition as any of his cotemporaries, lays great stress in his charge to the jury on the circumstance of the body's bleeding when touched by young Stanfield. After Sir Philip's death the manufactory declined; and the affairs of the company going into disorder, Colonel Charteris purchased their lands and houses, and changed the name of it from Newmills to Amisfield, in honour of the very ancient family in Nithsdale of which he was descended.

About the middle of the late century, under the auspices of Andrew Fletcher of Milton, one of the judges of the court of session, a company was established for carrying on the woollen manufactory, and a large sum was subscribed. The trade proved unsuccessful, and the company was dissolved; but a new company, upon a smaller scale, continued the business till about the year 1788, when it was finally dissolved. It was afterwards carried on by one or two individuals; but it does not appear that the Lothians are favourable to manufactures, notwithstanding their abundance of fuel and a fertile territory, producing every thing necessary for supporting a crowded population. Even the manufacture of coarse woollen, so long carried on by weavers residing in the Nungate, is said to have greatly declined of late years.

Monastery. In Haddington there appear to have been anciently several considerable religious foundations. Ada, Countess of Nor-

thumberland, daughter of the Earl of Warren in England, widow of Prince Henry, son to David the First, king of Scotland, and mother of Malcolm the Fourth, surnamed *the Maiden*, and William surnamed *the Lion*, kings of Scotland, founded a priory of nuns A. D. 1178, near Haddington, dedicated to the Virgin Mary. It was situated about a mile to the eastward of the borough, on the banks of the river Tyne, where there is still a little village called the *Abbey*; but the monastery itself has been entirely destroyed. It appears to have possessed very considerable revenues, arising from a land estate and from tithes. The prioress, with the consent of her chapter, in 1567, conveyed the greatest part of the lands belonging to the monastery to William Maitland younger of Lethington; and they were afterwards converted by the crown into a temporal barony or lordship in favour of the family of Lauderdale.—It may here be remarked, that at the reformation the property of the lands of the catholic church in Scotland were alienated to laymen in a great variety of forms. Had the government possessed sufficient strength, these lands would naturally have been confiscated, and must have swelled the power of the crown beyond all bounds. It was to the confiscation of ecclesiastical property, and consequently to the large estates, which he had in his power to give away, that Henry the Eighth of England appears to have owed much of the absolute dominion or authority which he possessed at home as well as his importance in foreign politics. In Scotland, as the reformation from popery took place during the minority of the reigning princess Mary, the nobles and gentry were left to devise plans for securing to their families the church lands in their neighbourhood, without being under the necessity of expecting them from the favour of a court. It appears to have been customary for

Haddington.

Church property how dilapidated.

Haddington.

the beneficed clergy and the monasteries to sell their lands to the neighbouring nobility and gentry for what price they could obtain. This price, though small, served as a sort of provision to the present incumbents in the general wreck of ecclesiastical affairs. The purchasers took their chance of obtaining their title to be confirmed by the crown at some future period. As many of the popish churchmen were the near kindred of the most distinguished nobility, they conveyed their lands and revenues to their relations, who were often too powerful to be deprived, by a weak government, of what had been thus irregularly obtained. By the different modes now mentioned, the catholic clergy themselves became in Scotland the instruments by which the property of the church was dilapidated. They gifted it to the powerful for protection; or they bartered it to the rich for trifling sums of money, to be applied to their own subsistence during the remainder of their lives. Some very irregular transactions of this sort are known to have occurred, of which we shall mention an example, though it does not belong to this county, but to West Lothian, or rather to Fife. The abbot of Dunfermline, wishing to raise money at the reformation, authorised an agent to sell the exclusive privilege which belonged to his monastery of plying with boats at the great passage across the Forth at Queensferry. The more easily to obtain purchasers, the abbot's agent offered to sell the privilege in shares; each share to entitle the purchaser to one sixteenth of the whole right. The project appears to have been successful; the shares were eagerly purchased; the abbot's agent continued to sell shares as long as he found persons willing to buy; and there is evidence still in existence that he actually sold eighteen sixteenth shares of the Queensferry passage.

To return: In the town of Haddington there were monasteries of Dominicans and Franciscans. The church of the Franciscans was in 1355 so magnificent, that we are told by Fordun and John Major it was styled *Lucerna Laudoniæ, the lamp of Lothian*, from the lamps kept constantly burning in it, which rendered it visible at a great distance during the night. Haddington. Franciscan church.

The parish church of Haddington, to which two clergymen are at present allotted, is a very large and venerable structure. From the style of the architecture it appears to have been built in the 12th or 13th century. The length of the fabric, from east to west, is 210 feet; the length of the transept or cross, from north to south, is 110 feet; and the breadth of the nave is 62 feet. Only the western part of the church is now used for public worship, and might, if properly seated, accommodate 2000 hearers; the remainder of the fabric is unroofed, and going fast to ruin. Parish church.

At what precise time Haddington was erected into a royal borough is uncertain; for the town having been several times destroyed by fire, and often laid waste by the inroads of the English, all its ancient records are lost or destroyed. There is a charter amongst the public records from James the First, dated 1542; but the most ancient charter the magistrates are possessed of in the borough records is one from King James the Sixth, dated 13th January 1624, confirming all their ancient rights and privileges, of which a ratification was obtained in parliament A. D. 1633. History. The town repeatedly burnt.

In the year 1244, the town was totally consumed by fire; and although in that period, not only our towns, but even cities, being mostly built with wood and covered with thatch, were liable to frequent calamities of that kind, yet when we are told (*Fordun*, lib. ix. c. 64.), that same

Haddington. night in which Haddington was burned, Stirling, Roxburgh, Lanark, Perth, Forfar, Montrose, and Aberdeen, all underwent the same fate, we are led to suspect that the misfortune happened by design, and not accident.

In November 1355, the Scots, taking advantage of Edward Third's absence in France, seized the town of Berwick by surprise, and besieged the castle. This step was a gross violation of a treaty concluded the preceding year; but the Scots were influenced by the French king, who had sent over some of his troops, and remitted a considerable sum of money, in order to effect a breach between Scotland and England. Edward, on receiving the news, immediately left France, and returned home. He arrived at London, November 17th, and obtained from the parliament, which was then sitting, a subsidy for six years of fifty shillings on every sack of wool, sold in the kingdom, in order to enable him to carry on the war. He staid only three days at London, and set out for the north at the head of his army. He reached Durham the 23d of December, where he issued a proclamation, ordering all men from sixteen to sixty to repair to his standard against the 1st of January. Berwick soon capitulated; and Edward, to be revenged on the Scots, laid waste the whole country the length of Edinburgh, burned the town and monastery of Haddington, as likewise the church of the Minorites or Franciscans. This devastation happening about the beginning of February 1355, it was many years afterwards remembered by the name of the *burnt candlemas*. The English fleet which supplied Edward's army with provisions was wrecked upon this occasion; an event which the continuator of Fordun very sagely ascribes to the interference of the Virgin Mary, because the English sailors had impiously broke into her church of Whitekirk,

Burnt by the English.

and robbed her image of the costly ornaments wherewith it had been decorated by the piety of the faithful. Haddington.

In April 1548, being the year after the fatal battle of Pinkie, an English army, under Lord Grey of Wilton, entered Scotland, laid waste this and the adjoining counties, built a fort at Lauder, garrisoned the castles of Dunbar, Yester, and Dalkeith, and fortified Haddington, leaving in it a garrison of 2000 foot and 500 horse under Sir James Willford. The Scots were so much dispirited at that time, that this garrison ravaged the country to the very gates of Edinburgh. The queen mother and Arran the regent, with the consent of the estates of the kingdom, applied for aid to Henry Second of France. He sent over an army of 6000 veterans under Dessé and other French generals. They were joined by 8000 Scots, and began the siege of Haddington. It was gallantly defended by Willford the governor; and, in spite of Dessé's activity, Sir Thomas Palmer and Holcroft from Berwick forced their way into the town with a supply of men and provisions. Garrisoned by the English. Besieged by the Scots.

A parliament was convened, July 7th, 1548, at the abbey of Haddington, that is, in the camp itself; where, in consequence of the influence of the queen mother, the French general, and the ambassador Sieur D'Oyessel, the consent of parliament was obtained to the young queen's marriage with the dauphin, and her education at the court of France. Many, and in particular all those who favoured the reformed religion, declared their disapprobation of the measure, and were for accepting the terms offered by the court of England; but the majority were secured by French money and promises, both of which were distributed very liberally. Of this number was the regent, who had a promise of the dukedom of Chatelherault, together with an annual pension of 12,000 livres for him- Marriage of Queen Mary.

Haddington.

self; and for his son, the command of the Scottish guards, commonly called *gens d'armes d'Ecosse*. The young queen was delivered to M. de Brezé, who had been sent by the French king to receive her.

Scottish guards in France.

It may be remarked, that the body of Scottish guards in the service of the French monarchs was established by Charles Seventh in the beginning of his reign as a mark of his confidence in and gratitude to the Scottish nation for their powerful assistance, under Archibald Earl of Douglas, whom he created Duke of Tourain. They had the precedence of all the French troops, and the command was always conferred on a prince of the blood, or a nobleman of the first rank. In the reign of James Sixth it was bestowed on Prince Henry, and after his death on Prince Charles, and in their absence was possessed by L. Duke of Lennox. During the exile of Charles Second, it was commanded by his brother the Duke of York.

Detail of the siege.

But to return from this digression. The siege of Haddington was continued, and its vicinity became the principal theatre of the war between the two nations. Sir Thomas Palmer made an unsuccessful effort to throw supplies into the place, having lost 400 soldiers, prisoners; but Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, was afterwards sent with an army of 22,000 men, whilst Lord Seymour, admiral, and brother of Somerset the protector of England, was directed to draw the attention of the Scots from the siege of Haddington to the defence of their coasts at a distance. The admiral made a landing with 1200 men at St Monance in Fife, but was repulsed by the prior of St Andrews (afterwards Murray the regent, natural brother of the queen), who killed 600 and took 100 of the English prisoners. The admiral made a second attempt at Montrose, but was again defeated with a considerable loss by John Erskine of Dun. On the other hand, Shrewsbury not only raised the siege

of Haddington and supplied the place with every necessary, but marched towards Musselburgh, in the neighbourhood of which Dessé had intrenched himself. Though the earl attempted in vain to draw Dessé from his strong camp, yet he decoyed part of his cavalry into an ambush, where many of them were killed and taken prisoners, and amongst the former two officers of distinction. Soon after he returned to England, burning Dunbar and several other places. After this Dessé resolved to attempt Haddington by a *coup de main*. The enterprise was conducted with such secrecy that the English advanced guards were slain, and the bas court before the east gate was gained before the garrison was alarmed. The assailants were employed in breaking open the gate, when the place was saved by a deserter who had left Dessé's army a few days before. He fired a piece of artillery, which killed many of the assailants, and threw the rest into confusion. The noise alarmed the garrison, who immediately got under arms; and a party, sallying out through a privy postern, made such a furious onset with spears and swords, that very few of those who had entered the bas court escaped alive. The brave Dessé was not dispirited with this repulse; and in the morning he thrice renewed the attack, but was at last obliged to retire with considerable loss. Thereafter Dessé was recalled, because the arrogance of his temper had rendered him odious to the Scottish nobility. He was succeeded in his command by Chevalier Thermes, a knight of the order of St Michael, who brought over with him a reinforcement of 100 cuirassiers, 200 horse, and 1000 foot. The first action of the new French general was to build a fort at Aberlady. This greatly straitened the garrison, as it prevented them from receiving any supplies by sea. At this time, the garrison being reduced to great extremity from want of provisions, and being informed of

Haddington.

Assault attempted.

Haddington. Unsuccessful sally.

a supply having arrived at Dunbar, the governor marched out with a strong detachment to endeavour, if possible, to convey it to Haddington; but being attacked by a large body of the French troops, and overpowered by numbers, the gallant Willford, after an obstinate resistance, was taken prisoner, and the greatest part of the detachment cut to pieces. As the chevalier seemed determined at all events to get Haddington into his possession, which the English found impracticable to preserve, not only on account of its distant and inland situation, but because of the plague, which had broken out in the garrison, and swept away numbers, the Earl of Rutland determined that neither soldiers nor military stores should fall into the hands of the enemy. He therefore marched into Scotland with 6000 men; and entering Haddington in the night, he safely conducted all the soldiers and artillery to Berwick, October 1st, 1549. The fortifications of Haddington are now so completely demolished, that hardly the least vestiges of them remain.

Evacuated by the English.

In 1598, almost the whole town was again consumed by fire. This calamity is said to have occurred from the negligence of a maid-servant; and ever since a curfew goes through the town at eight o'clock at night, when, after tolling a bell, a crier repeats a few rude rhymes, mentioning the misfortune, and warning the inhabitants to greater caution for the future.

Dunbar.

Dunbar was erected into a royal borough by a charter from King David Second about the middle of the fourteenth century. It is situated on the sea-coast nearly half way between Edinburgh and Berwick upon Tweed, being about 27 miles distant from each. It stands on a moderate eminence, and a dry soil. The face of the country around it is pleasant, rising in general gradually and moderately from a low coast. It forms a very agreeable

landscape; the back ground of which, in every direction, exhibits a variety of striking objects. Eastward is St Abb's Head, with a bold and high coast; to the south are the rising hills bordering upon Lammermoor and the high grounds of Whittingham; westward are Dumpenderlaw, Garleton hills, and North Berwick Law; and on the north, the Frith of Forth, with the Bass, the Isle of May, and the coast of Fife. The principal street of the town is broad and well aired, and the houses, which have greatly improved of late years, have upon the whole a genteel appearance. As Dunbar is upon the principal road from London to Edinburgh, there are good inns here, as well as at Haddington, for the accommodation of travellers. At some distance, among the rocks, is a retired place for sea-bathing, with a room to undress. The town is accounted remarkable healthy; although, in common with the rest of the east coast of Scotland, it is exposed to cold winds from the east and north, chiefly in spring. The town is supplied with abundance of pure water, conveyed from St John's well near the village of Spott, at the distance of two miles. It is brought in leaden pipes. This work was accomplished in 1766 by the magistrates, assisted by contributions of the inhabitants. On the same occasion the streets were new paved. Dunbar.

Dunbar is governed by a provost, three bailies, a treasurer, and fifteen counsellors. The public revenue amounts to about L. 500 Sterling a-year.

The harbour of this town was originally at Belhaven, at some distance, but within the liberties of the borough. The east pier of the present harbour was begun during the usurpation, and Cromwell granted L. 300 towards assisting the work; but for many years thereafter it continued very imperfect, capable of containing only a few small vessels. Early in the late century it was enlarged and Harbour.

Dunbar. deepened, by digging into the solid rock eight feet deep at an average; and at the same time very commodious quays were built. This must have been a work of very great labour and expence. The harbour, though very safe, is still small, and of difficult access. A new pier was some years ago built on the rock that forms the west side of the entry. Towards this work the convention of royal boroughs contributed L. 600 Sterling. A dry dock has also been built. The harbour is defended by a battery of twelve guns.

The trade chiefly carried on at the port consists of the exportation of the surplus produce of this fertile county. Wheat, oats, barley, and malt, to the amount of ten or twelve thousand quarters, are usually shipped here, besides peas, beans, and hulled barley. Dunbar malt was long very celebrated in Scotland. A fishery of some importance has for half a century been established here. One or two vessels were usually occupied in the whale-fishing; but this branch of trade has been in a great measure transferred to Leith. There are here several fishing boats employed in the herring-fishery, or in that of white fish and lobsters. The tonnage of shipping, however, is not great, amounting to about 2300 tons. Cordage is manufactured here for the use of the shipping. Soap and starch are prepared in the town and neighbourhood; and a small quantity of kelp, that is, of sea-weed, is burned on the neighbouring coast for the production of mineral alkali.

Church. The fabric of the church of Dunbar is very ancient. It was built in the form of a cross. The body of it is 100 feet long, and it is only 24 feet wide within the walls. It was founded in the year 1392, by George Earl of March, for a dean, an archpriest, and twelve prebendaries. In the churchyard there are two grave-stones marking the burial place of two officers belonging to the castle of Dun-

bar, with Latin inscriptions in Saxon characters. The date of the one is MCCCL, and of the other MCCCLI. Dunbar.

The castle is situated on a reef of rocks projecting into the sea, which in many places runs under them, through caverns formed by fissures in the stone. The castle.

It is of great antiquity ; but the time of its erection is not known. Dunbar castle is mentioned as early as the year 858, when it was burned by Kenneth King of Scotland. It was long deemed one of the keys of the kingdom. Its history.

In 1073, it appears to have belonged to the Earls of March.

Anno 1296, the Earl of March having joined King Edward First, this castle was by his wife delivered up to the Scots ; upon which Earl Warren, with a chosen body of troops, was sent to take it. The whole force of Scotland was assembled to oppose him ; and the Scots, trusting to their numbers, rushed down the heights on the English ; but being repulsed with great loss, the castle shortly after surrendered.

A. D. 1314, King Edward Second, after his defeat at the battle of Bannockburn, took refuge in this castle, where he was received by the Earl of March, and from thence went by sea to Berwick, in his way to England.

A. D. 1333, Dunbar castle was demolished, as appears from Hector Boetius ; who says, " That Patrick Earl of Dunbar having, on the arrival of the English, dismantled it, razed it to the ground, despairing to keep it. King Edward the Third obliged him to rebuild it at his own expence, and to admit an English garrison therein."

A. D. 1337-8, this castle, which Buchanan says had been newly fortified, was besieged by the Earl of Salisbury. The Earl of March being absent, it was defended

Dunbar.

The castle defended by a lady.

by his wife, from the darkness of her complection vulgarly called *Black Agnes*. This lady, during the siege, performed all the duties of a bold and vigorous commander, animating the garrison by her exhortations, munificence, and example. When the battering engines of the besiegers hurled stones against the battlements, she, as in scorn, being, as John Major observes, full of taunts, ordered one of her female attendants to wipe off the dirt with her handkerchief; and when the Earl of Salisbury commanded that enormous machine called the *Sow* to be advanced to the foot of the wall, she scoffingly advised him to take good care of his sow, for she should soon make her cast her pigs (meaning the men within it); and then ordered a huge rock to be let fall on it, which crushed it to pieces.

The Earl of Salisbury, finding so stout a resistance, attempted to gain the castle by treachery; and accordingly bribed the person who had the care of the gates to leave them open. This he agreed to do, but disclosed the whole transaction to the countess.

Salisbury himself commanded the party who would enter, and, according to agreement, found the gates of the castle open, and was advancing at the head of his men; when John Copeland, one of his attendants, hastily passing before him, the portcullis was let down, and Copeland, mistaken for his lord, remained a prisoner. Agnes, who from a high tower was observing the event, cried out to Salisbury jeeringly, "Farewel Montague; I intended that you should have supped with us, and assisted in defending this fortress against the English." John Major says, the Earl of Salisbury would have been taken, had he not been pulled back by some of his followers.

The English, thus unsuccessful in their attempts, turned the siege into a blockade, closely environed the castle

by sea and land, and strove to starve out the garrison; when Alexander Ramsay, having heard of the extremities to which Dunbar was reduced, embarked with forty resolute men, eluded the vigilance of the English, and taking the advantage of a dark night, entered the castle by a postern next the sea, and, sallying out, attacked and dispersed the advanced guards. The English commander, disheartened by so many unfortunate events, at length withdrew his forces, after having remained before Dunbar during nineteen weeks. Dunbar.

In 1565, after the death of Rizzio, Queen Mary retired to this castle, where she was joined by a number of her friends; and in 1567, she and Bothwell having fled from Edinburgh, were pursued with such vigour by a party of horse, commanded by Lord Hume, that they had barely time to reach this fortress; from which she marched with an army, composed of Bothwell's friends and dependants, to Carberry hill, where, being defeated and abandoned by them, she surrendered herself prisoner, and was sent to Lochleven castle.

In the year 1567, Crawford, says Murray, laid siege to the castle of Dunbar; and the governor, seeing no hopes of relief, surrendered it on favourable conditions; the great guns were all dismounted, and carried to the castle of Edinburgh.

Among the rocks here are some basaltic columns: they are thus described by Pennant: "Between the harbour and the castle is a very surprising stratum of stone, in some respects resembling that of the Giant's Causeway in Ireland. It consists of great columns of red grit-stone, either triangular or hexangular; their diameter from one to two feet; their length at low water thirty: dipping or declining a little to the south, they are joined, but not so regularly or so plainly as those which form the Giant's

Dunbar. Causeway. The surface of several that had been torn off appear as a pavement of numbers of convex ends, probably answering to the concave bottoms of other joints incumbent on them. The space between the columns was filled with the septa of red and white sparry matter, and veins of the same pervaded the columns transversely. This range of columns faces the north, with a point to the east, and extends in front above two hundred yards. The breadth is inconsiderable. The rest of the rock degenerates into shapeless masses of the same sort of stone, regularly divided by thick septa. This rock is called by the people of Dunbar the *Isle*."

The castle is built with a reddish stone. Several of the towers had a communication with the water. Under the front is a very large cavern of black and some red stone.

North Berwick. North Berwick is a royal borough of considerable antiquity; but its old charter having been accidentally lost or destroyed, it obtained a new one from James Sixth. Independent of its political importance as a borough, it is of no great consideration, being merely a village containing about 700 inhabitants. No manufacture is conducted in it to any considerable extent. It has a harbour, whose only regular trade seems to consist of the exportation of grain. A small quantity of kelp is annually made from the sea-weed cut from the rocks at low water; but the driven sea-ware is used as a manure. The town stands, however, in an agreeable situation on the sea-shore, beside a beautiful country. The lands are in general enclosed. There are many stripes of planting or clumps of trees. It is all arable and fertile, with the exception of about 89 acres of Links on the sea-shore, and the lofty hill called *North Berwick Law*, which is extremely remarkable on account of its rising suddenly out of a level territory.

The old Cistertian nunnery at North Berwick is worthy of notice. North Berwick.

This ruin stands on an eminence at a little distance to the north-west of North Berwick, and commands a delightful view of the Bass, North Berwick Law, &c. Nunnery.

The following account of it is given by Sir James Dalrymple: "There was a monastery of nuns at North Berwick, founded by Duncan Earl of Fife, which was governed by a prior and prioress. This was Duncan Earl of Fife the Elder, who died *anno* 1154. I have seen a charter by King David, confirming, *Elemosinam illam quam Duncanus, comes, dedit mensalibus de North Berwick, et terram quæ dicitur Gillecameston, testibus Waltero Cancellario, Adamo Capellano, et Hugone de Morerl.* To Duncan Earl of Fife, who died *anno* 1154, succeeded Duncan his son, also Earl of Fife, who gave to the monastery the lands of Muthritht in Fife, and other lands which are confirmed by King William; and also the donation, by Duncan the Elder, Earl of Fife, of the lands of Kirkamstoun, and of two hospitals. So it is like, that Earl Duncan the Elder was the founder, and that the church had been originally the cell or kirk of a religious person called *Campston*, which was then dedicated to the blessed Virgin Mary, and the hospital turned from the first use, and the rent applied to the monastery. I have seen King David's confirmation, and that by King William, and one by Duncan Earl of Fife, and many other charters were granted by the kings, the Earls of Fife, and Duncan and Adam de Kilieneath, Earls of Carrick, and by bishops and other great men, to that monastery, but were unfortunately burned in the great fire at Edinburgh in the year 1700, and a few only preserved, which were not in the same house with the rest. The charter by the Earl Duncan the Younger, confirming that of his father, is extant."

Tamtallan. Tamtallan Castle stands a little more than two miles east of the town of North Berwick on a high rock overlooking the sea, which surrounds it on three sides; its shape being half an irregular hexagon. Much of the building is remaining, though in a ruinous state. It is encompassed towards the land-side by a double ditch, the inner one very deep. The entrance was over a drawbridge through a stone gate, which, with some other parts of the wall, is built with a rough stone, banded at certain distances with square stone. A rising ground covers the ditches and lower parts of the wall, so as to render them invisible to persons approaching it. It was formerly one of the strongholds of the Douglasses, and was held for some time against King James the Fifth. He besieged it in 1527, and only took it by the treachery of the person entrusted with its defence.

There is a tradition among the soldiers, that the Scots march now beat was first composed for the troops going on this siege; and that it was meant to express the words *Ding down Tamtallan.*

This castle was destroyed in 1639 by the covenanters; the Marquis of Douglas having favoured the cause of King Charles the First. At present it is entirely in ruins.

The Bass. From North Berwick is a view of the Bass and the isle of May. The former is a small island or insulated rock within the Forth, about a mile distant from the south shore, inaccessible on all sides except by one narrow passage. Upon the top of this rock there is a spring, which sufficiently furnished water for the garrison of a small castle (now neglected). There is also pasture for twenty or thirty sheep, and a small warren of rabbits; but this rock is more particularly famous for the great flock of sea-fowls which resort thither in the months of May and June; the surface of it being almost covered with their

nests, eggs, and young birds. The most esteemed among these birds is the solan goose and the kitty waicke; there being only one other place, that is, an island in the west of Scotland, Ailsey, where these geese breed; and from these two places the country is furnished with them during the months of July and August. The island of Bass was an ancient possession of the family of Lauder, who for a long time refused to sell it, though solicited to it by several kings. King James Sixth told the then laird, he would give him whatever he pleased to ask for it; to which he answered, "Your Majestie must e'en resign it to me, for I'll have the auld craig back again." However, the family at length falling into decay, it was, in the year 1671, purchased by King Charles the Second; during whose reign, and that of his brother James, it was made a state prison, where the western covenanters, called *Cameronians*, were confined for being in arms against the king. After the revolution, a desperate crew of people got possession of it; and having a large boat, which they hoisted upon the rock or let down at pleasure, committed several piracies, took a great many vessels, and it held out the last of any place in Great Britain for King James; but their boat being at length seized or lost, and not receiving their accustomed supply of provisions from France, they were obliged to surrender. The Bass. Solan geese.

A cavern runs through this rock from north-west to south-east. It is quite dark in the centre, where there is a deep pool of water; from thence it widens towards both apertures: that at the south-east side is the highest.

Besides the three royal boroughs of Haddington, Dunbar, and North Berwick, there are a considerable number of villages in this county. One of the most remarkable of these is that called *Prestonpans*, which is a long village upon the sea-shore near the western extremity of the Prestonpans.

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county. It evidently derives its name from the saltworks or pans here established, and from the small village of Preston, which is about a quarter of a mile to the south of it. The building of the town of Prestonpans is supposed to have taken place after that of the salt pans. At the beginning of the late century, the town was commonly named *Saltpreston*. It consists of two boroughs of barony, the East and the West. A borough of barony is an incorporation erected by the king, but upon lands of which a subject is the superior.

Tenures of lands in Scotland.

As it is impossible in this Work to avoid making allusions to the mode in which real property is held in Scotland, it may be here proper, concisely, to notice that subject. To this day the forms of the feudal system are preserved in Scotland so far as relates to the transference and tenure of real property. The whole lands of Scotland are held of the king, or the prince his eldest son, as steward of Scotland and Duke of Rothsay. Persons holding lands of the king or prince are styled *freeholders*; but they have no vote in the election of members for the counties unless their lands are valued at L. 400 Scots, according to a valuation made in the time of Charles Second. Persons holding of the king or prince as their superior may grant portions of their lands to be held under themselves. Those receiving such secondary grants are usually denominated *feuars*. They are said to hold of a subject superior. It is by this tenure that houses in villages, and small properties throughout the country, are usually held, and the feuar is in law denominated the *vassal* of the freeholder, who is his superior. At the same time, feuars may subfeu their property; and thus have vassals, to whom they in their turn are held to be superiors. In former times, every vassal was bound to serve in war the superior from whom he held his lands;

In modern times, however, he is only bound to make such payments as are stipulated in the charter or grant of his lands. When lands are to be sold, the party who sells resigns them into the hands of his superior, whether the king or a subject, to be delivered over to the new purchaser, who, by acceptance, and receiving formal possession, comes into the right of the party from whom he purchases. When a proprietor dies, his heir, upon proving his right to the satisfaction of a jury, is entitled to be received as vassal in his stead, and to have the lands formally delivered to him. When a new vassal is received, either in consequence of a sale, a seizure for debt, or the death of a vassal, certain payments are, by the terms of the original grant of the property, usually required to be made to the superior; and a considerable expence is incurred in executing the requisite legal instruments. As the expence is usually greatest when property is held of the crown, most persons prefer holding small properties of a subject; that is to say, properties not amounting to several hundreds *per annum*, entitling their owner to vote at the elections for the member for the county. All the forms of feudal holding, however, are so expensive, that the practice is gradually introducing itself, with regard to small properties, of holding them by very long leases of 1000 years, or some similar period, considered as equivalent to perpetuity. Such tenures, however, or rather all tenures by lease, are subject to some inconveniences, which we shall take a future opportunity of explaining. Prestonpans.

A royal borough is in Scotland an incorporation holding a determined tract of territory with a jurisdiction annexed to it. If the burgesses hold their various small properties immediately of the king, it is a *royal borough*; but if the territory of the incorporation is held in feu of a subject, it is then styled a *borough of regality*, or of *ba-*

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rony, according to the privileges and rank which the subject superior anciently enjoyed.

Harbour.

The only harbour belonging to Prestonpans is called *Morison's haven*, so styled from a family of the name of Morison, who were formerly proprietors of the estate of Prestongrange. About eighty or ninety years ago, it was called *Newhaven*, and often *Achesons haven*, from an ancient family, the progenitors of the present Lord Viscount Gosford in Ireland. It is situated a little to the west of the town. It has about ten feet of water at stream tides. This might be deepened so as to draw twelve. It is reckoned one of the safest harbours in the Frith.

Ancient trade.

Before the union, a considerable foreign trade was carried on here, especially in Dutch and French goods. Besides the home market, these goods, together with salt and tobacco, were carried to the north of England, and many of them were smuggled into that kingdom with great profit to the adventurers. From England they brought wool, and exported it to France. They exported likewise malt, salt, and coals. In consequence of the duties that were imposed after the union, the trade, especially with England, was much less advantageous. It was, notwithstanding, still carried on to a great extent. In the year 1719, 41 cargoes were delivered at the port of Prestonpans, 19 of which were imported in ships belonging to the town. Of these cargoes, 21 were wholly from Norway, six from Sweden, one from Dantzic, two from Dantzic and Norway, two from Bremen, five from Rotterdam, two from Havre de Grace and St Merlin, one from Oporto, and one from Maryland in North America. This last cargo consisted of 102 hogsheads of tobacco, 59 of which were delivered at Prestonpans, and the remainder was carried to Leith. Some years after this period, several of the vessels belonging to this port were lost at sea. This,

together with the check that it received at the union, gave the trade a blow from which it never recovered. No person of enterprise or capacity, or possessed of a sufficient stock, made any persevering efforts to re-establish it. Purchasers, not finding such an assortment of goods as formerly, had recourse to other ports; and about the year 1745 it entirely ceased. The harbour mostly used by the traders was Port Seaton, about a mile to the east, in the parish of Tranent. Before the union, and for some years after it, the Dutch trade centered chiefly in Prestonpans and Queensferry. Prestonpans.

At present the exports are only fish, and some articles manufactured in the neighbourhod. The imports consist of ingredients for these manufactures, and sometimes of English barley for the use of some neighbouring distilleries. Here, however, a customhouse is established, with a jurisdiction extending from the Figgat burn in Midlothian, on the west, to the mouth of the Tyne on the east.

The manufacture from which this town originally derived its name, that of salt, is still carried on here. It is produced by the evaporation of sea-water in large shallow iron vessels or pans. When the weather is dry, and the coal good, a pan may be drawn five times in a week. Each draught requires three fillings of water, and yields in summer about 18 bushels, in winter about 16. The difference is owing to the sea-water being stronger in summer than in winter. For the same reason, in winter, it requires 26 or 28 hours to a draught, in summer only 20 to 22. The process is sometimes retarded by the badness of the coal. When the sea-water is good, a Scotch gallon of it, about 29 lb. avoirdupois, will yield of salt nearly one pound avoirdupois. The draught consumes from 18 to 26 bolls of small coal or culm. The price of the coal is about eight pence *per* boll when laid down at Manufacture of salt.

Brenton-pans. the pan. Two men are employed in working a pan; their joint wages from 17 to 20 shillings *per* week. From the time the salt is drawn till it is sold, the waste by lying in the granary is computed at one bushel in ten. The better the salt is made, the waste is the less. When it is conveyed by land, a high wind occasions a greater waste than a moderate rain. Three bushels in 40 were formerly allowed for waste when it was carried coastwise; but this allowance was afterwards reduced by statute to one in 40. Upwards of 10,000 bushels of salt are usually made here annually.

Stoneware. A manufacture of stoneware has been carried on at this village during almost fifty years. White stoneware and cream-coloured ware are manufactured. The clay made use of in the manufacture is brought from Devonshire, and the flint from Gravesend. White and red lead are brought from London, Hull, and Newcastle. Fine clay is found in abundance in the neighbourhood. A manufacture of brown ware has also existed at this town for about 100 years. The clay used in it is found in the immediate vicinity. Bricks and tyles are also manufactured here. A manufacture of oil of vitriol, spirit of salt, aquafortis, and Glauber salts, has also been long carried on here.

Oyster-fishery. The fishery at this place has at different periods varied in its importance. The chief fishery is that of oysters. Oysters are found on a strong clay bottom, on rocks and stones, and sometimes, though but thinly, in what is called by the fishers *sea-tathe*. These last are of a very inferior quality. Those caught nearest to the town are usually the largest and fattest. Hence the large ones obtained the name of *pandores*; i. e. oysters caught at the *doors* of the *pans*. The sea-water a little freshened is reckoned the most nourishing to oysters. This may be one reason why those caught near to the town and shores

are so large. Sand is prejudicial to them. The fishers dredge from four to fifteen fathoms depth of water. When they draw the dredge, they begin the oyster song, which they sing till the dredge is hauled up. The large oysters are picked out, and kept; those that are too small for present use are thrown back into the sea. An oyster is reckoned sizeable when its shells are an inch and a half in diameter. Buckies, clams, sea urchins, star fish, and corse fish, are found in the oyster beds. The two last mentioned, especially the corse fish, prey on oysters, and likewise on muscles. The scalps reach from the shore about six miles into the Frith, and extend both to the east and west of the boundaries of this parish. In May the oysters cast their *spat* or spawn. They are sickly in June or July, but recover in August. For this reason the dredging commences on the 1st of September, and ends on the last of April. The common observation is, that the oyster season lasts during the months in which the letter *r* occurs; but the fishers have not confined themselves strictly to these months. The young fry are said to acquire shells in twenty-four hours, but do not become saleable in less than two or three years. The shells make an excellent lime, remarkable for its whiteness. The boats belonging to Prestonpans usually amount to about ten in number. Each boat requires five men; but the profits are divided into six shares, one share being set apart for upholding the boat. About thirty years ago, the scalps were so productive, that 6000 oysters and upwards were frequently dredged by one boat in a day. The price at that time was six pence *per* hundred. Besides the consumption in the neighbourhood, they were exported to Newcastle, Hull, and London. A merchant in Leith, in the year 1773, contracted to ship oysters on commission for London. He purchased for different companies, and for ten years paid

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Prestonpans. L. 2500 Sterling *per annum* for oysters. The value of the home consumption was estimated to be still greater. Forty boats were then employed, of which sixteen belonged to Cockenzie in the parish of Tranent, sixteen to Prestonpans, Cuttle, and West Pans, and eight to Fisherrow. The oysters for the London market were packed in barrels. Twelve vessels were employed in the trade from the middle of January to the middle of May. Each vessel carried at a medium 320 barrels: each barrel was supposed to contain 1200. A pattern was given to every boat, with injunctions to barrel none of a smaller size; but these injunctions were far from being strictly observed. Thirty cargoes have been shipped in a season. The oysters were dropt in bays at the mouth of the Thames and Medway, and other grounds, to fatten until the fall, when they were dredged and sent to market. The trade was given up in the year 1786, owing to a scarcity and advanced prices of oysters, the price having risen from four shillings and sixpence to seven and eight shillings *per* barrel. During some of the last years in which it was carried on, part of the cargoes were made up of oysters from Newhaven. The scalps were greatly exhausted by this trade; so that of late years a boat seldom returns with more than 400 or 500. But it must be observed, that 100, as reckoned by the fishers, contains 33 warp. Four oysters make a warp; so that the 100 is equal to 132. They are usually sent to Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Newcastle: to the latter place they are usually conveyed in an open boat manned with six men. Besides oysters many other kinds of fish are here caught, particularly haddocks, cod, skate, flounders, whitings, lobsters, crabs, and sometimes mackerel.

A singular commercial institution is connected with this town. On the second Tuesday of July, annually, the tra-

velling chapmen, that is, the itinerant sellers of wares, or pedlars, of the three Lothians, meet at Prestonpans, and elect some of their number for the purpose of holding courts to enforce the observance of bye-laws, to which they bind themselves to give obedience at their admission into the society. They elect on this occasion a provost or preses, a depute, a clerk, a treasurer, six bailies, and several counsellors. There is one bailie for Prestonpans and Cockenzie; one for Haddington and North Berwick; one for Dunbar and Oldhaimstocks; one for Musselburgh and Dalkeith; one for Queensferry and Borrowstonness; and one for Linlithgow and Bathgate. After the election they march in a body, preceded by music, to the cross at Preston; there they drink a few bottles of wine, and then return. In the towns where their booths are erected at fairs, the bailie for that town gets a pledge from each chapman, who is bound to attend a meeting of the whole number at an appointed hour in the evening or next morning. Here the behaviour of each during the fair is inquired into. If any of the bye-laws have been transgressed, a fine is exacted and paid. If the offence has been gross, they are expelled. The fines are deposited in the hands of the treasurer, and are applied to relieve the widows or families of those members of the society who need supply, and sometimes those who have been unsuccessful in business. They cannot proceed to an election unless some married members be present; but the preses is usually chosen from among the unmarried; it being supposed that those of this description will more readily attend the fairs. When a new member is admitted, he pays some entry money, which is added to the common stock. The son of a member pays less than a stranger. No information has been obtained that can be depended on as to the time when this society was first instituted, nor how they came to hold their an-

Prestonpans. Society of pedlars.

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nual meetings at Preston. The members residing in East Lothian were always the most numerous, which might be a reason for holding the meeting in this county; and Preston, being situated at its western extremity, is the town nearest to the other two Lothians. In the year 1736, they acquired a right to the cross there, which they still preserve. So much is Preston now decayed, that this cross stands in a field. The number of pedlars keeping packhorses is much fewer than it once was. About fifty years ago, there were fifteen in East Lothian, all of whom had a good trade. At present they are greatly declined; and the whole number of members in the society is supposed to be below twenty-four. Persons living in the country are now more accustomed than formerly to purchase different articles of merchandize in towns or villages, where the assortments are more extensive, and to which the access, by means of good roads, has now become more convenient than in ancient times.

In Prestonpans there is a market for butchers meat every Wednesday and Saturday; but it is attended only by butchers from the neighbouring villages of Tranent and Musselburgh. Indeed this place appears to have declined considerably during the last fifty years. In 1754 there were sixteen brewers in it, whereas they are now reduced to less than one-third of that number. There are here two water mills for grinding flint for the use of the potteries. They are chiefly worthy of notice on account of the mode of their movement. The one is turned by the water of a coal level, and the other by the sea-water collected at the flow of the tide.

Battle of Preston, 1745.

Above the village was fought the battle of Preston A. D. 1745, in which the army of the rebels obtained a victory over the king's forces. The commander in chief in Scotland, Sir John Cope, had left Stirling to go to the Highlands

to meet and disperse the rebels before they could gather strength and become formidable. When he came within 22 miles of fort Augustus, he learned that they were strongly posted, so that, with the forces under his command, it might be hazardous to attack them. Instead of remaining in front of them, to wait for reinforcements, and thereby at once to protect the low country and obtain a chance of compelling the Highlanders to disperse from want of money and provisions, he adopted the strange resolution of marching off towards Inverness on his right. From thence he proceeded to Aberdeen, where he embarked his troops for the purpose of passing round by sea to the south. The rebels wisely did not pursue him; but finding the whole of Scotland thus delivered up to them by the royal commander in chief, they marched southward, and, in the manner we formerly mentioned, entered Edinburgh, where they got money and muskets, of both of which they were in great want. The following account of the battle is nearly that given by John Home, Esq. in his late history of the rebellion. Prestonpans.

On the 18th of September, Sir John Cope completed the landing of his troops at Dunbar, to which port he had sailed from Aberdeen. On the 19th, he left Dunbar with his army, and marched towards Edinburgh. This little army made a great show; the cavalry, the infantry, the cannon, with a long train of baggage carts, extended for several miles along the road. The people of the country, long unaccustomed to war and arms, flocked from all quarters to see an army going to fight a battle in East Lothian; and, with infinite concern and anxiety for the event, beheld this uncommon spectacle. March of the royal army.

That day the army encamped in a field to the west of the town of Haddington. Next day the army moved again, directing their movement towards Edinburgh by

Preston-pans. the post road, till they came near Huntingdon; and turning off there, took the low road by St Germains and Seaton. In this march the officers assured the spectators, of whom no small number attended them, that there would be no battle; for as the cavalry and infantry were joined, the Highlanders would not venture to wait the attack of so complete an army. It is doubtful whether or not the people who talked in this manner really thought so; but such was the tone of the army; and whoever did not hold the same language was looked upon as a lukewarm friend. Sir John Cope, informed of the approach of the rebels, thought that the plain between Seaton and Preston, which he saw before him, was a very proper piece of ground to receive them, and continued his march along the high road to Preston, till he came to the place since well known by the name of *the field of battle*; and there he formed his army, fronting the west, from which the enemy was expected. In a very short time after Sir John Cope had taken his ground, the Highland army came in sight.

March of the rebels. The Highland army marched from Duddingston in a column whose front was very narrow, three men in a rank. They crossed the river Esk at the bridge of Musselburgh, and proceeded along the post road till they came to Edge Bucklin Brae. There they left the post road, and, going by the west side of Walliford, advanced a good way up Fawside hill; then turning to the left, bent their course towards Tranent, and, coming in upon the post road again, a little to the west of that town, continued their march till the king's army saw them appear. The soldiers shouted with great vehemence. The Highlanders returned the shout; and marching on till the head of the column was near Tranent, they halted, faced to the left, and formed the line of battle about half a mile from the king's army.

As the Highlanders, in marching from Duddingston,

had made a circuit. They did not come from that quarter whence they were expected; and Sir John Cope, as soon as he saw them appear on his left, put his troops in motion, and, changing the front of his army from west to south, faced the enemy. On his right was the village of Preston, and still nearer his right, the east wall of Mr Erskine of Grange's park; which, extending a great way from south to north, had a high road at each end of it. On his left was the village of Seaton; in his rear, the village of Cockenzie and the sea; in his front, the rebels and the town of Tranent. Between the two armies was a morass; the ground on each side of it was soft, boggy, and full of springs, that formed a run of water, which went down in a ditch to Seaton, where it ended in a mill-dam. In this boggy ground there were a great many cuts and drains, which had made some parts of it more firm; and in these places there were several small enclosures with hedges, dry stone-dikes, and willow trees. In the front, and but a few paces from the front of the king's army, there was a ditch with a thick and strong hedge. Battle of Preston.

The distance between the two armies, that were separated by this uncouth piece of ground, was little more than half a mile. In number they were nearly equal; the superiority, though but small, was on the side of the rebels. Sir John Cope's army, when he avoided an engagement with the rebels posted at Corryarrak, near fort Augustus, consisted only of 1400 men. In marching to Inverness, and from Inverness to Aberdeen, he met with two companies of Guest's regiment, which he brought with him to Dunbar. At Dunbar he was joined by the two regiments of dragoons, amounting to 600 men; so that his army, at the battle of Preston, consisted of 2100 men, besides some new raised companies of Lord Loudon's regiment, and the 42d, which were sent to Cockenzie as the Numbers in each army.

Battle of Preston.

baggage guard. When the rebels came to Edinburgh, they were somewhat under 2000 men; next day 150 M'Lachlans joined them; and before they marched from Duddingston to meet Sir John Cope, they were joined by 250 Athol men; so that the rebel army at the battle of Preston amounted nearly to 2400.

The afternoon was spent in various movements; Sir John Cope always endeavouring to preserve the advantage of his situation. But when evening came, and night approached, his situation did not seem so advantageous as he imagined. It appeared too plainly, that his troops were shut up and confined to a place from which it was not thought safe for them to go very far, whilst the rebels were at liberty to move about as they pleased, and were actually in continual motion, hovering about the king's army to find an opportunity and rush in upon them. The night was at hand, dark and cold; for although the weather was fine, and remarkably warm in the day-time, the nights were cold and frosty, as they usually are in Scotland at that season; for it was the 20th day of September old style.

Then, and not till then, some people began to fear that the army which stood upon the defensive, and was to pass the night under arms, would be attacked in the morning with advantage by an enemy, who, secure from attack, and sheltered from the cold by their plaids, might lie down and take their rest, and rise fresh and vigorous for the fight. Such were the gloomy reflections on one side, when night sat down upon the field.

During the night, Mr Robert Anderson, son of Anderson of Whitbrough in East Lothian, suggested to Prince Charles Edward, the son of the pretender, a plan for passing the morass which divided the armies. The plan was adopted; and about three o'clock in the morning, orders

were sent to Lord Nairn, who had been detached with 590 men towards Preston (to prevent Sir John Cope from marching that way to Edinburgh), to draw off his men and join the army; which he immediately did. Before break of day, the Highlanders began to move. Anderson led the way; next to him was the major of the regiment of Clanronald, with 40 men; close behind them was the army, marching in column as before, three men in a rank. They came down by a sort of valley or hollow that winds through the farm of Ringanhead; not a word was heard amongst them. At first their march was concealed by the darkness; and when day began to break, by a frosty mist. They were near the place where Anderson intended to lead them through the morass, when some dragoons called, "Who's there?" The Highlanders made no answer, but marched on. The dragoons perceived what they were, and rode off to give the alarm: the Highlanders immediately entered the morass, and passed through without much difficulty. The column marched directly orth towards the sea, till it was thought that the men who were behind might have reached their ground; then the Duke of Perth, who led the column, ordered the men to halt, face to the left, and form a line as usual.

Battle of Preston.

Attack by the rebels.

Sir John Cope, informed by the dragoons who had seen the Highlanders, that they were coming from the east, immediately put his troops in motion, and changed the front of his army from south to east. The ground between the two armies was an extensive corn field, plain and level, without a bush or tree. Harvest was just got in; and the ground was covered with a thick stubble, which rustled under the feet of the Highlanders as they ran on, speaking and muttering in a manner that expressed and heightened their fierceness and rage. When they set out, the mist was very thick; but before they got half way, the

Battle of Preston.

sun rose, and showed the armies to each other. As the left wing of the rebel army had moved before the right, their line was somewhat oblique; and the Camerons, who were nearest the king's army, came up directly opposite to the cannon, firing at the guard as they advanced. The people employed to work the cannon, who were not gunners or artillery men, fled instantly. Colonel Whiteford fired five of the six field pieces with his own hand, and killed one private man, and wounded an officer in Lochiel's regiment. The line seemed to shake; but the men kept going on at a great pace. Colonel Whitney was ordered to advance with his squadron of horse, and attack the rebels before they came up to the cannon. The dragoons moved on, and were very near the cannon when they received some fire, which killed several men, and wounded Lieute-

Rout of the royal troops.

nant-colonel Whitney. The squadron immediately wheeled about, rode over the artillery guard, and fled. The men of the artillery guard, who had given one fire, and that a very indifferent one, dispersed. The Highlanders going on without stopping to make prisoners, Colonel Gardner was ordered to advance with his squadron, and attack them, disordered as they seemed to be with running over the cannon and the artillery guard. The colonel advanced at the head of his men, encouraging them to charge. The dragoons followed him a little way; but as soon as the fire of the Highlanders reached them, they reeled, fell into confusion, and went off as the other squadron had done. When the dragoons on the right of the king's army gave way, the Highlanders, most of whom had their pieces still loaded, advanced against the foot, firing as they went on. The soldiers, confounded and terrified to see the cannon taken, and the dragoons put to flight, gave their fire, it is said, without orders; the companies of the out-guard, being nearest the enemy, were

the first that fired, and the fire went down the line as far as Murray's regiment. The Highlanders threw down their muskets, drew their swords, and ran on; the line of foot broke, as the fire had been given from right to left; Hamilton's dragoons, seeing what had happened on the right, and receiving some fire at a good distance from the Highlanders advancing to attack them, they immediately wheeled about and fled, leaving the flank of the foot unguarded. The regiment which was next them (Murray's) gave their fire and followed the dragoons. In a very few minutes after the first cannon was fired, the whole army, both horse and foot, were put to flight; none of the soldiers attempted to load their pieces again, and not one bayonet was stained with blood. In this manner the battle of Preston was fought and won by the rebels. The victory was complete; for all the infantry of the king's army were either killed or taken prisoners, except about 170, who escaped by extraordinary swiftness or early flight. Battle of Preston.

The number of private men of the king's army who were killed in the battle did not exceed 200; but five officers were killed, and 80 officers (many of them wounded) were taken prisoners. Four officers of the rebel army, and 30 pirvate men, were killed; six officers, and 70 private men, were wounded. The cannon, the tents, the baggage, and the military chest of the king's army, with the men that guarded it, fell into the hands of the enemy. The dragoons, after their first flight, halted once or twice, but fled again whenever any party of the rebels came up and fired at them. General Cope, with the assistance of the Earls of Home and Loudon, gathered together about 450 dragoons at the west end of the village of Preston, and, marching them by Soutra hill and Lauder, reached Coldstream that night. The bravery of Colonel Gardner, who

Villages. refused to fly with his regiment of dragoons, and fell on the field, is still remembered in Scotland with admiration. Captain Brymer also, of Lee's regiment, disdained to turn his back on the enemy, and fell where he stood. He was the only officer present who had ever seen the Highlanders engaged with regular troops, and he was the only officer of the royal army who had expressed apprehensions of the result of the battle.

Tranent. On the high ground to the south of Prestonpans is the vilage of Tranent, containing upwards of 1300 inhabitants. It is very irregularly built. The post road from Edinburgh to London by Haddington and Dunbar passes thro' the upper part of it. It contains nothing remarkable, excepting the church, which is very ancient, and is said to have been dedicated (as the name of the village is thought to import) to the holy trinity. It was built in the times of popery and of ignorance, and has every appearance of being a sort of practical or architectural pun upon that mysterious doctrine of our holy religion, to the honour of which it had been consecrated. On the outside, it appears to consist of three separate oblong houses placed at the side of each other; but when entered, it is found to consist of only one building. An opening is made across the mid lle building by supporting its side walls with arches. The middle house is longer at each end than the other two. A square tower rises from the centre of the whole, supported by the side walls of the middle building and by cross arches. The roofs of the three houses are vaulted and covered with stone. The windows are few; and it will readily occur, that the inside of such a fabric must be abundantly dismal; but every thing has been sacrificed to the leading idea or principle upon which it is constructed.

The church.

Ormiston. South from Tranent is the village of Ormiston. It contains between 590 and 600 persons, who enjoy almost

every natural advantage for domestic comfort. In respect of health, the situation is very favourable. The village stands upon gravel, and consists chiefly of two rows of houses of two stories; the one fronting the south, and the other the north, with a broad airy street between them. In the middle of the street is a cross, of the origin of which there is no tradition; but, from its ancient appearance, it is evidently a relic of popery. The houses on both sides of the streets are sheltered by trees, which grow in the hedge rows of the adjacent inclosures, but not so much as to prevent a free circulation of air. To this last circumstance the Earl of Hopeton is so attentive, as to give orders to thin his trees when they are hurtful to the inhabitants. This is chiefly a farming village. Though attempts have been made, the linen manufacture never succeeded here. At present there is here a starch-work. Villages.

Over the whole county a variety of small villages are scattered, which it would be tedious to mention, especially as they contain nothing worthy of notice. To this remark, however, there are a very few exceptions. We may take notice of that of Gladsmuir, though it contains only between fifty and sixty families, on account of an occurrence of a nature very unusual in this country. On the 21st of July 1789, a thunder-storm began in the north, and came gradually nearer, having proceeded round by the west. The school, where above seventy children were then assembled, unfortunately stood in its way. The thunder burst upon the house, and seemed at first to have levelled it with the ground. The walls were rent, the windows shattered, and the roof demolished. A thick darkness, produced by the smoke and dust, for a while concealed the extent of the mischief. When it subsided, the neighbours who first entered, anxious for the fate of Gladsmuir great thunder storm.

Villages. their children, had reason to fear the worst; for few signs of life appeared. The whole crowd of little ones, either stunned or terrified, lay stretched upon the ground beneath the tables or benches where they sat. Many were quite senseless, but afterwards recovered. Two boys were killed outright, and the master, with many others, were much injured.

Salton. There are two villages named *Salton* in the same parish, distinguished by the appellation of *East* and *West*. They deserve notice, rather on account of their past than their present importance. The celebrated Fletcher of Salton, who distinguished himself so remarkably by his political hostility to the tyranny of the two last princes of the house of Stuart, by his zeal for the revolution under King William, and by his opposition to the legislative union between England and Scotland, by which the separate importance of the latter was for ever lost, was the principal proprietor of this district, and feudal superior of these villages. When he saw the union fully established, and his own political career at a close, he appears to have directed the efforts of his active spirit to the improvement of his country in the useful arts. Accordingly, we owe to him the fanners, and the mill for making pot or hulled barley. Having resided a considerable time in Holland, along with other British malcontents, before the revolution, he had observed there the two instruments already mentioned, and at a future period of his life he contrived to import them into his native country. With this view, in 1710, he carried James Meikle, a mill-wright in his neighbourhood, to Holland. Mr Meikle went to Amsterdam, and Mr Fletcher resided at the Hague. The correspondence between them is said to be still in existence; and from thence it appears that the iron-work of the barley-mill was purchased in Holland. As the Dutch were always extreme-

Fanners and barley-mill imported.

ly jealous of the exportation or introduction to foreign countries of any of their manufactures or instruments, Mr Meikle is said to have been under the necessity of disguising himself as a menial servant of his employer's lady, and in that character obtained permission to see the instruments he wished to imitate by attending the Lady on pretended visits of curiosity. Mr Meikle having returned to Salton, erected a barley-mill there, and made and sold the instrument called the *fanners*, now universally used. The barley-mill had constant employment; and Salton barley was written upon almost every petty shop in the Scottish villages. As barley is an ingredient very generally used in Scotland, in the preparation of broth for the table, among all classes of persons, the project must have been profitable, as a monopoly of the manufacture was long enjoyed. It was not till about the year 1754 that the other mills began to be erected, and that gradually the barley-mill became a branch of the machinery of almost every corn-mill in the country. The effect of introducing the barley-mill at Salton was, that the agriculture of this country was rapidly brought to perfection, on account of the ready market for this species of grain, and the great exportation of it to all parts of the country. Villages.

Here, also, in 1750, the first bleachfield belonging to the British Linen Company was formed, under the patronage of Lord Milton, the nephew of the celebrated Fletcher of Salton. It flourished greatly for some time, but was afterwards abandoned.

The village of Gifford, in the parish of Yester, is neatly built, and agreeably situated, amidst abundance of wood and water. It contains about 400 inhabitants: they are small feuars under the Marquis of Tweedale. There is here at present a considerable bleachfield; but the neigh- Gifford.

Villages.

bourhood is chiefly remarkable on account of the flax-mill having been first established here. Soon after its institution in 1727, the Board for the encouragement of manufactures and fisheries in Scotland endeavoured to introduce or to extend and improve the culture of flax. The Board had a certain number of surveyors instructed in the culture of flax, to each of whom they assigned a district of country; and by bounties they invited the husbandmen of each district to cultivate this plant, under the direction of these surveyors, who superintended the business from the sowing of the seed until the flax was watered and prepared for cleaning.

Invention of the flax-mill.

Mr Spalding, one of the surveyors who had the charge of this county, invented the water-machine now used for the skutching and cleaning of the flax; and under his direction the Board erected the first machine of the kind ever known in Great Britain at Ciffordhall, upon the Tweedale estate in this country.

The mill invented by Mr Spalding wrought with vertical skutchers; and the sole alteration made upon this machine since his time has been to make the skutchers work horizontally. By this change in the position and motion of the skutchers, the machine occupies less space, and of course lessens the expence of the building necessary for containing it.

Athelstanefoord.

The village of Athelstanefoord, containing about 300 inhabitants, is chiefly remarkable on account of the origin of its name. If any credit is due to Buchanan, this village owes its name to the following incident. In one of the predatory incursions, frequent at that early period, Athelstane (whom he supposes to have been a Danish chief, that had received a grant of Northumberland from King Alfred), arrived in this part of the country; and in a battle with Hungus King of the Picts was pulled with vio-

lance from his horse and slain. The rivulet where that battle was fought is in the immediate neighbourhood of the village, and is called *Lug Down Burn*. Buchanan further adds, that Hungus, who was much inferior in every respect to Athelstane, was encouraged to hazard this battle by a vision of St Andrew the Apostle the night preceding, who promised him success; and that the victory was facilitated by the appearance of a cross in the air, in the form of the letter X, as soon as the battle began. The village over which this miraculous vision was seen still retains the name of *Martle*, a contraction of *miracle*. Achaius King of the Scots, by whose assistance Hungus obtained this victory (for he sent him 10,000 men under the command of his son Alpinus), in commemoration of the foresaid appearance of St Andrew's cross, afterwards instituted an order of knighthood in honour of St Andrew, who in times of popery was reckoned the tutelary saint of Scotland. This happened about the beginning of the ninth century. It is not certain at what period the original church of this place was built; but it is well known that, towards the end of the twelfth century, the parish church of Athelstanefoord, and Crail in Fife, with their tithes, were annexed to the monastery of St Martin, in the parish of Haddington, by Malcolm the Fourth. This was probably done in honour of the memory of his mother Ada, Countess of Northumberland, who founded that monastery. Villages.

In giving an account of the royal boroughs of Haddington, Dunbar, and North Berwick, we have already mentioned the most remarkable vestiges of antiquity belonging to this county. A considerable number of others are scattered over it. In the parish of Humbie, the vestiges of a Roman *castellum stativum* is still to be seen upon the estate of Whiteburgh, in the south-west part of the parish. Antiquities.

Antiquities. Roman camp.

It was of a circular form, and consisted of three walls, at the distance of thirteen feet from each other, built with very large stones, and with cement only at the bottom. It occupied more than an acre of ground. No information can be got about the height of the walls; but the proprietor of the lands remembers that the parts of them which he has seen were sixteen feet thick. The whole work has been carried off, at different times, for building the present house and offices of Whiteburgh, and some farm-houses on the estate. Near it were several *tumuli*, in which were urns full of bones or ashes. In the camp itself were found a medal of Trajan, a *fibula*, a *patera*, and a horn of a moose deer. In the neighbourhood, but in other parishes, are three other encampments, situated in such a manner as to lead to the supposition that the whole were intended to act in concert, and to overlook the Lothians.

Castle of Yester.

About a mile above the Marquis of Tweedale's house of Yester, upon a peninsula formed by the water of Hopes to the east, and a large rivulet on the west, stands the ancient catle of Yester. Sir David Dalrymple, in his Annals, relates, that "Hugh Gifford de Yester died in 1267; "that in his castle there was a capacious cavern, formed "by magical art, and called in the country *Bob-ball*, i. e. "*Hobgoblen-ball*." A stair of twenty-four steps led down to this apartment, which is a large and spacious hall, with an arched roof; and though it hath stood for so many centuries, and here exposed to the external air for a period of fifty or sixty years, it is still as firm and entire as if it had only stood a few years. From the floor of this hall, another stair of thirty-six steps leads down to a pit which hath a communication with Hopes water. A great part of the walls of this large and ancient castle are still standing. There is a tradition, that the castle of Yester

was the last fortification in this country that surrendered to General Gray, sent into Scotland by Protector Somerset. Antiquities.

Various remains of fortifications and artificial mounts are to be found in the parishes of Garvald and Whitingham, as might naturally be expected in a part of the country which was often invaded by the Danes and the English. In the parish of Whitingham, in the farm of Priestlaw, is a strong fortification, all the parts of which still remain entire. This ancient work stands on a kind of promontary, formed by the junction of the water of Whittater on the north and Kinsly on the east. The elevation of the ground on the side of Kinsly is about 100 feet, and on that of Whittater about 150. On the south side the ground is nearly level to some distance from the fortification, and then rises gradually up to the summit of Priestlaw. The camp is of an oval form, with the broadest end, which is inaccessible, towards the north. On one side are four ditches, parallel to each other; and the distance between each may be twelve yards. On the north side are three ditches; and the outer ditch is carried round the whole. The circumference of this military work measures about 2000 feet. In one place, on the north, the rock is cut, in a sloping form, down to the bed of Whittater below; and it is probable that through this passage the camp was supplied with water. There are three gates or entries; one on the south side, which is 40 feet wide; another on the east; and the third on the west, which are 20 feet wide each. Ancient fortress.

In the same parish, about a mile and a half north-west from the village of Whittingham, is Dumpender or Traprenelaw, a little hill or rock, of an oval form, rising by itself in an open country. On the south side it is inaccessible; and, on the other sides, round the extremity Traprene Law.

Antiquities. of the summit, are the remains of an old dyke or wall, the materials of which are large rough stones, rudely piled up one above another. It is probable that it was constructed by the inhabitants of the adjoining country in the days of barbarism, and was intended as a place of safety when they were invaded by the Danes or the English. On such occasions they went thither for shelter, and carried their cattle and effects along with them. This solitary rock was anciently called *Dumpenderlaw*; but afterMary Queen of Scotland, so famous in history, was carried off by the Earl of Bothwell to Hails castle, which stands to the north on the Tyne river, about an English mile below it, it was called *Traprenelaw*, from the two French words *trape* and *reine*. Several years ago, a small plantation of different kinds of trees was made on its summit by way of experiment, and inclosed with a stone dyke or wall six feet high. The trees succeeded very well while they were sheltered by the wall; but since that time they have not made the smallest progress.

In the parish of Innerwick there is a small encampment on Blackcastle hill, seemingly Danish. There are two very beautiful tumuli, on the top of which have been burial places. Near one of them is a bridge of one arch, commonly called *Ederkin*, said to be a corruption for King Edward, who is supposed to have built it.

Battle of Dunbar. In the parish of Spot, Downhill, about 500 feet above the sea, is remarkable for being the place on which General Leslie had his camp before (what is sometimes called) the *battle of Dunbar*, but in general, over this country, the *battle of Downhill*, fought on the east side and neighbourhood of the hill, between Oliver Cromwell and the Scottish army under Leslie's command. From this strong intrenchment Leslie was persuaded, contrary to his own opinion, to come down; was defeated by Cromwell, who was just

about to embark his troops at Dunbar for want of provisions, and was pursued with great slaughter. Musket-bullets, swords, human bones, and pieces of scarlet cloth, are still found in the neighbouring fields. Many of the killed were buried in and about Spott Dean. Antiquities.

On the northern shore of the county, along the frith, from Aberlady towards Longniddery, are a great many stone graves; all of them that have been opened containing human bones. Particularly in Gossford links, they are laid almost as thick as in a church-yard, and fill a very considerable space of ground. It is remarkable that many of them lie nearly south and north. In searching lately for a stone quarry, there were found in a hole, inclosed with stones about 30 inches by 18, the bones of a human body, and a small well-formed tesselated urn, of a very light blue colour; but the workmen had not been curious enough to observe whether there was any thing in the urn, or if it had a cover. It is in the custody of the Earl of Wemyss. At a small distance from these graves are two pretty large tumuli.

The Castle of Dirleton is worthy of notice. The builder of it, and the time of its erection, are both unknown. It is mentioned in history as early as the year 1298. It then belonged to one of the family of de Vallibus, or de Vave: and when King Edward the First invaded Scotland by the eastern borders, surrendered to Anthony Beck, Bishop of Durham, after a very obstinate defence. Dirleton Castle.

Heming says, "that at the siege of Dirleton in East Lothian, about the beginning of July 1298, the English soldiers were reduced to great scarcity of provisions; they subsisted on the peas and beans which they pickt up in the fields."

"This circumstance," says Dalrymple (from whom this article is transcribed), "presents us with a favourable

Antiquities. view of the state of agriculture in East Lothian as far back as the thirteenth century."

In the wardrobe account of the 28th of Edward First, A. D. 1299 and 1300, we find many entries of provision given by the king's order to Robert de Malo Lacie for victualling his castle of Dirleton. A. D. 1306, by a record in Rymer, it appears that Aymer de Valence was directed to seize the castle of Dirleton in the king's hands, with all its apurtenances, lands, and tenements, and all the goods and chattels found in the said castle, which was to be furnished with ammunition, and delivered to the brother of Mr John de Kyngeston, to keep it till the king should give other orders.

In the reign of King Robert I. John Halyburton acquired the lordship of Dirleton, by marrying the daughter and co-heiress of William de Vallibus. In 1402 it belonged to Thomas Halyburton, who was one of the chieftains appointed by Archibald Earl of Douglas to attend the motions of the English.

A. D. 1440, Sir Walter Halyburton, Lord High Treasurer of Scotland, was created a peer by the title of Lord Dirleton. About the beginning of the 17th century this lordship belonged to John Maxwell, a zealous royalist, who was by King Charles the First created Lord Dirleton: he lost his estate by his attachment to the royal cause; and soon after the restoration it came into the possession of Sir John Nisbet, king's advocate, in whose family it still remains, along with a handsome estate near it. During the civil wars, in the last century, this castle was taken by General Lambert, after a gallant defence, and by him reduced to its present ruinous state.

Gulane church. In the parish of Dirleton are the ruins of Gulane church; a building apparently of great antiquity. This ancient church once served the parish of Dirleton. The

vicar had, A. D. 1208, an annual salary of twelve merks, till the year 1612, when the church was, by act of parliament, translated to Dirleton. The last vicar of Gulane is said to have been deposed by King James the Sixth for the high crime of smoking tobacco; a weed which his Majesty deemed only fit for diabolical fumigations! Country seats.

It would be in vain to attempt to enumerate, and much more to describe, the great number of handsome villas, which, along with their pleasure-grounds, adorn different parts of this county. Two of the most remarkable of these buildings are Amisfield and Wemyss house. The latter, now finishing at Gossford, upon the shore of the Forth, by the Earl of Wemyss, is a most magnificent and elegant building. The two principal rooms are of an extraordinary size. The cornice of the drawing-room is supported by four beautiful marble columns of the Ionic order; and the pedestals, shafts, and capitals, are of exquisite workmanship. It is seen from afar on both sides of the Frith. Amisfield, in the parish of Haddington, was built by the same nobleman about 37 years ago. The body of the house is 109 feet in length by 77 feet in depth. The apartments are large, elegant, and numerous. The gallery contains many capital paintings, some of them by the first masters; particularly a CRUCIFIXION, by Imperiali; VENUS and ADONIS, by Annibal Caracci; the SACRIFICE of IPHIGENIA, by Pompeio; a SEA-PIECE, by Vandervelt; the FLIGHT into EGYPT, by Murillo; VERTUMNUS and POMONA, by Rubens, accounted a first-rate piece; APOLLO keeping the sheep of Admetus, by Guido Rheni; the BAPTISM of our SAVIOUR, by Poussin; a FLOWER-PIECE, by Michael Angelo; JUDITH and HOLOFERNES, by Pompeio; GENERAL MONK, by Sir Peter Lely; with FAMILY PORTRAITS, by Sir Joshua Reynolds, Aikman, Seaton, Ramsay, &c. Wemyss house. Amisfield.

Country seats.

Yester house.

Yester House, belonging to the Marquis of Tweedale, is a large, elegant, and magnificent structure, built of hewn stone, of a fine reddish colour, brought from the lands of Delgaty in Fife, which formerly belonged to this noble family. Salton Hall, the seat of the family of Fletcher, may also be mentioned as an ancient building, which has been much ornamented of late years. It was formerly a place of considerable strength, possessing all the appurtenances of an old fortress. The lawn in front commands a rich and extensive prospect. The garden contains many of the rarest exotics; and amongst others the *suber*, or cork tree, which was long supposed to be too delicate for our northern climate. Here, however, it has attained a considerable size in a common exposure. The pleasure ground is large, and affords a variety of romantic scenery, interspersed with venerable groups of aged elm and oak, and enlivened by the meandrings of a small stream called *Salton water*, which descends from the skirts of Lammermoor into the Tyne.

Salton hall.

Dunglass.

The house of Dunglass stands on the west side of a small river, which divides East Lothian from the county of Berwick. The banks of the river are steep, and covered with uncommonly fine wood, through which a variety of agreeable walks are cut, and kept in good repair. The Castle of Dunglass is frequently mentioned in the Scottish history. It belonged for many years to the Earl of Hume's ancestors, and from this he has the title of *Lord Dunglass*. It was here that James the Sixth lodged with his retinue the first night after he left Edinburgh on his journey to London in 1603. This fort was by accident or treachery blown up in the year 1640, when Lord Haddington, and a number of the neighbouring gentlemen, perished in its ruins. The present house, a modern building, is raised on the very spot where the ancient fort stood. Near it stands an old chapel, which, though not

how used for the purpose it was originally intended, is still kept in repair. It was built about the middle of the 14th century by Sir Thomas Hume, who married Nicolas Pipdie, heiress of Dunglass. Country seats.

Many gentlemens seats in Scotland are chiefly remarkable on account of their situation, amidst beautiful scenery, formed by waters running in deep valleys or glens, with precipitous banks, adorned with wood. Such, for example, is Spott House, romantically situated on a rock, in a deep den or glen, about a mile long. Though appearing in a very low site, it has a prospect of the German Ocean, Dunbar, the Bass, Isle of May, and the neighbouring very rich coast of East Lothian. On each side of the house there are rivulets falling in beautiful cascades over rocks into very deep pools. The banks, in many places, are almost perpendicular, covered with very tall old plane, ash, elm, and beech trees, many of whose trunks and branches are twined about with ivy. There is no space between the banks but what the burn occupies, which runs into Spott water or Broc. s burn, and enters the German Ocean at Broxmouth, a seat of the Duke of Roxburgh, near Dunbar. Of a similar character is Whittingham House, which bears marks of great antiquity. It is built on elevated ground, surrounded by many natural beauties, improved by the embellishments of art. The adjacent banks, for the space of an English mile, are covered, from top to bottom, with various sorts of trees, in a most flourishing state. Between the banks there is a glen or vall , through which the Whittingham rolls along its limpid stream in a winding course, sometimes approaching one side, and sometimes the other. Through the adjacent grounds several beautiful walks are interspersed; and, what rarely happens in other places, they have always a dry bottom, both summer and winter, Spott. Whittingham.

Eminent men.

and are so conducted, that in some one of them it is generally pretty easy, at any season, to find shelter from the wind and the storm.

But it is in vain to attempt to give particular descriptions of the various country seats in this district. We have already mentioned Tynninghame on account of the extent of the plantations with which its vicinity is adorned; and we may farther mention the houses of Seton, Gilmerton, Hopes, and North Berwick, as distinguished by their situation or structure.

Although this county is by no means remarkable for its extent, great numbers of persons have been born or resided in it, who have acted a distinguished part in the public business, or in the history of their country. The family of Cockburn of Ormiston long possessed consider-

Cockburn.

able eminence: they were protestants at the reformation, and whigs afterwards. Cockburn, Lord Justice Clerk, was eminent as a judge and lawyer. John, his son and successor, was no less so as a statesman and a patriotic representative of his country in the union-parliament, and in several succeeding parliaments. He was for a considerable time one of the lords of the admiralty. About the year 1740 he retired from political business, and exerted himself in the improvement of the agriculture and manufactures of this county. He contributed to erect the first bleachfield in Scotland; and by his example and influence produced the first vigorous exertions in making and repairing the highroads in his neighbourhood.

The parish of Prestonpans has been the residence of several men of eminence. Of these we may mention the honourable James Erskine of Grange, brother of the Earl of Mar, and Lord Justice Clerk for the three last years of Queen Ann. He resigned his seat on the bench in the year 1734, that he might go into parliament to oppose Sir Robert Walpole. He was proprietor of the lands now

belonging to Schaw's Hospital and to Watson's Hospital. Hugh Dalrymple, Lord Drummore, was a distinguished and popular judge. William Grant of Prestongrange was Lord Advocate in 1746, and carried on the prosecutions against the unfortunate persons who had been engaged in the rebellion, with such fidelity to the crown, and at the same time with so much feeling and lenity for the accused, as gained him universal approbation. He was afterwards appointed one of the senators of the college of justice, and one of the lords commissioners of justiciary. Some gentlemen of the first merit in their several lines of life were educated at the school here, viz. the late Colonel Campbell Dalrymple, youngest son of Lord Drummore, who was governor of Guadaloupe after it was taken in the war 1756; Sir Robert Murray Keith, and his brother Sir Basil Keith; the last of whom died governor of Jamaica, and the former, during a great number of years, occupied the important station of British ambassador at the court of Vienna.

Eminent men.

Lord Prestongrange.

The parish of Salton is remarkable for having given birth, or afforded residence, to several very distinguished characters. Among these may be mentioned Dunbar, one of the most distinguished of the early Scottish poets. He was born at Salton, in the year 1465. In the earlier period of his life he was a friar; but he soon relinquished the profession of a monk for that of a poet; and by the singular excellence of his compositions attracted the royal attention, became a favourite at the Scottish court, and was admitted as a companion of their select parties. The versatile genius of Dunbar qualified him completely for shining in these. Of all the productions of this bard, his Golden Terge and his Thistle and Rose have been most generally admired. The design of the Golden Terge is to shew the imperceptible and dangerous power of love

Dunbar, the poet.

Eminent men.

when indulged in opposition to reason; the Thistle and Rose was written to celebrate the marriage of the daughter of Henry the Seventh with James the Fourth.

Burnet.

The historian Burnet, afterwards bishop of Salisbury, was five years rector of this parish, and began here his clerical career. In 1669 he left this place, to assume the office to which he had been appointed, of professor of divinity in the university of Glasgow. He fulfilled the duties attached to this office with much credit and ability till 1674, when the political jealousies of the times induced him to resign his chair, and to leave his country. Having gone to London, he contrived to introduce himself both to King Charles the Second and to his brother the Duke of York; and, in consequence of the activity of his character, and the faculty he appears to have had of pushing himself into notice, he became known in the political circles. Having incurred the dislike of the Duke of York, afterwards James the Seventh, upon account of his whig principles, Burnet found it prudent, after the accession of that prince, to retire to the continent. Here he found means to ingratiate himself with the Prince and Princess of Orange, William and Mary. He had been accused in England of prying impertinently into matters with which he had no concern; but this temper proved useful to him at last. While in Switzerland, he discovered a plan which had been proposed to the French court for kidnapping its great enemy, the Prince of Orange, by landing a few men in a fishing boat, and seizing the prince when taking an airing unattended, according to his usual custom, upon the shore. Burnet communicated information of this plot, and was taken under the protection of the Princess of Orange. When the English nation, irritated by the attempt made by James the Seventh to overturn the whole constitution, both of the church and state, invited his son-in-law, the

Prince of Orange, to assume the government, Burnet's peculiar temper led him to perform a service of some importance. The prince was a man of a reserved character. In entering upon such an enterprize as that of attempting to dethrone the British monarch, it was natural that he should consider well before-hand what reward he was to obtain for encountering the hazard of the undertaking. He himself had no claim to the throne of England. By setting his wife upon it, he would not obtain it for himself; and even the influence he might gain might be lost in an instant by her death. These considerations induced him to hesitate long about accepting the proposals made by the English malcontents. At the same time, his reserved character prevented him from explaining the cause of his hesitation to his counsellors, or even to his own wife. Towards the latter he was restrained, by a sentiment of delicacy, from proposing that she should make any renunciation in his favour of what might appear her birth-right. In the mean while, nobody suspected the nature of the difficulty which kept the prince in suspence: but Burnet's active genius, which led him to think of every thing, suggested the propriety of making some arrangement upon this subject before the expedition to England should be undertaken. He supposed the idea had occurred to nobody but himself; and as, in his intercourse with persons of high rank, he seems never to have been affected or overawed by any sense of their dignity, or his own inferiority, he instantly waited upon the Princess of Orange, and proposed that she and her husband should arrange before hand the rank they were to occupy in the future government of Great Britain, if the attempt to dethrone her father should prove successful. The princess readily declared that she was satisfied with possessing the affections of her husband, and that she wished him to enjoy the whole

Eminent men.

Eminent men.

power. Burnet next obtained an audience of the prince, and repeated his conversation with the princess. The prince heard him with astonishment, though he said little; but afterwards said to one of his counsellors, that this man, Burnet, had surmounted, in an instant, a difficulty which had perplexed him during six months. Burnet accompanied the Prince of Orange, in the character of chaplain, in the expedition which ended in the revolution of 1688. By doing so, he not only hazarded his life, in case he had been taken, but if he had been sent down to Scotland for trial, he would undoubtedly have been put to the tortute; a practice which was not then abolished. As a reward for his services he was afterwards created bishop of Salisbury. His writings, both as a historian and as a divine, are well known; though, in the former character, justice does not appear to have been done to him by his successors in the same department.

Fletcher of Salton.

This parish was the birth-place of Andrew Fletcher of Salton, the celebrated patriot whom we have already mentioned, and who was for some years the pupil of Burnet. From him he seems to have imbibed much of that liberal and independent character which he displayed through life. His political principles, which were republican, disgusted him completely with the despotic reigns of Charles and James, and made him engage keenly in every project for the recovery of the constitution and liberties of his country. He was in the secret councils of Lord Russel, and was a principal leader in Monmouth's expedition; and was one of the principal speakers in the Scottish parliament against the different articles of the treaty of union with England.

Lord Milton.

Lord Milton, nephew to this great man, and not inferior to him in patriotism, was also a native of Salton. He was born in the year 1692, and educated to the profession

of the bar: he was admitted an advocate, appointed a lord of session, and at length raised to the distinguished office of lord justice clerk. It was in this high station that he did his country essential service during the unhappy rebellion in 1745. The conduct of almost the whole public affairs of Scotland fell upon him; and these he managed with such an uncommon degree of discretion, temper, and moderation, that the impetuosity of wanton punishment was restrained, and lenient measures adopted in favour of those whom indiscretion or ignorance had betrayed into hostility. He overlooked many of the informations which were brought to his office; and it is stated here, from the best authority, that after his death many sealed letters, containing such information, were found unopened among his other papers. With the same patriotic views he engaged zealously in the abolition of heritable jurisdictions, which had long been inimical to order and to justice. With unremitting ardour he pursued every scheme that could promote the trade, manufactures, or agriculture, of his country. Eminent men.

The celebrated Scottish reformer John Knox was a native of the parish of Haddington. He was born in the Gifford gate, one of the suburbs of Haddington, leading to the village of Gifford, which has probably occasioned the erroneous account of him by Dr M'Kenzie, D. Buchanan, and others, who tell us he was born at Gifford. The house in the Gifford gate in which Knox was born still remains; it has but a mean appearance, and, together with two or three acres of land adjoining, belonged for several centuries to a family of the name of Knox, until they were purchased by the present Earl of Wemyss. John Knox.

Knox was the hero in Scotland of the reformation from popery. He was educated at the university of St Andrew's, where he took a degree in arts, and commenced

Eminent men.

teacher very early in life. At this time the new religion of Martin Luther was but little known in Scotland. Mr Knox therefore at first was a zealous Roman catholic; but attending the sermon of a certain black friar named *Guialdium*, he began to waver in his opinions; and afterwards conversing with the famous Wishart, who, in 1544, came to Scotland with the commissioners sent by Henry Eighth, he renounced the Romish religion, and became a zealous reformer. Being appointed tutor to the sons of the lairds of Ormestoun and Longniddery, he began to instruct them in the principles of the protestant religion; and on that account was so violently persecuted, by the bishop of St Andrews, that with his two pupils he was obliged, in the year 1547, to take shelter in the castle of that place; but the castle was besieged and taken by twenty-one French galleys. He continued a prisoner on board a galley two years, namely, till the latter end of the year 1549; when, being set at liberty, he landed in England; and having obtained a licence, was appointed preacher, first at Berwick, and afterwards at Newcastle. Strype conjectures that, in 1552, he was appointed chaplain to Edward the Sixth. He certainly obtained an annual pension of forty pounds, and was offered the living of Allhallows in London; which he refused, not choosing to conform to the liturgy.

Soon after the accession of Queen Mary he retired to Geneva; whence, at the command of John Calvin, he removed to Frankfort, where he preached to the exiles. But a difference arising on account of his refusing to read the English liturgy, he went back to Geneva; and from thence, in 1555, returned to Scotland, where the reformation had made considerable progress during his absence. He now travelled from place to place, preaching and exhorting the people with unremitting zeal and resolution. About this time (1556) he wrote a letter to the queen-re-

gent, earnestly entreating her to hear the protestant doctrine; which letter she treated with contempt. In the same year the English Calvinists at Geneva invited Mr Knox to reside among them. He accepted their invitation. Immediately after his departure from Scotland, the bishop summoned him to appear; and he not appearing, condemned him to death for heresy, and burnt his effigy at the cross of Edinburgh. Eminent men.

Our reformer continued abroad till the year 1559; during which time he published his *First Blast against the monstrous Regiment* (government) *of Women*. Being now returned to Scotland, he resumed the great work of reformation with his usual ardour, and was appointed minister at Edinburgh. In 1561 Queen Mary arrived from France. She, it is well known, was bigotted to the religion in which she had been educated; and on that account was exposed to continual insults from her reformed subjects. Mr Knox himself frequently insulted her from the pulpit; and when admitted to her presence, regardless of her sex, her beauty, and her high rank, behaved to her with a most unjustifiable freedom. In the year 1571, our reformer was obliged to leave Edinburgh on account of the confusion and danger from the opposition to the Earl of Lennox, then regent; but he returned the following year, and resumed his pastoral functions. He died at Edinburgh in November 1572, and was buried in the churchyard of St Giles in that city. His history of the reformation was printed with his other works at Edinburgh in 1584, 1586, 1644, 1732. He published many other pieces; and several more are preserved in Calderwood's History of the Church of Scotland. He left also a considerable number of manuscripts, which in 1732 were in the possession of Mr Woodrow, minister of Eastwood.

As to his character, it is easily understood, notwith-

Eminent men.

standing the extreme dissimilitude of the two portraits drawn by popish and calvinistical pencils. According to the first, he was a devil; in the ideas of the latter, an angel. He was certainly neither. The following character is drawn by Dr Robertson. "Zeal, intrepidity, disinterestedness, were virtues that he possessed in an eminent degree. He was acquainted, too, with the learning cultivated in that age, and excelled in that species of eloquence which is calculated to rouse and inflame. His maxims, however, were often too severe, and the impetuosity of his temper excessive. Rigid and uncomplying, he showed no indulgence to the infirmities of others. Regardless of the distinctions of rank and character, he uttered his admonitions with an acrimony and vehemence more apt to irritate than to reclaim; and this often betrayed him into indecent expressions with respect to Queen Mary's person and conduct. These very qualities, however, which now render his character less amiable, fitted him to be the instrument of Providence for advancing the reformation among a fierce people, and enabled him to face dangers, and to surmount opposition, from which a person of a more gentle spirit would have been apt to shrink back. By an unwearied application to study and to business, as well as by the frequency and fervour of his public discourses, he had worn out a constitution naturally strong. During a lingering illness he discovered the utmost fortitude, and met the approach of death with a magnanimity inseparable from his character. He was constantly employed in acts of devotion, and comforted himself with those prospects of immortality, which not only preserve good men from despending, but fill them with exultation in their last moments. The Earl of Morton, who was present at his funeral, pronounced his eulogium in a few words; the more honourable for Knox, as they came from

one whom he had often censured with peculiar severity: "Here lies he who never feared the face of man." Eminent men.

The family of Maitland has long been distinguished in this county. Their ancient name was *Mautalant*. The first that became eminent was an old Sir Richard, who lived after the middle of the thirteenth century, and was celebrated for his valour. He was then baron or laird of Thirlestane in Haddingtonshire. In 1346 the family must have been eminent; for in that year John Maitland of Thirlestane married Agnes, daughter of Patrick Earl of March. On the 28th January 1432, William Maitland of Thirlestane obtained from Archibald, Duke of Touraine and Earl of Douglas, a grant of the lands of Blyth and others. Another chief of the family, William, who first had the title of Lethington, married Martha, daughter of George Lord Seaton, and was killed at Flodden in 1513. Family of Maitland.

His son, Sir Richard the Younger, a Scottish poet, was born in 1496; was educated at St Andrews, and went to France to study the laws. Upon his return, says M'Kenzie, he became a favourite of James the Fifth, and in the books of sederunt is marked an extraordinary lord of session in 1519. By a letter of James the Sixth, it appears that Sir Richard had served his predecessors faithfully in many public offices. He unhappily became blind before 1561, in his sixty-fifth year; but, notwithstanding, he was made a senator of the college of justice, by the title of Lord Lethington, 12th November 1561; and on the 20th December 1562 one of the council and lord privy seal; which last office he held till 1567, when he resigned in favour of John his second son. Sir Richard continued a lord of session during all the troublesome times of the regents in the minority of James the Sixth till 1584, when he resigned, and died 20th March 1586. He and his Sir Richard.

Eminent men.

lady died on the same day, as appears from the following verses, written by his son Lord Thirlestane:

Unus hymen, mens una, duos mors una diesque
Junxit, ut una caro, sic cinis unus erit.

Mr Knox accuses Sir Richard for taking a bribe from Cardinal Beaton, to engage his kinsman, Lord Seaton, to liberate him from his confinement after the death of James the Fifth. And no sooner was that artful prelate at liberty, than he had the address entirely to defeat the treaty just concluded by the commissioners of the two kingdoms for a marriage betwixt Queen Mary and Edward Prince of Wales; but Sir Ralph Sadler, who was perfectly acquainted with all these transactions, says, Arran the regent gave Lord Seaton orders to liberate the cardinal; though, to save appearances with the king of England, he attempted to justify himself by throwing the blame on Seaton.

Mr Pinkerton has published two small volumes of poems by Sir Richard and other cotemporary writers, taken from a manuscript collection of poems presented by the Duke of Lauderdale to Mr Pepys, secretary to the admiralty during the reigns of Charles the Second and James the Second, one of the earliest collectors of rare books and manuscripts; and who, by his will, ordered the Pepysian library at Magdalen college in Cambridge to be founded, to preserve his very valuable collection, which is the most curious in England, the British museum excepted.

Chancellor Maitland.

John Maitland, chancellor of Scotland, was the second son of Sir Richard. His father, in 1567, resigned the privy-seal in his favour. This office he held till 1570; when, for his loyalty to the queen, he lost the seal, and it was given to George Buchanan. He was made a senator of the college of justice, or lord of session, in 1581, se-

cretary of state in 1584, and lord high-chancellor in 1586. The chancellor's power and influence created him many enemies among the Scottish nobility, who made several attempts to destroy him, but without success. In 1589 he attended the king on his voyage to Norway, where his bride, the Princess of Denmark, was detained by contrary winds. The marriage was immediately consummated; and they returned with the queen to Copenhagen, where they spent the ensuing winter. During their residence in Denmark, the chancellor became intimately acquainted with the celebrated Tycho Brache. In 1590 he was created Lord Maitland of Thirlestane. Towards the end of the year 1592, the chancellor incurred the queen's displeasure, for refusing to relinquish his lordship of Musselburgh, which she claimed as being a part of Dunfermline. He absented himself for some time from court, but was at length restored to favour; and died of a lingering illness in the year 1595, much regretted by the king. He bears a high character, both for talents and integrity. Among all historians, Melville, who writes the *Memoirs*, Mr Pinkerton observes, was his personal enemy; so must not receive much credit in his censures of him. Besides his Scottish poetry in the *Maitland Collection*, he wrote several letters, epigrams, &c. to be found in the *Delicie Poetarum Scotorum*, vol. 2d.

Eminent men.

There is a most superb and costly monument of the chancellor and his lady in the aisle of the church of Haddington, belonging to the Lauderdale family, 24 feet in length, 18 feet in breadth, and 18 feet high. There are two compartments, supported by three black marble pillars, five feet high each, with capitals of white alabaster, of the Corinthian order, arched above. In the western compartment are figures of Lord Thirlestane and his lady, at full length, in white alabaster, close to each other, in a recumbent posture.

Eminent men.

William Maitland, the elder brother of the chancellor, is well known as secretary of state during the reign of Mary Queen of Scots. The famous John Duke of Lauderdale, the grandson of the chancellor, was born at Lethington, 26th May 1616. The part this nobleman first acted was that of a most zealous covenanter. He was one of the commissioners appointed to carry the solemn league and covenant from the convention of the estates of Scotland to the English parliament. He was likewise a member of the Westminster assembly as a ruling elder of the church of Scotland. He afterwards supported the royal cause. His long and most despotic administration after the restoration are too well known to require notice here. He appears to have been the most unprincipled and rapacious of all the ministers employed during the unprincipled reign of Charles the Second. Only it is worthy of notice, that though he inherited a very opulent fortune from his ancestors, and possessed, for a period of above twenty years, the most lucrative offices under government, and was at one and the same time high commissioner to the parliament, secretary of state, lord president of the council, first commissioner of the treasury and exchequer, lord of the bed-chamber, governor of Edinburgh Castle, governor of the Bass, and agent for the royal boroughs at court, and also is accused of the greatest rapacity;—yet such was his great profusion, that at his death his heir was obliged to sell a great part of his estate to pay his debts. The leaden coffin which contains his body, and a vase inclosing his bowels, are deposited in a vault in the aisle of the church of Haddington.

Duke of Lauderdale.

Blair, the author of the well-known poem entitled the *Grave*, was minister of the parish of Athelstanefoord.

Home.

John Home also, author of the tragedy of Douglas, was, during ten years, clergyman of this parish, but was under

the necessity of resigning his living, to avoid the hazard of being deposed from holy orders, for the crime of having written one of the most beautiful dramatic performances in the English language. When the tragedy of Douglas was first acted in Edinburgh, in December 1756, a prodigious ferment was excited in the minds of a large portion of the public, on account of what seemed an impious novelty, that of a clergyman of the established church producing a performance intended to be the subject of prophane theatrical exhibition, and which contained what were called *mock prayers*, to be recited by players. The presbytery of Edinburgh and the presbytery of Glasgow met again and again on the subject; wrote warm letters to the several presbyteries to whom any of the clergymen belonged who had witnessed the exhibition of the tragedy, insisting on their proceeding against them, and bringing them to condign punishment; emitted admonitions and exhortations against the offensive practice, and ordered them to be read in all the churches within their bounds. In every instance, however, except two, one of which was carried as far as the supreme court, and of which the issue is to be seen in the magazines of that time, the offence was done away, in the most private manner, by the several presbyteries who had been written to: But even the general assembly was induced to make a declaratory act against the stage, enjoining all presbyteries to *take care that none of the ministers of this church do, upon any occasion, attend the theatre.* In short, the country was excited into a flame on this trifling occasion; though not quite so strong and extensive, yet similar in its nature to that which was raised twenty-three years afterwards, in opposition to the popish bill. Eminent men.

The parish of Gladsmoor gave birth to George Heriot, founder of the hospital in Edinburgh which still bears his George Heriot.

Eminent men.

name. His ancestors were proprietors of the small village of Trabraine; and their names appear sometimes on the roll of the Scottish parliament. What is still more to the honour of the parish, it was the first settlement of Dr Robertson the historian of Scotland; and his history of Scotland was composed here.

Dr Witherspoon and Dr Nisbet.

The parish of Yester gave birth to two men of talents, who in their time made a considerable noise in the world, Dr John Witherspoon and Dr Charles Nisbet, both clergymen of the church of Scotland. Both of them were zealously attached to the popular, that is the Calvinistic, party in the church;—both of them were zealous enemies to the unfortunate war which ended in the dismemberment of the British empire, and divided the European from the Transatlantic race of Britons;—both of them ultimately settled in North America. Dr Witherspoon was appointed president of the College of New Jersey; and Dr Nisbet was made president of the college of Carlisle. It is certain that, for some time at least, the latter of these gentlemen heartily repented his emigration. The industrious Americans are so averse to the establishment of sinecure places, and are so little acquainted with the importance of literary leisure, which they consider as mere idleness, that when Dr Nisbet went to take possession of his office of president of a college, he was not a little mortified to find that, by the laws of the institution, he was precisely in the situation of a schoolmaster, whose whole time was to be occupied in the task of teaching lessons to young boys. His office of president sounded well; but it meant no more than that he had some ushers under him. Accordingly, he would instantly have returned to Scotland, had not his living in the church been given to a successor. For several years after settling in America, his greatest pleasure seemed to consist in ma-

king his escape at vacations from his college to Philadel- Population.
phia, where he met with abundance of Scotsmen; in whose society, while conversing about Caledonia, he could forget his exile to a distant land.

THE following Table exhibits a statement of the population of this county, according to the enumerations made at the desire of Dr Webster in 1755, of Sir John Sinclair from 1790 to 1797 inclusive, and in 1801 and 1802, in consequence of the requisition of the British legislature.

Parishes.	1755. Persons	1790-7. Persons	1801-2. Persons. Males.	Females.	Occupations. Persons chiefly employed in agriculture.	Persons employed in trades	All other Persons.	Total of Persons
Aberlady	739	800	410	465	128	106	641	875
Athelstaneford	691	927	394	503	161	71	665	897
Berwick, North	1412	1300	708	875	200	137	1246	1583
Bolton	359	235	117	135	30	11	211	252
Dirleton.....	1700	1200	517	598	1074	39	2	1115
Dunbar	3281	3700	1736	2215	335	602	3014	3951
Fala, Haddington division			60	60	26	2	92	120
Garvald	774	730	355	394	273	63	413	749
Gladsmuir....	1415	1380	668	802	210	64	1196	1470
Haddington ..	3975	3915	1874	2175	402	376	3271	4049
Humbie	1570	676	362	423	215	39	531	785
Innerwick	941	960	408	438	249	84	513	846
Morcham	245	190	137	117	45	18	191	254
Oldhamstocks	622	498	217	249	81	46	339	466
Ormiston	810	864	359	407	108	49	609	766
Pencaitland...	910	1033	440	485	153	113	659	925
Prestonkirk...	1318	1176	723	748	290	126	1055	1471
Prestonpans...	1596	2028	899	1074	31	345	514	1964
Salton	761	830	372	396	203	114	451	768
Spott	727	619	226	276	77	26	399	502
Stenton	631	624	270	350	178	42	400	620
Tranent	2459	2732	1457	1589	309	332	2405	3046
Whitekirk	968	994	456	469	120	69	736	925
Whittingham	714	655	285	373	82	39	537	658
Yester	1091	900	449	480	366	311	252	929
Total....	29709	28066	13890	16096	5346	3324	20342	29986

In the part of the table extracted from the report under the population act, the population of Oldhamstocks and Fala is only stated so far as they belong to this county. The remainder of their population is stated under the counties of Berwick and Midlothian. In the two first columns of the table the full population of Oldhamstocks, at the date of the respective enumerations, is set down. Population.

One remark upon the population of this county, as well as of the whole of Scotland, can scarcely fail to suggest itself to the intelligent reader; that is, that in numbers the females very considerably exceed the males; whereas, in England, the case stands otherwise; as, by the reports made out in consequence of the population act, it appears, that the males are in that country considerably more numerous than the females. The relative proportion of the sexes in Scotland evidently results from the education and habits of the people, which produce a great tendency to emigration. As Haddingtonshire, however, is a fertile agricultural district, in which marriage is avoided by those who cannot support families easily, it probably gives rise proportionably to less emigration than some poorer districts. The females exceed the males in number only to the amount of 2206; whereas in the county of Edinburgh, including the city, there are no less than 14,506 more women than men; and this, too, notwithstanding the great numbers of young men who reside in the city for the sake either of general education, or who are breeding to the profession of the law. It is not impossible, that an accurate examination of the state of English population might explain how it comes to pass, that in England and Scotland the proportions of the sexes are so much reversed. It might probably appear, that what the one country loses the other gains; that is, a part of the male po- Disproportion of males and females.

Population. pulation of England consists of young Scotsmen who have emigrated thither.

From the description already given of the climate of East Lothian, it cannot fail to be considered as upon the whole abundantly salubrious. It is no doubt exposed to cold easterly winds; but being fully cultivated, and consequently well drained, the soil is dry, while at the same time it is far from being greatly exposed to frequent rains.

Singular longevity. In the parish of Haddington a very extraordinary instance of longevity is recorded to have occurred in one family. Mr Alexander Maitland, and Catherine Cunningham his wife, were married August 6th, 1657. The ages of nine of the children of this marriage amounted to no less than 738 years. Another circumstance remarkable of this marriage is, that the eighteenth year of it produced twins; and the twenty-first year trines, or three infants at a birth. The ages of the trines amounted to 256. This fact is ascertained beyond all possibility of doubt, as it was communicated to the clergyman of the parish by his intimate friend Mr Robert Keith, a gentleman of the strictest honour and probity, and who was himself son of Isobel one of the trines.

General duration of life. The following Table is worthy of attention, as affording a basis on which to form a calculation of the probable duration of human life in this county. It shews the number of deaths, with the ages at which they occurred, in the parish of Tranent, from 1755 to 1784, a period thirty years, distinguishing males from females.

Duration of life.

	Males.	Females.
Under 1	101	110
Between 1 and 2	85	71
2 and 3	53	35
3 and 4	44	23
4 and 5	20	18
5 and 10	41	26
10 and 20	31	29
20 and 25	28	16
25 and 30	17	19
30 and 40	37	37
40 and 50	31	39
50 and 60	60	79
60 and 65	39	62
65 and 70	42	57
70 and 75	49	61
75 and 80	45	57
80 and 85	50	56
85 and 90	17	21
Aged 91	1	4
94	1	1
95	1	0
96	0	2
98	1	1
99	0	1
102	0	1
Total	794	826

	Males.	Females.
Births in the same period of 30 years	1094	1055
Deduct deaths	794	826
Difference, mostly emigrated	300	229

The poor. To avoid unnecessary repetition, it may be sufficient to remark, that the poor are in this county supported in a similar manner, and out of similar funds, as in the neighbouring county of Midlothian. In the parish of Prestonpans is a charitable foundation of some importance. James Schaw, proprietor of the estate of Preston, bequeathed the lands and barony of Preston, with the residue of some other funds, for maintaining and educating boys whose parents are in poor circumstances. He died A. D. 1784.

Schaw's mortification. The house of Preston was, according to the terms of the deed, fitted up for the reception of the boys; and the establishment commenced in February 1789. There is a master, housekeeper, and two maid-servants. At first 15 boys were admitted. The number was afterwards increased to 24. They are taught English, writing, and arithmetic, and, as they grow up, some manual employment; *viz.* to knit stockings, to mend their cloaths and shoes, &c. Four names have a preference, in the following order, Schaw, M'Niel, Cunningham, and Stewart. The age of admission is from four to seven. They may remain in the house till they are fourteen. They must be free from the king's evil, and from all contagious distempers. The trustees are empowered to bind them as apprentices, or otherwise to set them out to business, as they shall judge best.

Burnet's mortification. In the parish of Salton is a charitable foundation established by the former clergyman of the parish, Bishop Burnett. In the year 1711 he bequeathed 20,000 merks Scotch to the parish of Salton, the annualrent to be applied to the following purposes, viz. the education and clothing of 30 children; the payment of their apprentice fees; the relief of the indigent; and the annual increase of a library in the manse, intended for the sole use of the minister of the parish. Of this fund the lords of council

and session were nominated inspectors; and by their appointment the proprietors of the estates of Salton and Hermistoun, together with the minister of the parish, act as trustees. Under the judicious management of these trustees, the funds have increased to a capital of upwards of L. 2000 Sterling; by which means the various purposes of the donor's will are completely complied with. The children are well clothed, properly educated, and instructed in some respectable trade. The poor are comfortably provided; and the minister's library is supplied with most of the ancient and modern classics. The poor.

Societies, formed by the common people for mutual relief, in case of old age or disease, are not unfrequent in this county. The collections at the church-doors still form the principal public fund for the support of the poor; but in all quarters it has been found necessary, less or more, to have recourse to parochial assessments: a measure which, in proportion to the degree in which it is used, loses its effect and value, because the poor gradually learn to regard parish-charity as a legal right, to which they are entitled by law to have recourse, and which it is unnecessary to make great efforts to avoid. At the same time, the ancient habits of the people of Scotland do not readily lead to the abuse of public charity. The poorest of the people are usually enabled, by their private resources and extreme frugality, to rear up numerous families. The eldest of the children usually engage themselves as servants as early as possible, and very frequently assist their parents in rearing their younger brothers and sisters: nor is it till their aid in this way becomes less necesary, that they indulge themselves in the vanity of dress.

There are three different classes of servants employed in the husbandry of this county, viz. the *hynd*, the *cottager*, Price of labour.

Wages. and the *unmarried ploughman*, each of whom work a pair of horses.

Of these the *hynd* holds the first rank; and, besides working his horses, he must sow the corns in the spring; and he *stacks*, that is, he builds the ricks of corn in the harvest. He and the cottager are both married servants.

Anciently, the rent of the landlord, and the wages of the servants, were paid in *kind*: and the ancient usage continues in strict observance so far as relates to the hynd. He has a house found him, for which he gives a shearer, *i. e.* a reaper (generally his wife), in harvest; and a small garden, for which he pays from two to four dung-hill fowls, according to the size of it. His wages for the year were formerly eight bolls of oats, two bolls of barley, and two bolls of pease; and a cow kept for him both summer and winter, the dung of which belongs to the master.

Within these few years his wages have been increased, by an additional boll of each of these kinds of corn.

He has, besides, his fuel brought home by his master, and some other perquisites, which make his wages amount to about L. 20 a-year.

The *cottager* is a mere ploughman. He has a house and garden, for which he pays the same rent as the hynd. His wages for the year formerly consisted of the following particulars; *viz.* six and a half bolls of oatmeal, at eight stone Dutch *per* boll; two firlots of *bountith* barley for domestic use; and from the name it would seem to have been originally given as a donation or gratuity to his wife; two pair of shoes, and fourpence a week for *kitchen*; a Roman custom, the meaning of which is sufficiently obvious, although the allowance may seem wonderfully moderate; and, *lastly*, his wages in money are about L. 4 a-year.

Over and above these allowances, in order to invite the

cottager and his wife to be careful in collecting dung, he is allowed the first crop from all the dung he gathers within the year. Wages.

The master leads it out, and lays it upon a piece of ground (probably not the richest in the farm), at the rate generally of 50 double carts *per* acre.

The ground is ploughed and harrowed; the cottager finds the seed and reaps it; and the master leads home the crop.

This usage, although not altogether confined to this county, is by no means general over Scotland; and notwithstanding that it may be attended with some inconveniences, the advantage resulting from this creation of dung does greatly overbalance them; and a considerable extent of ground is annually manured in this county by what is called the *cottar dung*.

At present, the cottager retains his meal, and the produce of his manured land; and he receives from L. 8 to L. 10 a-year; which, with some other perquisites, brings his wages nearly as high as that of the hynd.

Both the hynd and the cottager were accustomed to get the sowing of one peck of lintseed upon a corner of the fallow; and their wives gave respectively three days of skutching of lint, and six days for spinning of wool upon the large wheel, to the wife of their master: during these days they were maintained in his family.

This service has gone into general disuse; and the sowing of lint is accounted a pernicious custom; for it is said to injure the ground, and to deprive it of the most material advantages resulting from the fallow.

The unmarried servant generally eats in the house of his master, and sleeps in the stable; and his wages are about L. 8 a-year, and two pair of shoes.

Formerly the food of these servants consisted of oatmeal

Wages. porridge and milk, morning and evening; and for dinner there was a rotation for each day of the week, Sunday excepted; consisting of butter and eggs one day, herrings and milk another; cheese and vegetables, &c.; and on Sunday they were regaled with broth made of vegetables and salted beef.

At present they have animal food for dinner three times a-week in summer, and four times in winter.

Formerly the blacksmith and the carpenter were paid also in kind, at a given allowance for each plough; but lately, since their work has become more various and complicated, they are now paid, partly at least, in money.

The female servants formerly received only a small portion of their wages in money: they were paid in fungibles, such as cloth of different species, suited partly for their wearing apparel, and partly for what was called their *providing*, when they came to be married, such as blankets, &c. And it is the universal practice at this day, that the bride finds beds, sheets, and blankets, and the bridegroom the wooden and kitchen furniture.

The present wages of the domestic female servants, in the families of the husbandman, may be from L. 3 to L. 3, 10 s. a-year, with the sowing of one-half peck of lintseed, and two pair of shoes.

Society. As the farmers of this county are usually men in easy circumstances, such of their sons as do not engage in agriculture emigrate to towns, and engage in genteel employments. They endeavour, like other persons of good education, who can command a moderate sum of money, to pursue fortune in the mercantile or manufacturing departments, or in some branch of the profession of the law, and sometimes also in the military service of the state.

Concerning the state of society or of literature, it is un-

necessary here to make any remarks, as, in consequence of their vicinity, East Lothian and Midlothian bear a close resemblance to each other. In general, however, it may be remarked that, as in former times, the people of the east of Scotland appear to have been less zealous covenanters than in the west, and less violent in their opposition to the two last princes of the house of Stuart: so to this day it is thought that somewhat less anxiety exists in this quarter about religious matters than in the west, or in the central parts of the south of Scotland. Society.

BERWICKSHIRE.

Togography.

THE county of Berwick, or the Merse, as it is sometimes called, though not one of the largest, is, in point of fertility, one of the richest counties in Scotland. Its form is quadrangular; the sides waving and unequal. Its eastern boundary is the German Ocean, from Dunglass bridge to within about two miles of Berwick, a space of about sixteen miles. On the west, it is bounded by a wing of Midlothian, and part of Roxburghshire, for about eighteen miles. On the south, the Tweed separates it from Northumberland for fifteen miles, and Roxburghshire for about twelve miles. The northern boundary, adjoining to the county of East Lothian, runs along the ridge of Lammermoor hills, from Soutra hill, perhaps the highest elevation of this mountainous ridge, passing Fassney water and Cranshaws, towards Dunglass bridge, upwards of thirty miles.

Three districts.

In the common language of the county, it is represented as consisting of three districts, Lammermoor, Lauderdale, and the Merse. Lauderdale, however, is extremely small in proportion to the other two. It consists of the territory in the most western part of the county ad-

Lauderdale.

joining to Leeder water. In general description, Lauderdale may, without impropriety, be considered as forming a part of the other two divisions; the higher district of it

being included under Lammermoor, and the lower under the Merse. Lammermoor is the northern and most elevated part of Berwickshire, from which the waters descend south and south-east towards the Tweed and the German Ocean. The Merse, so called from its forming a part of the *march* or boundary of the kingdom of Scotland, is the southern or low and fertile division of the county adjoining to the Tweed, or to Roxburghshire; which last interposes between the upper or western part of this county and the Tweed. Berwickshire, from this description, may be considered, upon the whole, as having a southern exposure, or as resting upon a declivity towards the south or south-east. The county, however, may be considered as divided into two portions of territory, the extremes of which are most completely unlike to each other. The one, or northern district of Lammermoor, consists of mountainous or moorish territory, fit chiefly for the support of the hardy black-faced sheep. This character, however, does not apply to the banks of the waters; and the whole gradually alters, towards the south, into green pastures, or land adapted to turnip husbandry; and ends in what is called the *Merse*, or low southern district, consisting of a deep soil, fully inclosed, and in a state of the highest cultivation. Topography.

Lammermoor, or the northern district, has been supposed to contain about 362 square miles, or 231,689 acres; and the Merse about 148 square miles, or 94,720 acres; amounting in all to 510 square miles, or 326,400 English acres. But this calculation has by some been thought over-rated, and that the county contains little more than 431 square miles, or 276,000 English acres. Extent of the county.

In the high elevation of the Lammermoor district the air is dry but keen. The ridge of Lammermoor hills is of considerable height; and besides forming, for many Lammermoor district.

Topography. Hills, &c.

miles, the northern boundary of the county, it also interrupts the view from the Ochil hills of the Cheviot, or any other of the southern mountains. Of this ridge Soutra hill is supposed to be the highest; but hitherto no actual mensuration is known to have been taken of it: but, in judging by the view, from its elevated top, of the neighbouring hills and country, it must be upwards of 1500 feet high.

The height of Mainslaughter (Manslaughter) Law, in the parish of Longformacus, above the sea, has by actual mensuration been ascertained 1260 feet. Cockburn Law, also, is known to be 900 feet above the sea's level; and the two hills called *Durington laws*, in the parish of Longformacus, are nearly of the same height. The whole surface of the upper parts of the district of Lammermoor consists of a light peat mold, covered with heath; the soil is mixed with sand and clay. In some of the lower parts of it, as in the parish of Westruther, there is much moss and swampy territory, which during winter lies under water, and in its natural state is of little value; but on the sides of the waters there are extensive valleys, whose fertility and beauty are augmented to the eye from the neighbourhood in which they are placed.

Merse district.

The northern boundary of the Merse, or southern district of the county, proceeds from Home castle on the west, to Greenlaw, Polworth, Dunse, Lentlaws, Preston, and to the sea at Coldingham. In all this tract, south as far as the Tweed, there are no hills, or any elevation deserving the name, except Lammerton hills beyond Aytoun on the east; and on the west that lofty eminence on which stands Home castle. This whole tract of country, viewed from a central eminence, such as Langton Edge, exhibits to the wondering eye a scene beyond description. The deception from this high elevation is so great, that this large tract, from near Kelso to Berwick, sixteen or eighteen

miles, and nine over, appears a dead flat, chequered with numberless seats and plantations; the whole landscape assuming the appearance of a garden. Waters.

The uniform apparent flatness of the country, however, is not real; for gentle acclivities or ridges are less or more interspersed throughout the whole.

The Leeder is the most westerly of the waters of this county, and towards the lower part divides it from Roxburghshire. It rises in the heights of Lammermoor, in that part called the *Soutra hills*, a little to the west of Channel Kirk. It takes a winding course through the fertile vale of Lauderdale, and, after running upwards of 20 miles, it falls into the Tweed about two miles above Dryburgh Abbey. It formerly abounded greatly with fine trout, and also with salmon; but the numbers of both of these are said to have greatly declined of late years. This is ascribed to the abundant use of lime upon the neighbouring lands for purposes of agriculture. The lime being conveyed, by heavy rains, from the surface of the soil into the stream, is supposed to injure or offend the fish. Leeder.

The water of Eden also rises in the southern part of Lammermoor, and descends southward into the Tweed. It contains some trouts and eels; though fewer, it is said, than formerly, for the reason already mentioned, the use of lime upon the soil in its neighbourhood. Where it separates the parish of Stitchel, in Roxburghshire, from that of Nenthorn in this county, it falls over a rock, nearly perpendicular, of about 40 feet in height. In a flood, or in a hard frost, this cataract forms a most beautiful object. It is at a small distance from Newtondon house. Eden.

The Blackadder, Blackatter, or Blackwater, rises in the southern part of Lammermoor, out of some mossy Blackatter.

Waters. grounds, in the parish of Longformacus. Soon after its rise it is joined by a small rivulet from the parish of Westruther. After a very irregular course of 16 or 18 miles it falls into the Whittater or Whitewater, at a village called *Allinton*, in the parish of Edrom. A singular peculiarity is said to be observed with regard to the Blackadder, that no salmon can live in it; and if any happen to enter, which they seldom do, even in the spawning season, they are always found dead a little way up from the mouth of the river; although the Whitatter, from whence they come into it, abounds with them from the Tweed, and carries them many miles above the place where it meets with the Blackadder. Every other stream in this country, communicating with the Tweed, contains salmon during the season.

Whitatter. The Whitatter, Whittadder, or Whitewater, into which the last mentioned river falls, rises also in Lammermoor, on the borders of the county of Haddington, and crosses Berwickshire, in a south-easterly direction, towards the Tweed. In its upper part it receives a stream called the *Dye*, which abounds with trout. The course of the Whitatter is between 30 and 40 miles in length. It abounds in common trout; which, however, are said to be of no very high flavour, nor rich quality: but there is also in this water a larger sort of fish called a *whitling*. It is a large fine trout, from 16 inches to 2 feet long, and well grown; its flesh is red and high coloured like salmon, and of fully as fine a flavour. It is a most delicate fish, and affords most excellent sport to the angler. It goes to the sea in its season, and returns strong, vigorous, and healthy; but if, from the smallness of the river, in a dry season, it is prevented from getting to the sea, it becomes lank, small, and spiritless, and loses its red colour and flavour. The Whitatter falls into the Tweed, about

12 miles east from Dunse, and 3 miles above Berwick. From the Tweed, which abounds in fine salmon, a great many of these fish get into the Whitatter; and, in the months of September and October, are found 30 miles up that river, passing into the small brooks among the hills in Lammermoor, till their backs are not covered, and there lodge their spawn among the gravel. The river Whitatter runs with great rapidity, and, at some places, when in flood, rises 15 feet perpendicular above its ordinary channel, overflowing the haughs or level plains adjoining, and carrying off great part of the soil. Attempts have been made by several proprietors to make barricades, but few of them have been successful. A very great flood happened in October 1755, which carried down all the bridges excepting the bridge of Preston. They have since been rebuilt at very considerable expence. Waters.

The water of Eye, rising likewise in Lammermoor, in the parish of Cockburn's path, proceeds, in a south-easterly direction, through the parishes of Coldingham and Ayton, and falls into the German ocean at Eyemouth. In this water there are abundance of trouts of excellent quality, though generally small. There are indeed some pretty large, from 16 to 24 inches in length; but none of them of the true salmon kind. Above Eyemouth the Eye receives a smaller stream, called *Ale water*, which also rises in Lammermoor. Eye.

The only remaining stream connected with this county is the river Tweed, which, as already mentioned, to a certain extent divides it from England. Of this river we shall have occasion frequently to take notice, when we come to treat of the higher territory through which it proceeds. The Tweed here is a large river. Though many projects have been formed for rendering the Tweed subservient to navigation, either by deepening the bed of the Tweed.

Waters. river, or by carrying a canal along its banks, none of them have hitherto been carried into effect. The former of these measures is probably impracticable, and the latter is too expensive to be undertaken in a county which is altogether agricultural. The tide, however, flows to Norham castle, which is ten miles above Berwick; and a boat of 30 tons can come up the river to New-water ford, which is six miles above Berwick. The Tweed is not, in this county, a pastoral stream, as in the higher districts, through which it descends to this low and fully cultivated territory. Flowing in a level tract, it does not produce that bold picturesque scenery which is peculiar to the rivers of mountainous countries.

Fishings. The Tweed produces bull trouts, whitlings, gilses, salmon, and all other kinds of fish common to the rivers in the south of Scotland. Bull trouts make their appearance in the Tweed during the spring months, and soon after go away. When they come in numbers, they are thought to prognosticate a plenteous season for gilses and salmon. The intercourse carried on betwixt Berwick and London, by means of the Berwick smacks, and the contrivances now used for conveying fish, in a sweet or unsalted state, to a distant market, render the prices of gilses and salmon as high on the banks of the Tweed as at Billingsgate market in the metropolis; nay, the prices are, in general, considerably lower in London than in Scotland. Tweed is open to fishing from the 10th of January to the 10th of October. In the rivers to the north, which abound in such fish, the *close* season, as it is called, which comprehends the rest of the months, varies, and is earlier, for the most part, in proportion to the latitude of those rivers northwards, in Scotland, to the Tay, Don, and Dee.

Before quitting the subject of the waters of this county, it may be remarked, that there is a beautiful fresh-water

lake, about a mile west from St Abb's Head, called *Coldingham loch*. It is of a triangular figure, about a mile in circumference. The water is clear, and is several fathoms in depth. No stream runs into it; and it has no visible outlet. The depth always appears to be the same. It is probably supplied by springs, and the superfluous water carried off by porous strata on a level with the surface of the lake. It is situated many fathoms above the level of the sea. The only fish contained in it is the perch, from five to eight inches in length; compact and firm in appearance, but dry when eaten. Waters. Coldingham loch.

The sea-coast adjacent to the eastern part of the county, as well as to the county of East Lothian, is in general rocky and bold. The promontory of St Abb's Head is well known to mariners. Around it, and to the westward, the shore is dangerous and inaccessible, except at Lumsden, where there are several fishing boats. On the eastward of St Abb's Head, at Coldingham sands, the shore is smooth and accessible. Eyemouth, which will be afterwards noticed, is the only harbour in Berwickshire, and it is the most accessible of any between Holy Island and the Frith of Forth. There is a fine bay between St Abb's Head and the fort of Eyemouth, in which ships bound for Eyemouth cast anchor, and wait the time of tide for going into the harbour. Great plenty of fish are caught in the sea on this part of the coast, such as haddocks, whitings, cod, and ling, lobsters, crabs, and other shell fish, turbot, skate, and herrings, all of excellent qualities; which, after supplying the people in this neighbourhood, are carried to Dunse, Kelso, &c. and a great part are carried by sea to Edinburgh. The difference between the highest and lowest tides on this shore is about 20 feet; and there are great quantities of sea-weed, commonly called *sea-ware*, thrown ashore here; the coarser Sea-coast.

Waters. part of which is carried off with avidity, and applied as manure to the land near the shore. The finer parts are manufactured into kelp, and produce in one parish from 30 to 40 tons yearly. The greater part of this finer sort grows upon the rocks situated between the high and low water marks, and is cut and manufactured into kelp only once in three years.

Sea-fowls. There is a prodigious number of sea-fowls, known by the name of *scouts* and *kittywakes*, with a mixture of sea-gulls, that arrive in the spring yearly upon the high and inaccessible rocks on the south side of St Abb's Head. They breed incredible numbers of young; and about the end of May, when the young are said to be ripe, but before they can fly, the gentlemen in the neighbourhood find excellent sport by going out in boats, and shooting great numbers of them. When they are killed or wounded, they fall from the rocks into the sea, and the rowers lift them into their boats. Their eggs are pretty good, but their flesh is very bad; yet the poor people eat them. They leave the rocks about harvest; and none of them are ever seen here before the next spring. Where they go in winter nobody knows.

Agriculture. From what has been already stated concerning the diversity of soil which here exists, it would evidently be in vain to attempt to give a general and indiscriminating character or description of the agriculture of this county. At the same time a similar spirit of enterprise, in consequence of imitation and vicinity, exists in every part of it.

Great farms. The greatest part of the county is now occupied by such farmers as, at an earlier period, or in several other counties in Scotland, would be termed great farmers. There is, however, a great difference in the size of the farms: they run from L. 30 to L. 1200; if below L. 30,

they are called *possessions*. It is no uncommon thing for one tenant to have two or three of the middling class, which is reckoned from L. 100 to L. 300 a-year. The cause of this accommodation in general arises from a great quantity of land, originally moor (that cannot be farmed by itself), being attached to the good lands, but oftener from the experience the proprietor has of his being more likely to have the land better improved, and the rents more regularly paid, by accepting of a great tenant rather than several small ones. It has been found and experienced in this county, that the great, considerable, and middling rank of farmers, pay their rents best; and this has been attributed by some to their having the land cheaper than smaller tenants: but this is not believed to be the case. Small tenants cannot exist on a possession of poor land, which in general they look out for, unless they have another business, or are employed by the proprietors and greater farmers for bringing home carriages of lime, &c.; in which they employ their horses and servants during the whole of the improving seasons, and entirely neglect the culture of their own possessions. In few or no instances in this county, is it known or believed that a small tenant pays a greater rent than a greater tenant would most readily pay for the same possession, unless it be in the neighbourhood of towns or villages, where the lands are parcelled out into acres or small fields for the accommodation of horse-dealers, cow-feeders, and trading people. On all poor grounds, small tenants have been found to be a burden. In many of the estates in this county, at a distance from towns, these tenants are employed by their landlords or the neighbouring tenants. This circumstance shews, that all the labour they can bring forward is necessary for carrying on the operations of the county; and if they are not em-

Agriculture.

Agriculture. ployed as poor tenants, they will be employed as servants; and most probably with more profit, more comfort, and less care to themselves. But the desire of tradesmen, labourers, gardeners, and hinds, who have saved a little money, to become small tenants is general; and when they get a possession, they suppose themselves independent. The result too frequently is, that instead of ripening to actual independence, they lose the money they previously accumulated; an event which, in this as well as every other branch of speculative industry, is apt to await those who engage in enterprises which their capital or credit do not enable them to conduct.

Lime. On the arable lands of Lammermoor, the great sources of fertility are lime, turnip, and artificial grasses. Lime is the extensive and general manure in this tract of country. It is brought from the Lothians, and conveyed to the distance of from eight to seventeen miles; but its great success, as a means of improving a mossy soil or moor, together with the late improvements upon the roads, render the use of it not only practicable but universal. The fertility produced by it is so great, that after a carriage of fifteen miles, the whole expence is often defrayed by the first crop of oats after fallow.

The quantity of lime necessary upon dry, sound, moor land has been much reduced of late, and the effect greater, by applying it upon well-prepared fallow, not by any means suffering the lime to be previously saturated with water, as is too often done, but spread on the field quite hot in its pulverised state. Thus the lime exerts its full effect; and ten cart loads, or forty bolls, shell-lime, manures an acre of such land well; but upon sour swamps, or where water has stagnated in winter, if such can be well drained, it is thought a much safer improvement to give it a top dressing with lime, or other manure, upon

the sward, and retain it as an improved pasture, than in that situation to risk tillage, or even the probability of lime having any effect. Agriculture.

Since the year 1770, turnips have become a general crop throughout the county; and, in the scale of improvement, have promoted agriculture more than any one plant ever introduced to the fields. They are both carried off the land for cattle feeding in the shades; or, where the land requires it, are eat off by sheep, which are either enclosed by flakes or netted in all day. Turnips are sown upon all new broken up lands, those especially recently reclaimed from moor and hilly districts; but only where the land is light. They are generally sown in drills two feet and a half asunder. The land having been previously limed, and the drills dunged, they become an excellent preparation for grass seeds sown along with the red oat next spring. This has made a very rapid and substantial improvement in this county. Indeed in the Lammermoor district, the turnip has in a great measure supplanted the summer fallow. Upon a soil tolerably light, it performs every service to be expected from summer fallow, while at the same time the turnip crop is in some degree a clear gain obtained by the community. Upon the breeding sheep farms, however, the use of turnip is restricted in some measure to lands detached from the sheep walk, or to enclosed lands; beeause otherwise the sheep must be kept at a great distance from the turnip field during winter. A considerable extent of pasture is thus lost, to avoid the necessity of harassing these animals by driving them off from the land in crop, which if once tasted is a perpetual temptation to them. Turnip.

Upon the whole lands in the county, the farmers are considered as possessing a wonderful dexterity in turning their lands from tillage to grass, and from grass to corn.

Agriculture. Of the lower district of the county, it is supposed that nearly one half is at all times in grass; of the upper district, upon wet lands, the plough is only used to improve the pasture; and even the dry soil, which is fittest for turnips, must in Lammermoor be at times brought under the plough to preserve the pasture in a valuable condition.

Grasses used. The grasses used in the county are red and white clover, rib grass, yellow clover, and rye grass; and these in such variety of proportions as suits the nature of the soil or the ideas of the farmer. Eight pounds of white, four pounds of red, and one bushel and a half of rye grass, with two pounds of rib grass to the acre, is a common proportion where the field is intended to remain in pasture some years. If it is sown down with a view to one crop of hay only, the greater proportion of the grass seeds is red or broad clover. It is believed that there is L. 10,000 Sterling paid yearly by the county for grass seeds imported from England and Holland; the importers and retailers thereof charging at least 10 *per cent.* profit, the county pay to them L. 1000 Sterling yearly.

On the arable lands of Lammermoor, the crops of grain consist of barley and oats, or perhaps peas. The oats, in the scale of agricultural improvement, are the only grain hitherto known, whereupon the farmer can with confidence trust to repay his labour in the early stage of cultivation.

Oats. Oats are therefore, with perfect success, sown upon all newly broken up lands; whether wet or dry, clay or gravel, there is no soil comes amiss to this plant. Old leys, pasture, and grass lands, are sown after one furrow. It is also found to be the hardiest of all grain, and will flourish at the height of five or six hundred feet above the sea's level, and there produce good crops, if not too much

exposed to high winds. It is found, however, by too fatal experience, that this valuable plant is, above all others hitherto known, the most pernicious to the interests of both the farmer and proprietor, if an undue repetition of crops is persisted in, particularly with the use of exciting manure. The plant being prone above all others to fertility, deceives the too avaricious farmer; and by an excess of this principle, it will continue productive till every other plant, even grass itself, ceases to vegetate where it grew. Agriculture.

As the highest part of Lammermoor is an open sheep country, the remarks made concerning it, when treating of East Lothian, apply to this county, and render a repetition of them unnecessary.

In the southern district of Berwickshire, or the Merse, the soil chiefly consists, in the lower part of the country, of strong clays, almost wholly destitute of stones or gravel; but higher up in the Merse, towards Dunse, the lands grow lighter, more kindly for grass and the turnip husbandry. Water for cattle, and materials for roads, are also here in plenty. Merse agriculture.

This part of the county lies but very little above the sea's level; for at Kelso bridge, 20 miles from the sea, there are only 90 feet of elevation. The air is therefore mild, lying in the middle space between the Cheviot and Lammermoor ridges of hills, where heavy rains are neither so frequent, nor of such continuance, as in the vicinity of these mountains. Though snow lies a long time some seasons in the Lammermoor district, and to a great depth, its continuance here in the low country is only a few days. About the time of the autumnal equinox, there is sometimes very tempestuous weather on the east coast.

As already mentioned, almost the whole of the arable

Agriculture. Enclosures.

lands of this county are now enclosed; the size of enclosures is extremely various, being from 10 to 100 acres; but in general, for a farm of 400 or 500 acres, enclosures of 40 or 50 English acres are accounted advantageous. It has been found in the Merse, that, by long cultivation, the soil is gradually ameliorated in a degree which no sudden efforts of industry can produce; and accordingly the ancient in-field lands are still found, and will probably long remain, superior in value to those in their neighbourhood which have been recently improved from a state of moor or out-field. In the progress of enclosing and improvement in this county, some occupiers of land attempted to destroy the distinction of out-field, moor, and in-field, by making square and regular enclosures, often taking parts of all the three classes of soil into the same field. However, those proprietors and occupiers of land, who studied more the classing of the same kind of land into one enclosure than the regularity of the enclosure, or their equality in size, have done best; as it is now found, by undoubted experience, that the different classes of soil require different culture to keep them in an improving state.

Kinds of fences.

There are a great many kinds of fences in those parts of this county where stones can easily be procured. Stone walls are preferred on high roads. Sometimes the fences are made by throwing out two ditches nine feet asunder, making them four or six feet wide at top, three or three and a half deep, and nine inches wide at bottom. The earth thrown out of both ditches is neatly formed into a sloping ridge or bank between the ditches; a row of quicks, three or four years transplanted, is set on each side about six inches higher than the edge of the ditch, and nine inches back from it, so as to form a scarcement. This is called a double ditch. A dead hedge is generally placed on the

top of the bank. To save land, a single ditch and hedge is sometimes used; and at the back of the hedge a wall of stone is placed, coped with turf, to protect the hedge till it acquire strength. There is a great deal of the soil not friendly to the growth of quickset hedges, owing to the cold till-bottom. The cleanness of the skin and vigour of the thorn are always held as marks of the good quality of the land; and they seldom fail to be just ones. It is thought by some that the pruning knife or hedgebill is too much used. This may be the case on some lands where hedges thrive well; but in a great deal of the lands of the county, the hedges fog at the stem or root, and would entirely die out, were they not cut over within a few inches of the ground; however, where they do not require this cutting from the above-mentioned cause, and where they keep close at the root, they should be allowed to grow up. In general, the enclosures of Berwickshire are kept in far superior condition to those of any county in Scotland. Agriculture.

With regard to the important point of the rotation of crops, it is difficult in this county to state the practice with precision.

The lands in most cases are turned from tillage to grass with such rapidity, that there are very few tenants who for a succession of years follow any fixed rotation of cropping, except where they possess good wheat lands, and continue the old system of cropping with wheat, peas, barley, and oats. Many of the tenants can with truth say, that what they are doing is better for the land than what they ought to have done by their leases. The great security to the landlord is considered to arise from the half, or a certain proportion, being always in grass, and so much at the end of the lease being generally agreed upon to be left in grass a certain number of years old. Rotation of crops.

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All these matters are adjusted at the time of making the bargain for a lease. On the dry lands lying along the Tweed-side, and in several other parts of the county, very fit for turnips, the common rotation is, 1*st*, Fallow and turnips with dung; 2*d*, Barley and grass seeds; 3*d*, Hay or pasture; 4*th*, Wheat or oats.

When the lands are not ploughed for oats or wheat the fourth year, as in the above mentioned rotation, but allowed to remain two or three years in pasture, they are ploughed in January or February, and cropped, 1*st*, oats; 2*d*, fallow and turnip, with dung; 3*d*, wheat, oats, or barley, with grass seeds.

To carry on the system of having wheat after turnip, the land must be good and early, otherwise the wheat sown in February or March will not ripen in season. If it do, the lands carrying a good crop are held to be the most valuable in the county. Wheat is not sown after turnips, except on land near the Tweed or the sea coast. Land not reckoned good for wheat, nor fit for turnip, gets more time to rest than the other classes; especially if it is what is called *grassy land*, it remains in pasture from one to five, six, or seven years. When it is brought again into tillage, it is ploughed soon after Christmas, that it may get the winter's frost, to expedite the operation of harrowing; then it is sown with, 1*st*, oats; 2*d*, peas; 3*d*, barley; 4*th*, oats; 5*th*, fallow, limed or dunged; 6*th*, barley or oats, with grass seeds. Or, what is now reckoned better husbandry, 1*st*, oats; 2*d*, barley; 3*d*, oats; 4*th*, fallow, limed or dunged; 5*th*, barley, with grass seeds.

On the good wheat lands, where the old system of cropping already mentioned is a little departed from, the rotation is, 1*st*, fallow, limed and dunged; 2*d*, wheat, with grass seeds; 3*d*, hay, or broad clover; 4*th*, wheat, or oats.

When this last kind of land is laid to grass for pasture, it is generally sown with the first crop after fallow. Agriculture.

It is not uncommon to take a crop of oats after wheat, and thereafter to fallow and manure the land; but very often this practice is forbid by the leases.

The Merse farmers are all, from their earliest years, trained up in the knowledge of cattle, in which they are eminent. They are almost to a man dealers or jobbers. Grazing.

The lower district of the county being now almost wholly inclosed and greatly improved, and, as already mentioned, so much of it in grass, the rearing and feeding of stock must be a great object. Farmers of experience and observation have no hesitation in asserting, that the stock in the county at large must pay the whole rent of it, otherwise the tenants will not thrive. If the grain produced pay all other expences of labouring the county, and feeding the labourers and horses, &c. it does well. This is not precisely the case on the rich lands adjoining to the Tweed, the Whitatter, and some parts of the coast; but it is held to be true by the majority of the county. Sheep and black cattle are the kinds on which the payment of the rents depends. Sheep and cattle in this county are of three sizes; the Merse breed, the Cheviot breed, and the Lammermoor breed, which is the smallest. It has been found, by experience in this county, that the cattle improve in proportion as the pasture is improved; that it is in vain to carry the heavy Merse breed of sheep and black cattle to Lammermoor, where they are sure to decline. Every breeder of cattle in the county, therefore, is attentive to have his sheep and cattle of as large a size, and of as good a breed, as his pastures will carry forward, and no more. Hence, in the opinion of the farmers, there always must be a variety in the size of the stock in proportion to the variety of soil and climate, even where e-

Agricul. ture. very thing else is equal in point of skill and attention. Hence the employment of a grazier is considered as requiring much experience and discernment, to enable him to distinguish with correctness, in the market, the cattle that correctly suit his pastures.

Horses. The number of horses reared within the county is not equal to the supply of the stock required for farming and other purposes of draught. There are about 4000 draught horses in the county; and the sum of L. 8000 is sent yearly out of it to the west for horses to keep up this stock, and afford a supply to the farmers on the south side of the Tweed, who apply to the dealers in this county; but it is believed that the sale of horses in this county does not exceed L. 1000 yearly.

The manures in use in the county are, lime, farm-yard dung, rock or clay marl; and, in four or five situations only, shell-marl and sea-weed. The lime is brought from Berwick and Northumberland, or from Mid and East Lothians. On the one side, it is from three to six miles beyond the bounds of the county, and on the other it is from four to eight; yet, with all these disadvantages, the quantity of lime that has been laid on the county, within these last thirty years, has been great. Excepting some old grass lands, that have not been in tillage in that period, and some of the high outfields in Lammermoor, that are only ploughed for the sake of keeping down the heather, the greatest part of the county has been once limed; and a considerable part of it, though at the distance of fourteen or sixteen miles from the lime pits, has been limed two or three times in the course of a twenty-one years lease. So universally has the use of this manure been considered to contribute to the farmer's profit, and the improvement of the lands, that, to a proverb in the county, an entering tenant should get credit in proportion to the extent of his

fallow field, and the number and size of his lime-heaps. Much has been done, and much may still be done, in Lammermoor, by this excellent and immediately operating manure. The great danger from the use of it on light dry loamy lands arises from over-cropping them after being limed. This ought to be guarded against by the landlord, in proportion to the encouragement he gives to the tenant to lime; and by the tenant, in proportion to the confidence he has of getting a renewal of his lease on fair terms. For it is now believed by most tenants acquainted with the effects of lime on dry lands in the county, that an unlimed farm, in a situation where lime is not difficult to be obtained, is of more value than one that has been limed, and afterwards over-cropped. Agriculture.

Rock and clay marl have been found in great abundance on the banks of the Whitatter and Blackatter, and in many fields of the lower district of the county; and when improvements first began to be carried on with spirit, by many of the farmers and gentlemen in the county, it was the manure most used in all cases where it lay near the fields to be improved. The quantity laid on an acre was from 300 to 500 waggon-loads, or from 400 to 600 cart-loads; which not only added a sufficient quantity of calcareous matter, but also an additional thickness to the soil; and was then, and still is, considered as an excellent manure for moor and thin dry soils; but it is not always to be had in the neighbourhood of them. The expence of marl, on account of the large quantity necessary, is little less than that of lime; while, at the same time, a great loss of time is occasioned by means of it; a circumstance which has caused it to be generally relinquished. Shell-marl has been found only in a few places within the county, and has not been allowed to be carried beyond the estates where it has been found. A large field of from Marl.

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80 to 100 acres of shell-marl has been discovered in the adjoining county of Roxburgh, at the south-west corner of Berwickshire, upon the estate of Harden. It is covered by five or six feet of peat-moss or turf.

As the towns or villages in the county are very small, no manure is obtained from them; and the farmers use the finest of their dung for their turnip, and the coarsest for their wheat.

Sea-ware.

On account of the nature of the coast, which in general consists of a high rocky shore, sea-weed or sea-ware is not obtained in abundance. In some situations, however, it is found, and is eagerly sought after. It consists chiefly of the weed known by the name of *tangle* (*fucus palmatus*), having a very long stalk and a broad spreading leaf. It seems to grow upon all the rocks which are never left bare by the tide, and whose depth below the surface of low water does not exceed twenty fathoms. It thus occupies a space along the shore of about half a mile in breadth, in which it grows like a forest, rising eight or ten feet from the bottom, the flat blade of the plant being visible when the sea is at its lowest ebb. This belt of sea-ware may be distinguished, when sailing in a boat, by the colour of the water; and it is well known to the fishermen, from whose report the above account is chiefly taken. In violent storms the sea tears the plant from the rocks, and drives it on shore; it is then eagerly carried off by the farmers, who spread it directly upon the ground where it is to be used, and plough it in as fast as possible. It is the opinion of many good farmers, that a cart-load of good ware is, at any season of the year, equivalent to an equal load of dung; but, at the time of sowing barley, it is considered as at least of double value; partly owing to its being, as they say, ripe at that season, having the strongest manuring quality, and partly to its efficacy in

producing fine crops of barley, both in quantity and quality. When the ground is very dry, the ware is often spread upon the ground after the corn is sown, or even sprung; and, when applied in this manner, it is supposed to produce the best and surest effects. Ware barley is much esteemed by the brewers, and is in great request for seed, particularly by the upland farmers, as it is said to ripen at least a week earlier than any other. Agriculture.

There is not much natural wood in the county; about 200 acres may be the utmost extent. It is mostly dwarfy, and not seemingly in a thriving state; which cannot be easily accounted for: probably the allowing of sheep to pasture in the woods soon after being cut or hagged, is hurtful to the growth of it. Woods.

Most of the gentlemens seats in the county are decorated with pretty well-grown trees, consisting of oak, ash, beech, elm, poplar, chesnut, larches, Scotch and spruce firs, &c. The weedings hitherto have been equal to the demand for the purposes of husbandry in the county, and no more. All the kinds are to be found of various sizes. From nine to twelve feet round is among the largest of the oak, ash, beech, and elm. For these many years past, most of the gentlemen have been embellishing their estates by new plantations. Many are of considerable extent, and clumps, strips, and ring-belts, &c. have been planted in many parts of the county, which will soon add to the beauty and riches of it.

There is a want of hedge-row trees in this county: they seldom thrive well, and are always slow in growth; which is one reason of their not being so generally planted as they ought to be. It is alleged also, that they hurt the hedges; but this is not believed to be the case, unless where hedges surround thick plantations. On the whole, there are about 3590 acres of planted land in the county:

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Much of this is affording at present, as it has done for many years past, a considerable yearly income to the planters or their heirs.

Planting useful to Lammermoor.

Planting would be of the greatest utility to Lammermoor, by giving shelter to the cold bleak hills and moors, and by improving the soil so planted. But there are many discouragements to planting in this tract: it is found that trees will not grow, on any kind of soil, on the summits of the hills; neither will they grow on moss; and there is a considerable part of the moorlands unfit for improvement, on account of the thinness of the soil, and the wetness and badness of the bottom; and upon these trees will not grow, as has been learned by experience in several situations: add to this, that it is very difficult to make fences sufficient to hold out highland sheep, especially where stones are not to be found. Planting thrives well on moors of a gravelly or rocky bottom, if they are not much exposed to winds; but a great part of the flat moorlands have something at bottom unfriendly to the growth of trees.

Plantations of whins advisable on moors.

It is believed that raising of whins or broom, on many of the moors of the upper district, would be a considerable improvement. The sheep are fond of them; and they prove an excellent relief in a heavy fall of snow, on account of their giving both food and shelter: and there are seldom any unhealthy sheep where the fields in Lammermoor abound with whins and broom. Indeed, Nature seems to have provided the small and hardy shrubs as one of the means of enabling a barren and exposed soil gradually to acquire the degree of fertility and shelter necessary to enable it to bear forest trees. The first steps of the process by which Nature covers the earth with fertility and beauty consist of the growth of the hardy *fungi* and moss plants upon naked stones and rocks. These afford shelter to tribes of small animals; and the

ruins of animal and vegetable life gradually produce a fertile mold, which supports heath and coarser grasses. In sheltered situations, these are succeeded by more delicate plants; but, in a bleak and exposed soil, the hardiest shrubs ought to be planted, that, by the activity of their roots in penetrating the earth, and by the shelter which they afford, they may prepare the territory for gradually supporting the larger vegetable productions. Agriculture.

In this county, it is generally understood that L. 4 of capital is necessary, at an average, to enable a farmer to pay L. 1 of rent. About ten years ago, the rental of the county was estimated at L. 112,000; from which L. 5000 *per annum* ought to be deducted for land in the possession of the proprietors; and as the rental of lands in Scotland has in general doubled every twenty years, and in some places in a shorter period, the rental of Berwickshire, in the hands of tenants, may be considered as amounting to L. 150,000; to produce which a capital of L. 600,000 is necessary. Agricultural capital in Berwickshire.

The farm-houses and offices formerly were mean huts, built with stone and clay, and covered with thatch and divot. Two or three farm-steadings were often found together in one village. This had no doubt been originally adopted, either with a view to protection or society, perhaps to both. In general, now, they are well situated, and substantially built. All the modern farm-houses are two stories high, covered with slate, and have from four to eight or ten apartments, with an out or back kitchen. Several of the houses are neat and handsome; and, in some cases, the tenants are thought to be exceeding in the article of fine houses, fine furniture, &c. However, when this is narrowly examined, the excess, if there be any, is not great, nor yet (to the detriment of improvement in agriculture) extensively diffused over the county. Two Farm-houses.

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or three thousand pounds of capital, engaged in stock, and outlay for labour and improvement of a farm, entitle the possessor to be comfortably lodged. If this could not be the case, he would certainly follow another business than that of farming.

The offices are now likewise made substantial and convenient; many of them covered with tyles. Where farm-buildings require to be renewed, or removed to a more convenient situation, the tenant is always taken bound to lead all the carriages; which he agrees to without reluctance on account of his getting additional accommodation. In some cases the tenant accepts of a sum, for which he agrees to build or renew the buildings. On a farm from three to four hundred pounds a-year, it costs about a year's rent.

Length of leases.

The length of leases in general is nineteen or twenty-one years. In cases where a tenant agrees to give a great rise of rent, and ties himself down to considerable improvements, by enclosing, building, &c. they are lengthened out to twenty-four and thirty years. The covenants as to the management of lands are various, according to the nature of the soil, and the situation it is in with respect to improvement. They are generally calculated, sometimes *twisted*, to meet the ideas of the proprietor and tenant at the time of making a bargain for a lease. Where care is taken and ability employed, the articles are adopted which are best calculated to keep the soil in an improving state; and, till the late scarcity, there was hardly any such practice in the county, as in some others in Scotland, of letting old rich grass lands out to plough on a short lease at a high rent. The distance of lime, the want of dung, and the difficulty of restoring the land to its former state or rent, forbid the practice.

The articles of a lease in general are, that the tenant

shall neither assign nor subset his farm; and that his creditors shall have no power to seize it. The landlord reserves right to search for and work all quarries and minerals on paying surface damages. The endurance of the lease, twenty-one years; entry to houses and grass, on the 26th of May, and to the tillage land, at the separation of the crop of that year from the ground; rent payable at two terms in the year, Martinmas and Whitsunday, by equal portions; the first sum payable at the end of six, twelve, but often eighteen months, and in some cases twenty-one months, after entry to houses and grass; and the second payment, six months after the first. The tenant receives the houses in good repair, and upholds and leaves them in such repair at his own expence. In some cases he is allowed wood and workmanship. He in general upholds the whole of the fences, in some cases only the half. He is taken bound to have the half of the lands always in pasture grass, at least towards the end of the lease. One-fifth or one-fourth part of the tillage lands is yearly in fallow or turnips; one-fifth or one-fourth under a green-leafed grass. Wheat is not sown above once between fallows; and oats and wheat are not allowed to be sown in general after oats or wheat. The fallow division is manured with dung or lime, sometimes with both; and all land sown up with grass seeds, in most cases, is sown with the first crop after fallow. At the end of the lease a certain quantity of the grass is left a specified number of years old.

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Articles of cases.

Grass lands or parks are let from year to year. Entry in May; removal in November or December; rent payable at Martinmas first after entry. The takers grant bill with a surety for the rent; and in general this is a well paid rent.

In Lammermoor it is common to restrict the tenants

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from ploughing above one-third of the arable lands. In cases where the landlord allows the tenants prime cost of lime, they are taken bound not to take above three crops before sowing off with grass seeds. The moor land, ploughed up, fallowed, and limed, is generally left without restriction, which has been the ruin of it in many places.

There is little commerce in this county but what arises from the business of husbandry and grazing, or feeding black cattle and sheep, the exports from Eyemouth being chiefly grain and meal; and the imports, timber, iron, slates, tyles, grass seeds, salt, grain, rags, lime, and lately coal.

Grain exported.

The grain from the east part of the lower district of the county, which is by far the most productive of that article, is shipped at Berwick or Eyemouth, and carried coastwise, to the amount of nearly 12,000 quarters annually from the port of Eyemouth; and from the port of Berwick there are sometimes shipped 11,000 or 12,000 quarters of wheat, as much barley, more than twice that quantity of oats, besides peas, and some thousand quarters of rye; but only half of the wheat and oats, and two-thirds of the barley, shipped at this port, it is supposed, go from Berwickshire, the rest from Northumberland.

Cattle exported.

From the west end of the lower district, and the north district, the grain and meal are carried to Dalkeith, Edinburgh, Haddington, and Dunbar; and the carriages return with coals, lime, wood, iron, tar, tyles, slates, &c. The commerce, if it deserve that name, carried on between the graziers, butchers, and breeders in this and the neighbouring counties, is considerable. Great part of the stock is purchased for driving to England all the summer season; and the great markets of Edinburgh and

Morpeth take off all the fat cattle and sheep that can be spared the whole year, to a very great extent in point of number and value. Many of the people employed in buying up this stock, both lean and fat, keep no accounts; so that it is almost impossible to ascertain the quantity; but it must be considerable, as it is thought that the value of what is killed in the county yearly does not exceed L. 8000 or L. 9000. Agriculture.

The two London roads passing thro' this county from Edinburgh, one by Ayton and Berwick, the other by Greenlaw and Coldstream, with a branch by Lauder, have been productive of much improvement to the county. Indeed the building of Coldstream bridge some years ago, and opening the west road to England, has produced a striking change upon the western part of the county. Coal and lime are now brought in carts to all parts of Lauderdale, and even to Tweedale, from Lothian. Roads.

Upon the eastern part of the county, since building the Pease bridge, the like access is opened to the lime-works in East Lothian. At all seasons, by the goodness of these roads and bridges, there is ready access, free of danger, to markets, often near thirty miles. Where the distance is so very great, the carts travel much in the night-time, carrying to market grain, the produce of the farm, and next day returning loaded with either coal or lime; neither of which, in the former state of the country, could have been attempted, except only when carried in bags upon horseback.

The roads in the Merse have always been a reproach to the county, and have very much retarded its improvement. The present proprietors, sensible of these disadvantages, have made great exertions, which have brought about a thorough repair of most of the roads, and accele-

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rated the progress of improvement beyond what was formerly known.

Various acts of parliament have been obtained for making the roads, which, in the lower part of the county, in consequence of the nature of the soil, and the scarcity of proper materials, is an expensive operation. Tolls have been erected, and the statute labour is converted into a pecuniary payment; in consequence of which ample funds have been established.

Pease bridge.

The Pease bridge was an important work, necessary towards rendering complete the road from Edinburgh to London by Berwick. It stands upon the north-east angle of the county, and is thrown over a vast chasm, at the bottom of which is a small stream of water. It consists of four arches; and its romantic situation, and stupendous height, render it an object of curiosity, or rather of astonishment, to travellers. The Pease bridge is 123 feet from the bottom of the water of the burn to the top of the rail; it is 300 feet long, within the parapet walls 15 feet wide, and 6 feet from the level of the road to the top of the rail. In passing by the Pease bridge, the road is lengthened between one-fourth and one-half of a mile; but a great saving is obtained in point of level, as the level of the present bridge is 200 feet in perpendicular height above the spot at which the old road crossed the Pease burn, near the sea; and the old road, upon the east side, rose through a perpendicular height of 150 feet, at a declivity of nearly one inch in five.

Spirit of improvement.

Upon the whole, there exists in this county an universal and a most active spirit of improvement, so far as regards the cultivation of the soil. The greatest disadvantage under which it labours appears to consist of the want of the two important articles of coal and lime, so abundant on the northern side of the Lammermoor hills,

but hitherto undiscovered upon their southern declivity. These valuable but weighty articles must be conveyed to most parts of the county, by a very distant inland carriage, from the Lothians or from Northumberland. We have already mentioned, that a proposal has been repeatedly made to construct a canal for navigation along the banks of the Tweed from the sea at Berwick to Kelso, which is in Roxburghshire, but adjoining to this county; a work which would remove these inconveniences. Kelso is 20 miles from the sea, and the elevation is only 90 feet; but the want of fuel and lime prevents the establishment of manufactures, and of a crowded population, whose wants or productions might defray the expence of a work which agriculture alone cannot be expected to accomplish. Perhaps the cheaper expedient of a waggon-way, formed of cast iron, might sufficiently fulfil the object in view, and lay open this valuable district to all advantages of commerce.

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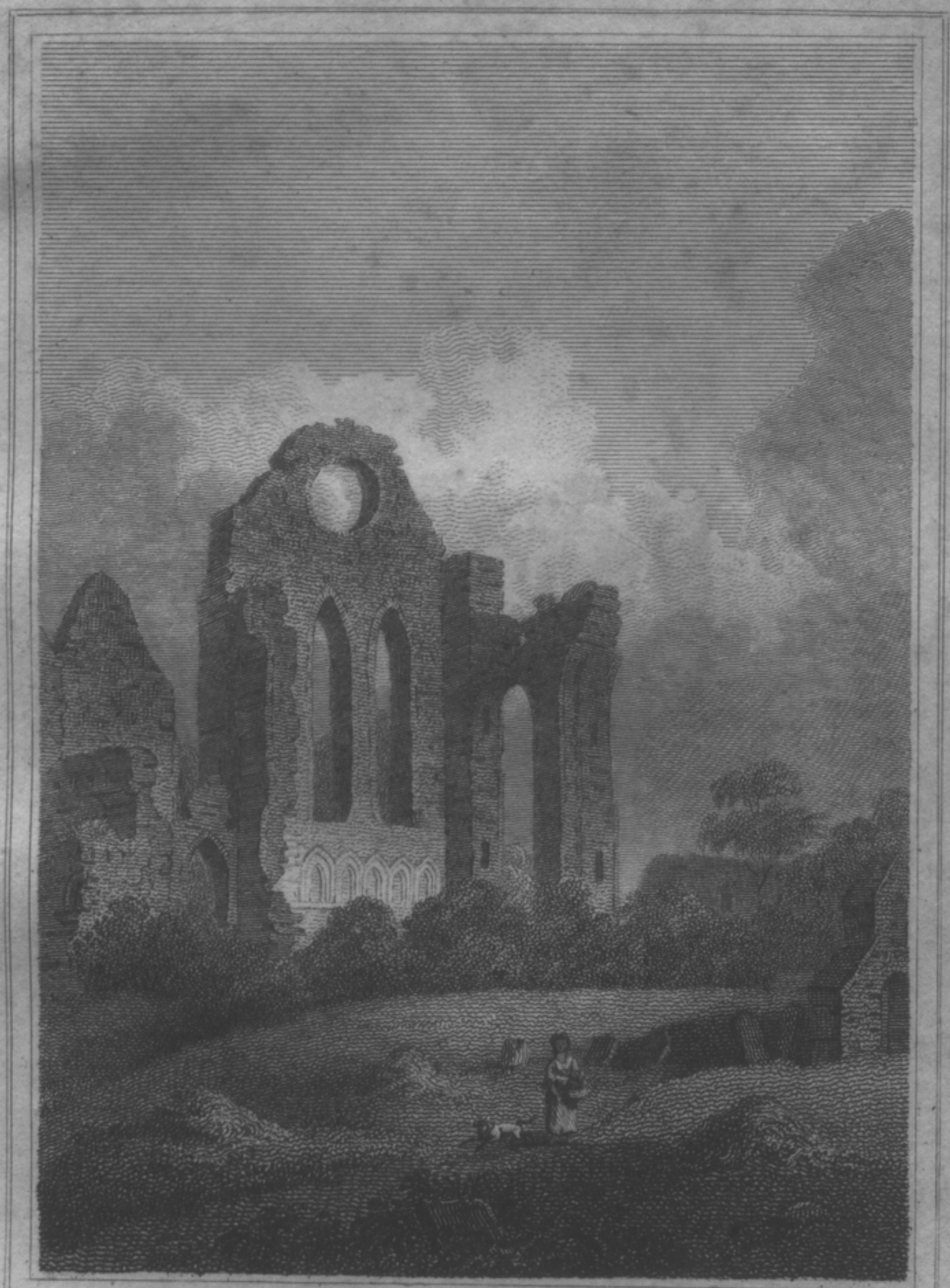

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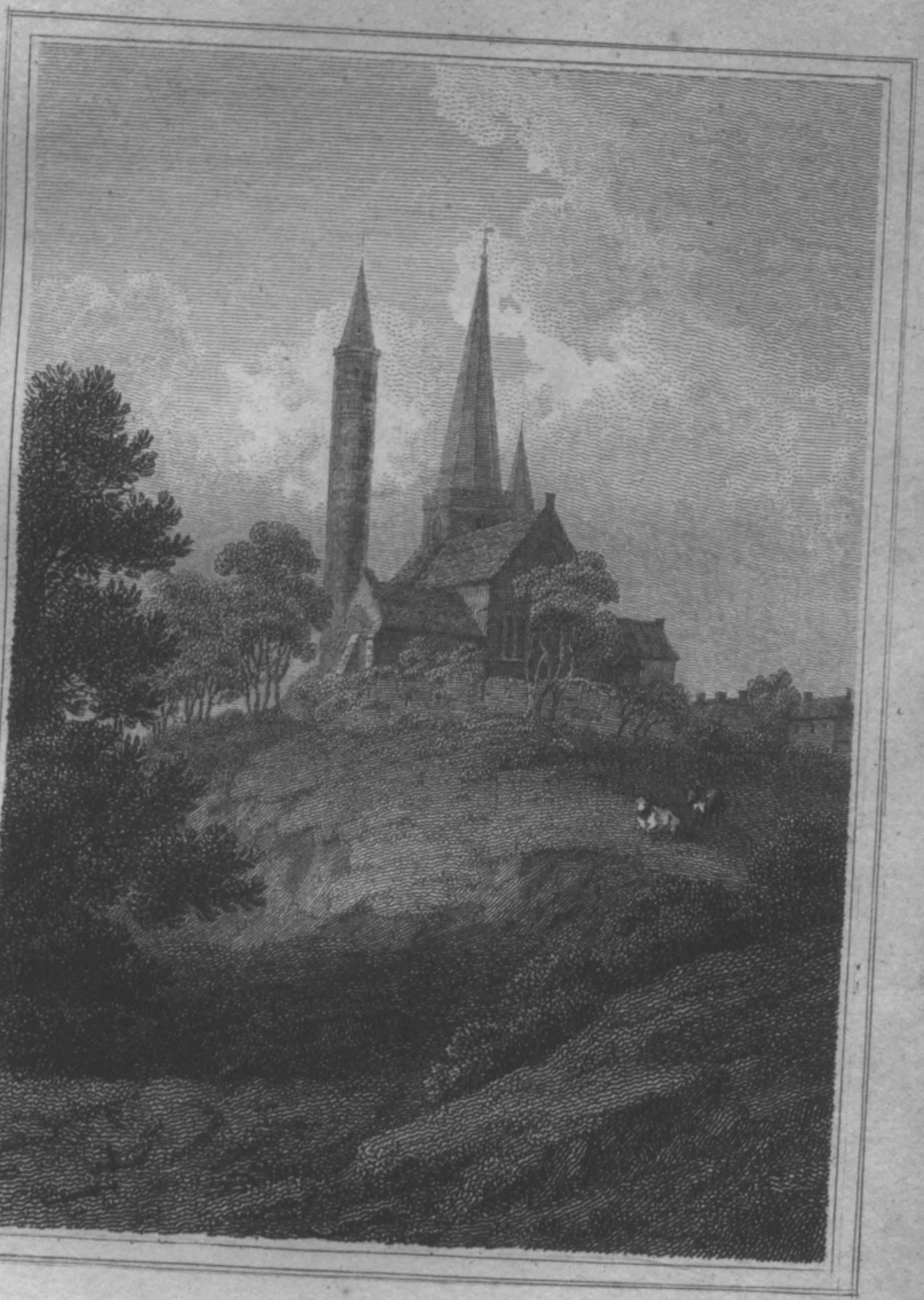

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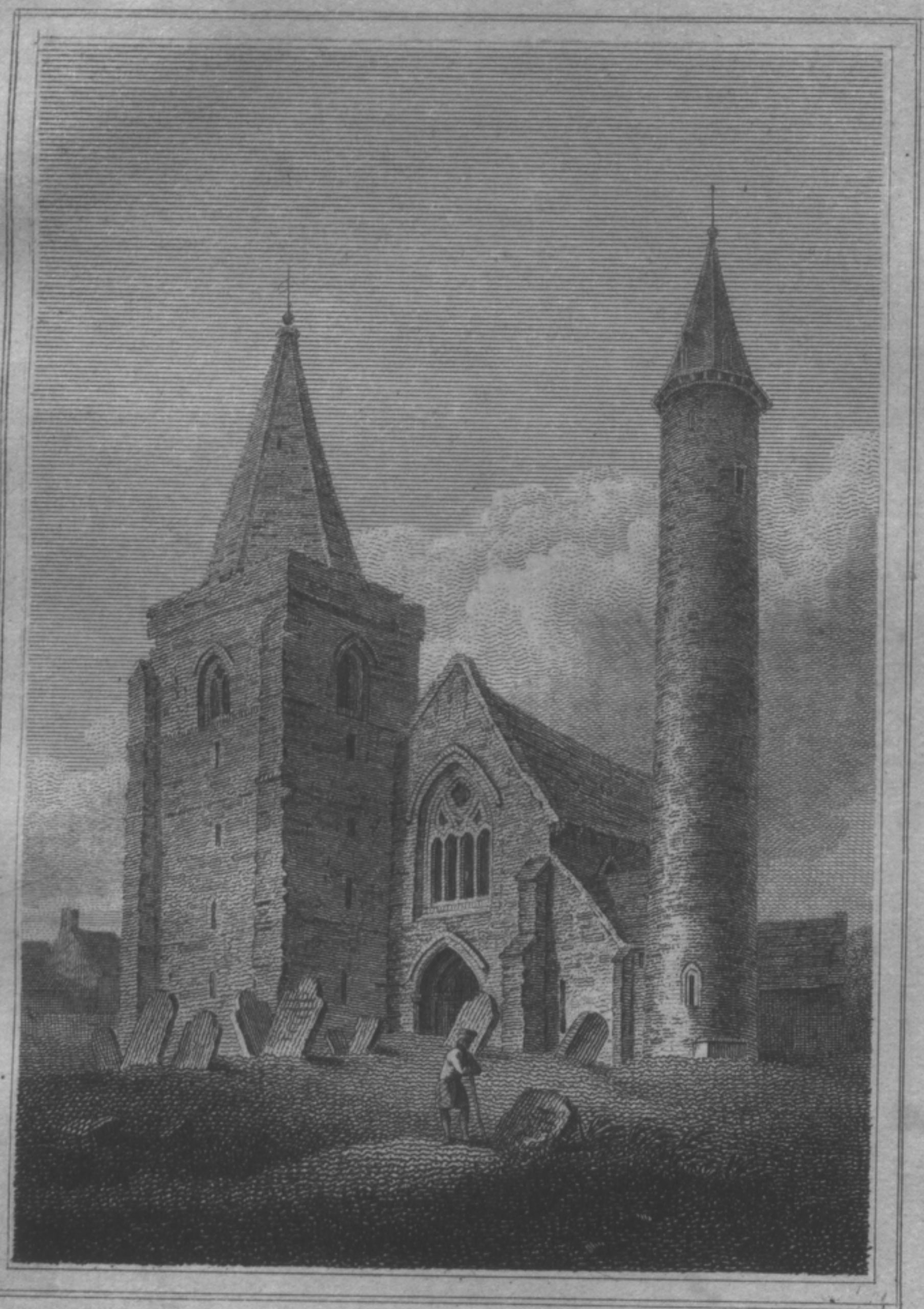

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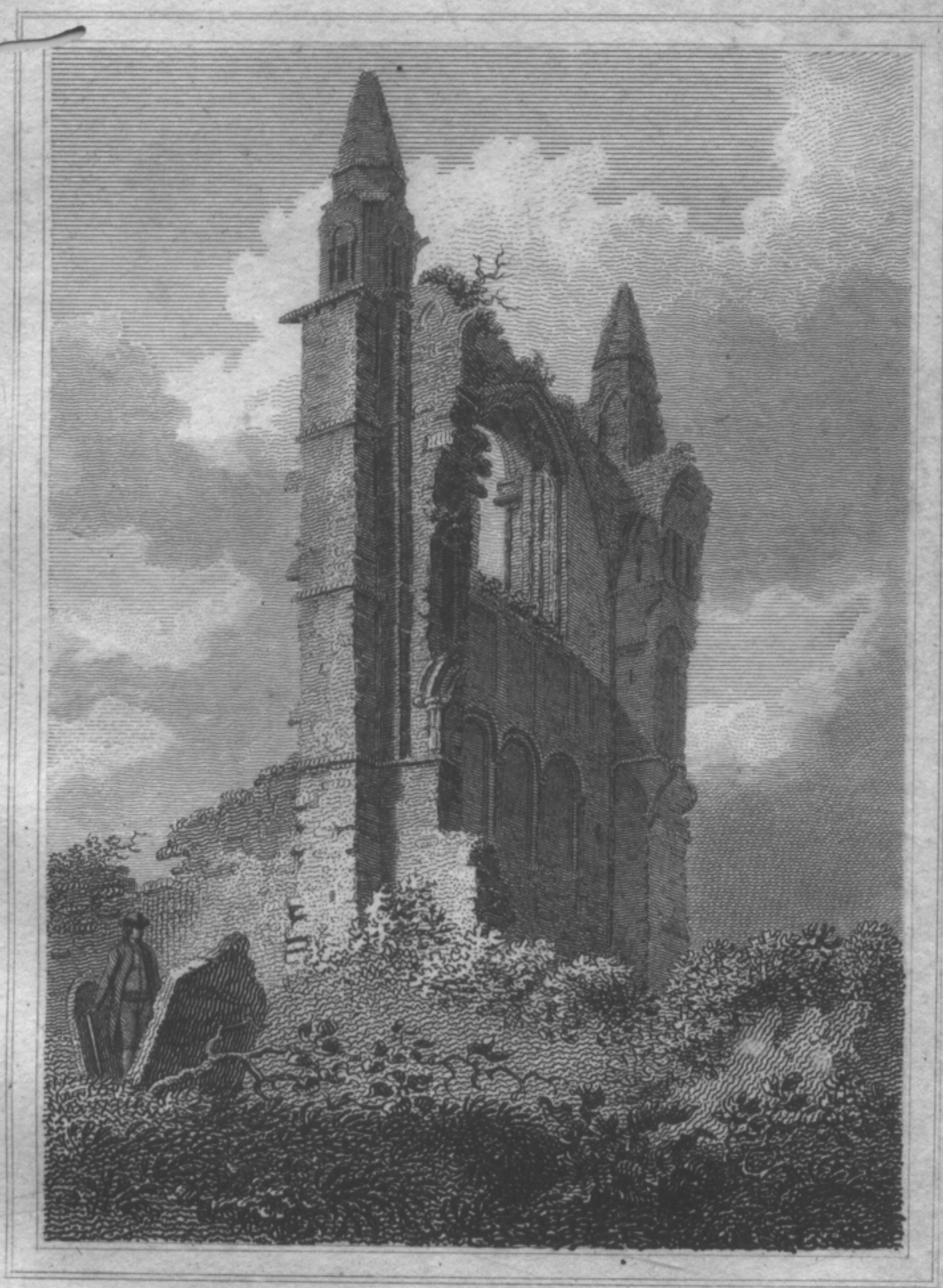

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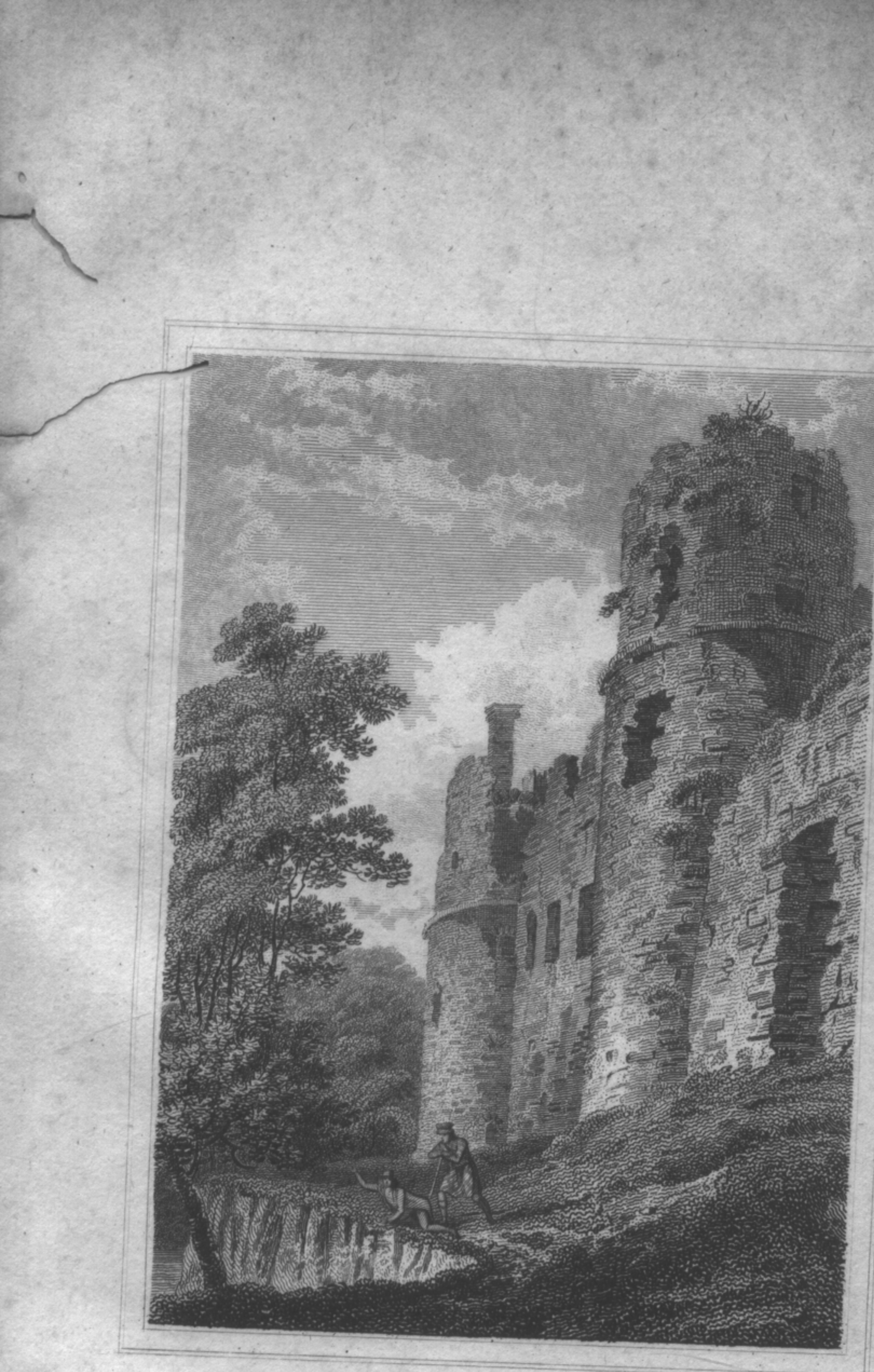

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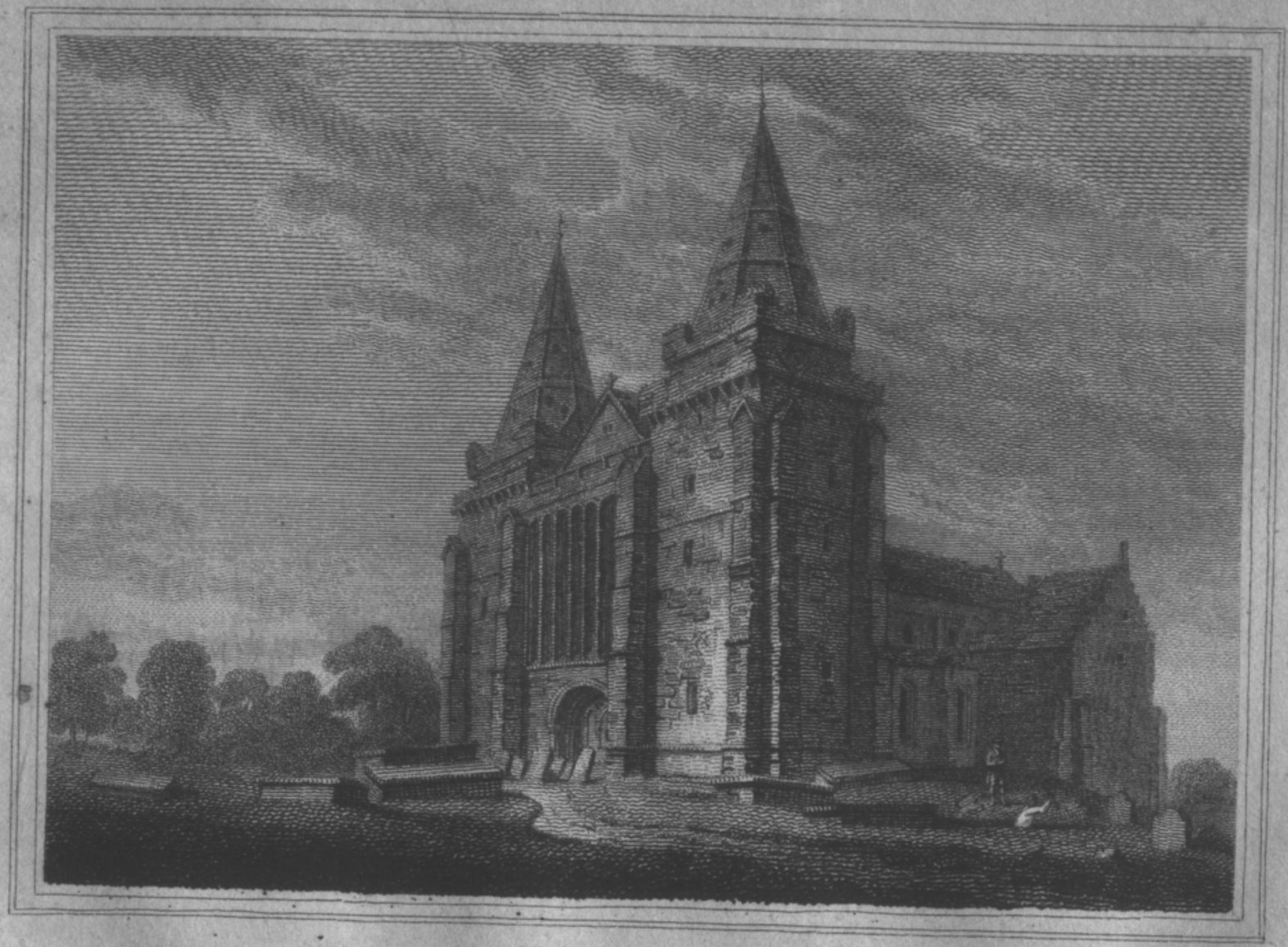

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Grimm. del.

Angus sculp.

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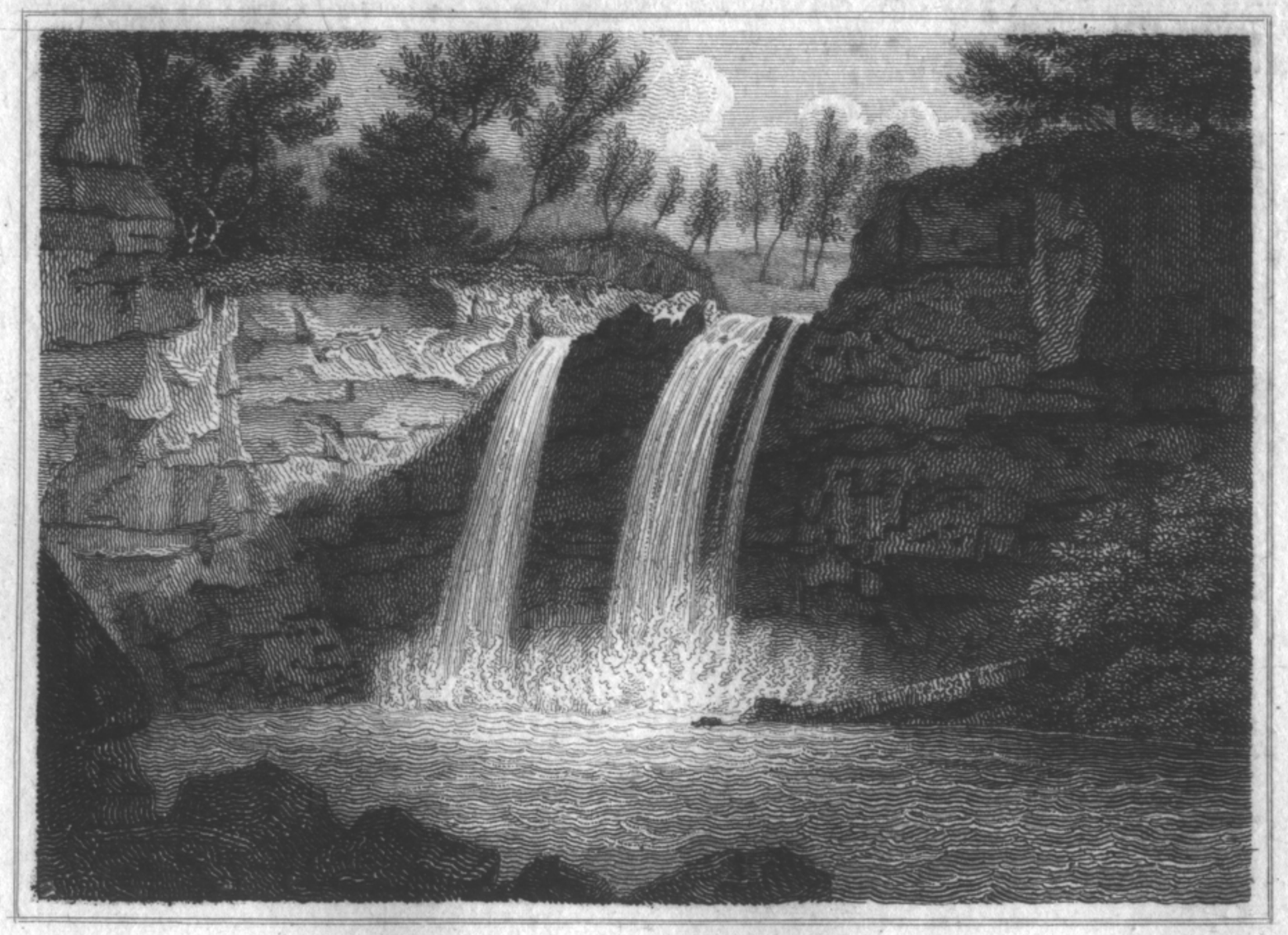

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I.E.Woolford del.t

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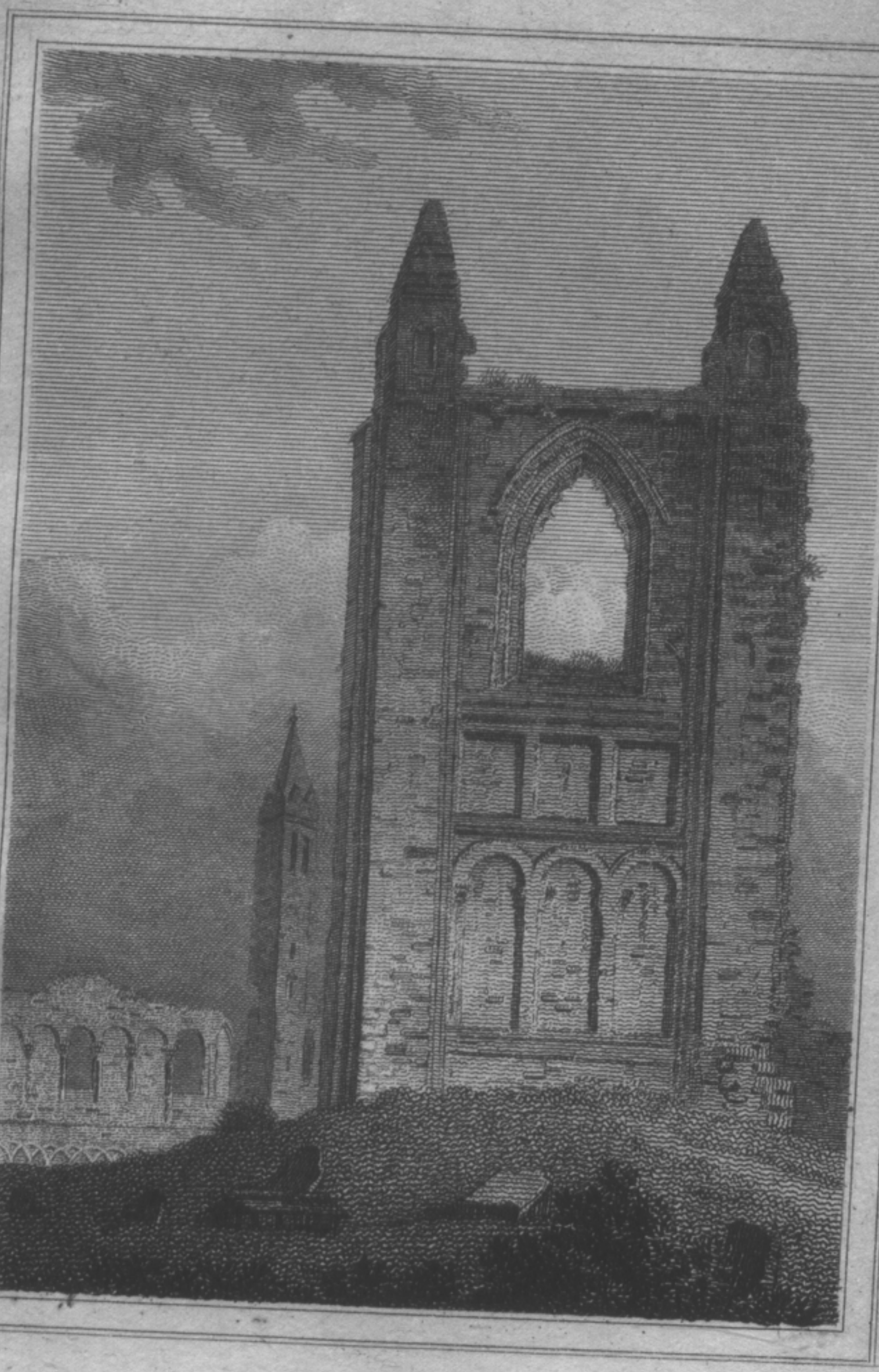

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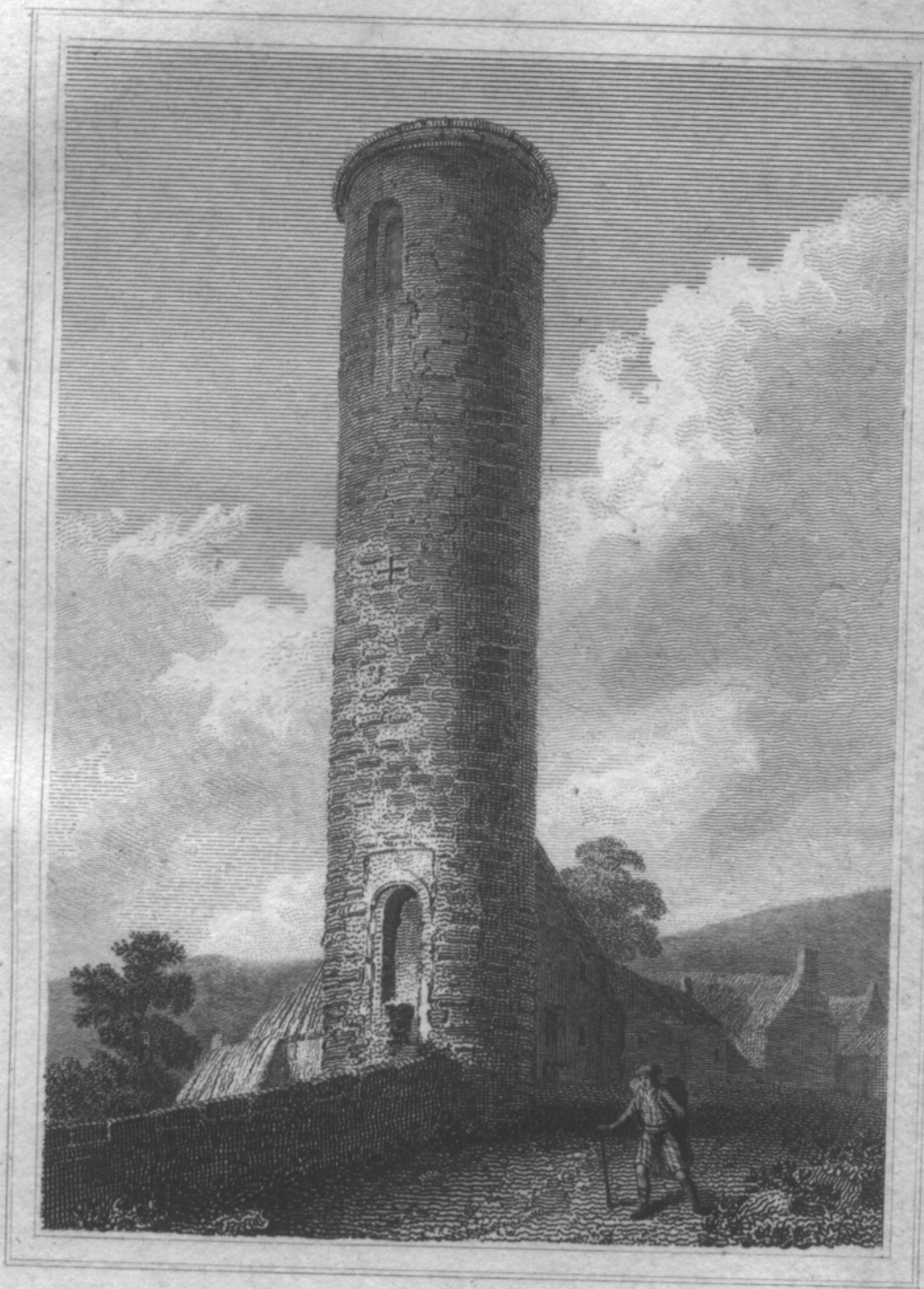

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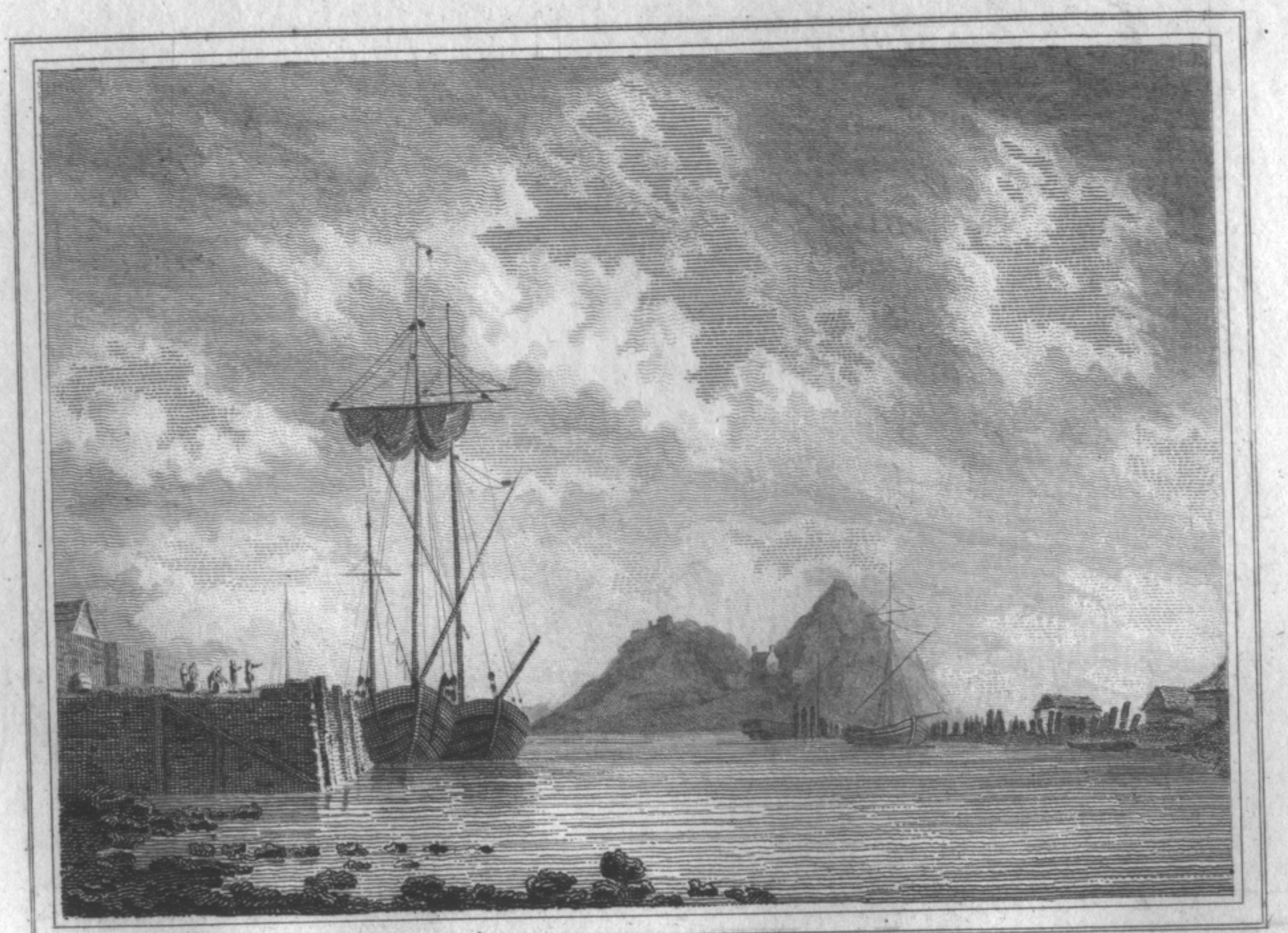

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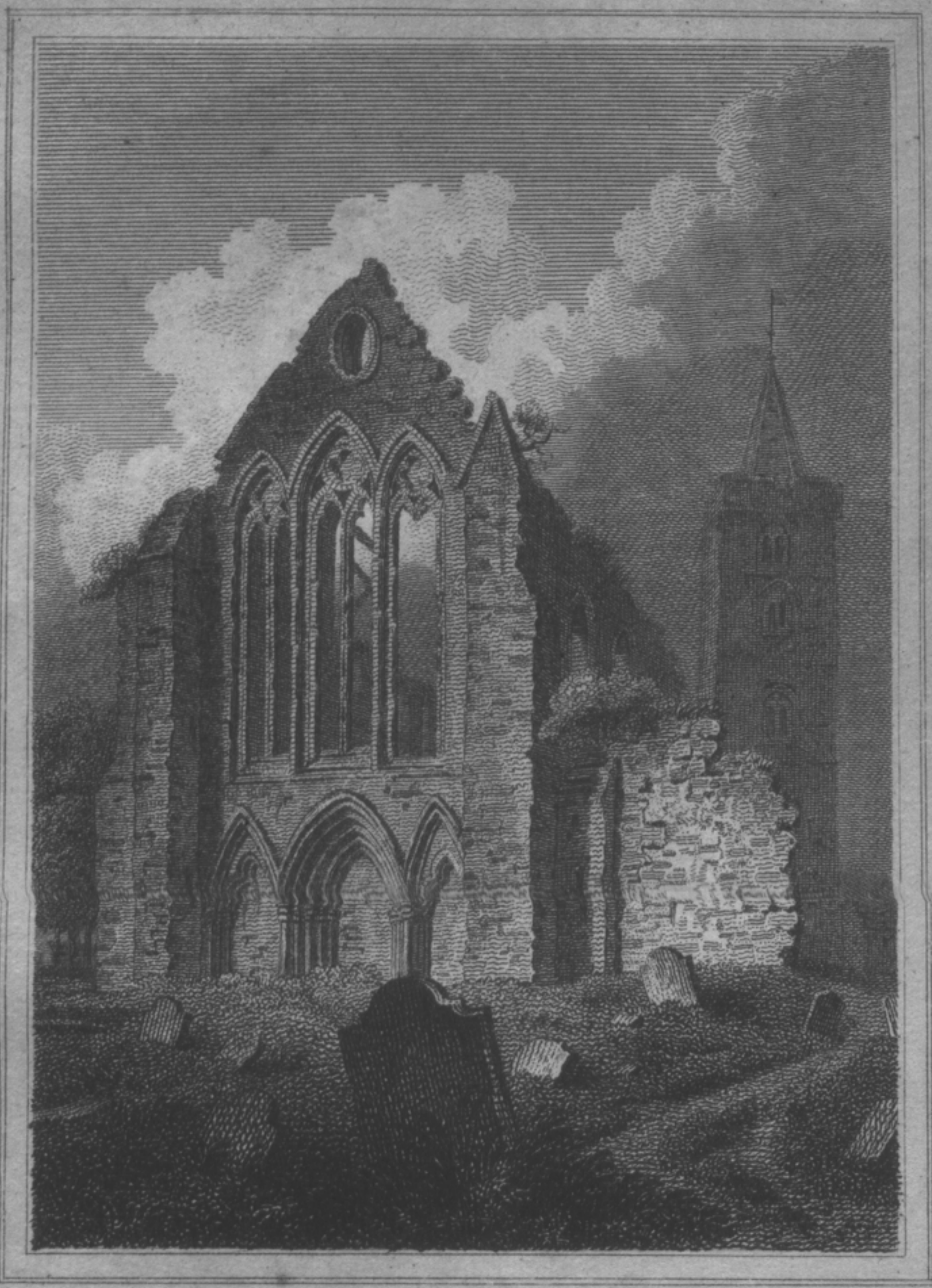

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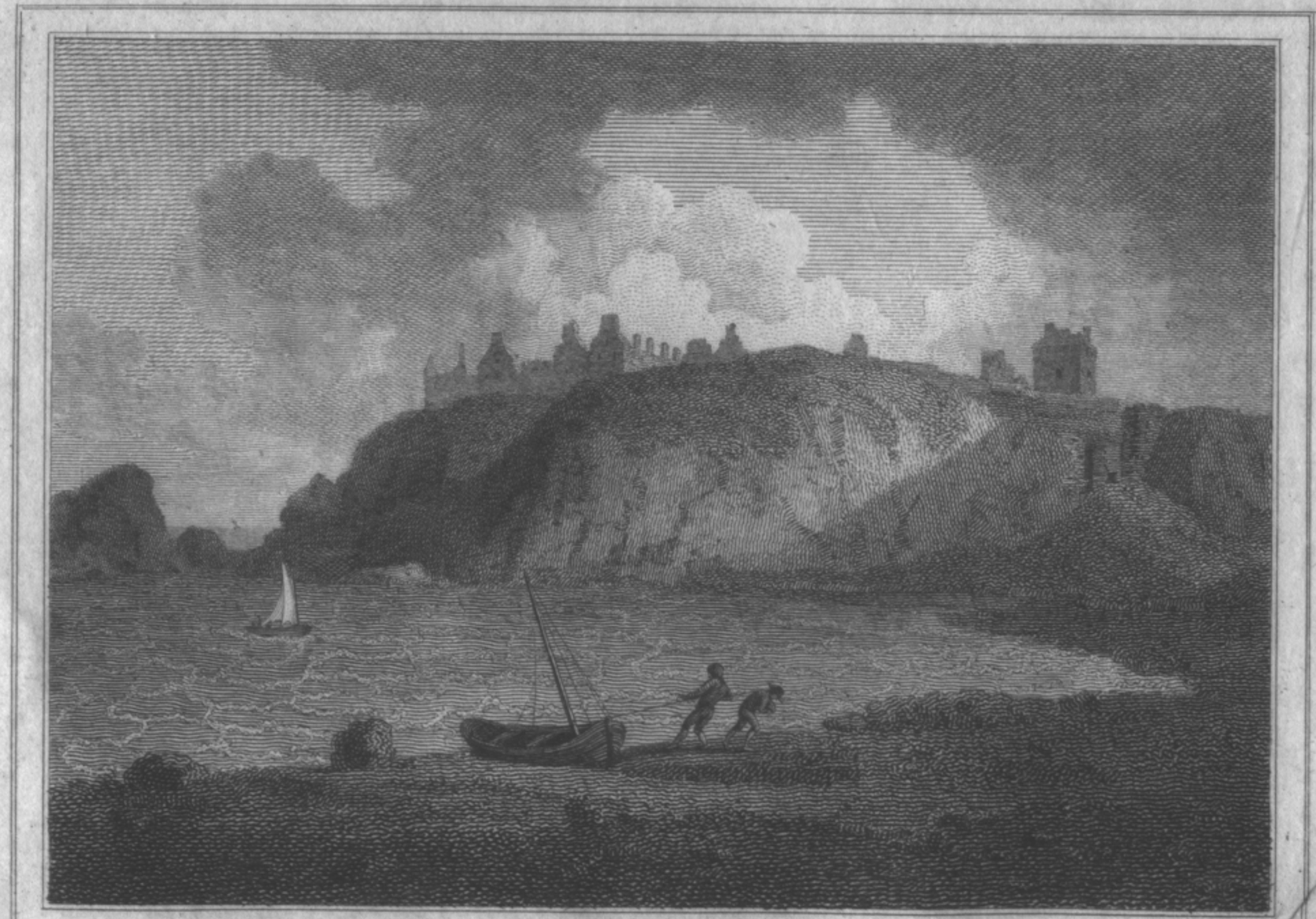

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