all his men to be armed and drawn up on the beach. After going through some evolutions, they fired three vollies in presence of the King and his attendants, who expressed their surprise by hallowing, jumping, &c. One of the fowls, which had been saved from the wreck, was made to pass across the cove, where Mr Benger was prepared with his fowling-piece loaded with small shot. He fired, and the bird instantly dropped, having one wing and one leg broken. Some of the natives took it up, and brought it to the King, who was associated, as he had seen nothing pass out of the gun, how this effect could have been produced.

Some time after, Captain WILSON, and the whole ship's company were vexed, and even alarmed, on observing an unusual coolness in the aspect and behaviour of the King. Instead of his former open and affectionate manner, he had become morofe and apparently diftrusful. The cause of this change, however, when developed, was not only a confirmation of the highest honour in the breast of the Sovereign, but a proof of the greatest delicacy of sentiment. King was at war with an island not far distant, called Artingall. He meant to make an attack upon that island in a few days. wished to have the assistance of sive Englishmen armed with muskets, pistols, &c. to astonish and annoy his enemies. Whenever Captain WILSON discovered the nature of the King's request, he instantly complied. In a moment, every countenance assumed an unusual gaiety, and perfect harmony and mutual confidence were reftored. The five men, with Thomas Rose the interpreter, accompanied the fleet of King ABBA THULLE, which confifted of a hundred and fifty canoes filled with warriors. No fooner did they arrive within a proper distance of the enemy's fleet than the musketry were ordered to be fired. One or two men were observed to fall, Terror and Vol. II. Un difmay,

dismay, at an exhibition so far removed from the conception of those islanders, instantly seized them, and they sled with the utmost precipitation. The King, elevated by the victory he had so easily obtained, and the terror which he had excited in the minds of his enemies, returned in triumph to his own dominions, where he was received by his subjects with every mark of joy and exultation. Some little time afterwards, the King prepared his canoes and soldiers for another expedition against Artingall. Ten Englishmen, armed as before, with the addition of a swivel-gun, were solicited from Captain Wilson to attend Arba Thulle and his warriors. This request was also granted; and the havock made by the fire-arms was so great, that another victory was easily obtained by the Monarch of Pelew. Soon after this defeat, peace was concluded between the two contending parties.

Marriage, among these people, seemed to be a civil contract, which they regard as inviolable. A plurality of wives was allowed, though the number seldom exceeded two. RAA ROOK had three wives, and the King sive; but they did not live together. After a woman was pregnant, though she accompanied her husband, she never, while in that state, slept with him. When any Chief appeared with his two wives, they generally sat on each side of him; and the company paid no more attention to them than what is customary where the greatest good manners prevail. One of the English gentlemen, endeavouring to render himself agreeable to a lady by what is usually termed a marked assiduity, ARRA ROOKER, with much delicacy, hinted, that such behaviour was not altogether proper.

With regard to their mode of burying the dead, Mr Sharp the furgeon, and Thomas Harvey the boatswain, saw the funeral of

RAA ROOK's son, who had fallen in battle. The body was wrapped in a mat, and carried on the shoulders of sour men, on a machine made of bamboos, and resembling what is called a horse by our chairmen. Beside these sour bearers, the suneral procession consisted entirely of women, who incessantly set up the loudest lamentations. The same custom formerly existed in the north of Scotland, and still prevails in some parts of the Highlands and western is set that country.

Captain WILSON and his ship's company, before their new vessel could be fitted for fea, remained three months in Oroolong, and occasionally visited several other of the Pelew Islands. During this period they could discover no marks of a public religion of any kind among these islanders: But they uniformly exhibited the greatest examples of humanity and mor al rectitude, which ought to be the genuine characteristics of all religions, whatever diversity of ceremonials they may happen to assume. But, though these people have no place of public worship to which they resort, both their private and political virtues are so eminently conspicuous, that it is almost impossible they should not have some idea of a supreme and a benevolent Deity. The people of Pelew, however, discovered some portion of superstition; for, when King ABBA THUILE faw a particular species of wood employed in the construction of the new ship, he expressed a wish that this wood should be removed, as he considered it as a bad omen, or unpropitions. They had likewise a notion of an evil spirit, that often counteracied human affairs. When the second mite, Mr BAR-KER, fell backward from the fide of the vessel then on the stocks, RAA Rook, who happened to be present, said, the accident was owing to the unlucky wood, which had been allowed to remain in the veffel, that the evil spirit had brought this misfortune upon Mr BARKER.

They feemed to have also a strong notion of divination. When about to undertake any affair of moment, by splitting the leaves of a plant fimilar to our bullrush, and measuring or twisting these strips upon their middle finger, they imagined they could discover whether the event would be prosperous or adverse. Captain WILSON, in conversation with LEE Boo, King ABBA THULLE's second son, after his arrival in England with the Captain, told him, that the intention of faying prayers at church was in order to make men good, and that, when they died, and were buried, they might live again above, pointing to the fky; LEE Boo, with great eagerness, replied-All fame Pelew-Bad men stay in earth-good men go into sky-become very beautiful, holding his hand in the air, and giving a fluttering motion with his fingers. This fingle circumstance indicates, in the most unequivocal terms, that these innocent people firmly believe the existence of the soul after the dissolution of the body, and have an idea of future rewards and punishments corresponding to the virtuous or vicious behaviour of individuals.

It is a fingular circumstance in the history of these people, that, if an attack is intended against an hostile island, instead of surprising the enemy, intimation is uniformly given of the time when the assault is to be made. Though illustrious patterns of humanity, they put to death every prisoner taken in war. This seeming cruelty, however, must not be hastily condemned. It is not performed with the infulting solemnities of seemingly legal trials, like the execrable conduct of the present French Convention, which will for ever remain a most detestable and humiliating proof of the barbarity of what has, till now, been esteemed one of the most civilized nations in Europe. The Pelew Islanders, on the contrary, never kill their prisoners but instantly after a victory is obtained, before the effervescence of animosity

mosity is allayed; and the poor victims are deprived of life by those who are either smarting under personal wounds, or who have lost some near relation in the combat.

It has formerly been related, that the inhabitants of the South Sea Islands are addicted to petty thefis. In the Pelew Islands instances of theft likewise occurred; but this crime, if in them it merits that appellation, was always confined to the lower class of people. When a thest, however, was committed, the King and his Chiefs considered it as a gross breach of hospitality, made strict inquiries after the thief, whom they generally discovered, and restored the articles. 'Should' some castern prince,' Captain Wilson humanely remarks, as an apology for the Peleweis, 'magnificently decorated, accidentally, as he passed along, drop a diamond from his robe, and were a poor peafant (knowing how great an acquisition it was), to see it sparkling in the dust, where is that resistance, that self-denial, which would go in and leave it untouched?—A nail, a tool, or a bit of old iron, was to them the alluring diamond.'

We must not leave these amiable people, till a short sketch of the character and feelings of Lee Boo, who was brought from Pelew to England by Captain Wilson, shall be given. This young Prince was about twenty years of age when he arrived in a New World. His natural disposition was mild, assable, sprightly, and assectionate. He discovered, on all occasions, a keen spirit of investigating the rauses or effect: which to him were at sust incomprehensible. After landing at Macao, he was conducted, along with his protectors and friends, to the house of Mr MINTYRE, and brought into a large hall, which was lighted with candles, a table being placed in the middle covered for supper, and a sideboard handsomely ornamented.

This new scene filled LEE Boo's mind with amazement. But the glass-vessels seemed principally to arrest his attention. He fixed his eye upon a large mirror, which nearly reflected his whole body. Here he stood some time lost in associationent. He then laughed, drew back, and, absorbed in wonder, returned to view this strange appearance. He looked, as young children, when placed in the same circumstances, uniformly do, behind the mirror, to see if any person As there were no quadrupeds in his country, except two dogs which had been left there by the English, the sheep, goats, and cattle he faw at Macao, were objects which struck his mind in the most forcible marner that of the dogs left at Pelew was a Newfoundlander, and his pane a Suler. LLE Bow, from this circumstance, denominated every qui i ped he saw, whether small or great, Sailor. A horse was a large fai r, &c. Observing a man pass the house on horseback, he was so astonished, that he pressed every person in company to go and see to strange a phaenomenon.

When on his voyage to England in the Mosse indisman, Caprain Elliot, he was very desirous of learning the name and the country of every ship that passed. As each inquiry was gratified, he made an additional knot on his line. These knots were to him the same as written memorandums to us. But, as the knots soon became numerous, to refresh his memory, he was obliged to read them over every day. The officers of the Morse, when they saw him studying his line, used to say he was reading his journal. He follicited Captain Wilson to be instructed in the use of letters and of reading, which was readily acquiesced in; and he was very attentive and alert in comprehending every species of information he received. On arriving at St Helena, he was much struck with the foldiers and cannon on the fortifications. When walking in the Company's garden, he

was pleased with some shady walks formed with bamboos arching overhead on lattice-work; and remarked that his own countrymen were ignorant of many advantages they might easily obtain. a philosopher and patriot, every useful and extraordinary thing that occurred in his travels, he noted down in his manner, and with the uniform view of improving his countrymen when he should return to his native foil. The Morfe arrived at Portsmouth on the 14th day of July 1784. When Lrr Boo landed, the number and magnitude of war ships in the harbour, the variety and structure of the houses, and the ramparts, so rivetted and absorbed his mind, that he found himself unable to ask any questions. When he reached London from Portsmouth, he was conveyed to Captain Wilson's house at ' Rotherhithe. He arrived in his natural glow and youthful spirits. What he had remarked in filence, was now disclosed with vivacity and intelligence. He described the incidents of his journey, and said that it was very pleafant; that he had been put into a little boule, which was run away with by borfes; that he flept, but was still procecding in his journey, and that, whilst he was moved one way, the fields, the houses, and the trees, went in the contrary direction. At the test of rest, he was conducted to his chamber, where, for the first to a, he saw a sourpost bed. Not knowing for what purpose it was a tended, he repeatedly jumped in and out, and felt and pulled ande the curtains. At length, being acquainted with its use, he laid himself down to sleep, saying, that, in England, there was a bouse for every thing. Being asked his opinion of England and of his present fituation, he instantly replied, All fine country, fine flreet, fine coach, and house upon bouse up to sky.

LEE Boo was fent to an academy, to be instructed in reading and writing. Whilst there, his manner and deportment soon gained him

the esteem of the master, and the affection of his young companions. In the hours of recess from school, he amused Captain WILSON's family with his vivacity and good humour. He mimicked fuch peculiarities as he observed in the manners and behaviour of his schoolfellows, and often faid, that, when he returned to Pelew, he would have a school of his own, and should be thought very wife when be taught the great people their letters. He always called Mr WILSON Captain; but he uniformly gave the appellation of Mother to Mrs WILSON, confidering it as a greater mark of affection and respect. He was often told, that he should say Mrs Wilson; but his constant reply was, No, no-Mother, Mother. When follicited for charity by young people of either fex, he told them, that it was shameful to beg as long as they were able to work; but the follicitations of old age he could never refift, faying to himself, LEE BOO must give poor old man-old man not able to work. Captain WILSON and the young Prince, when dining with Mr KEATE, a friend of Mr WILSON, and well known to LEE Boo, a miniature picture of Mr KLATE was exhibited; LEE Boo, taking the picture into his hand, inflantly recognized the likeness, and exclaimed, Misser KEATE-very nice, very good. Captain WILSON asked him, if he understood what it represented? He replied, Lee Boo understand well-That Misser KEATE die-This Miffer KEATE live! A volume on the utility of portrait-painting could not contain more than these few forcible words uttered by this untutored child of Nature.

Every useful or uncommon object which he saw he examined with attention, and, like a true philos pher and patriot, considered whether it might be rendered useful to his own country. When in gardens, he remarked particularly the esculent plants and fruit-trees, asked many questions concerning them, and said that, when he returned

home, he would carry feeds of fuch of them as he thought would grow to perfection in Pelew. While rapidly advancing in the knowledge of the English language, and in the art of writing, notwithstanding all the precautions of his friends, he was seized with the fmall-pox, of which he died in a few days. When very bad, he accidentally heard that Mrs WILSON was indisposed, and confined to bed, he became impatient, and exclaimed, What, mother ill? LEE Boo go up to see ber. On the Thursday before his death, when walking across the room, he looked at himself in the glass. His face being then swelled and disfigured, he shook his head, turned away as if disgusted with his appearance, and said to Mr SHARP the surgeon, that his father and mother much grieve, for they knew he was very fick. Growing worse in the evening, he seemed to think himself in danger. He took Mr Sharp by the hand, and looking stedfastly on him, said, Good friend, when you go to PELEW, tell ABBA THULLE that LEE. Boo take much drink to make small-pox go away, but he die; that the Captain and mother very kind-all English very good men; -was. much forry he could not Speak to the King the number of fine things the English had got. Though his feelings and pain must have been acute, his spirit would not allow him to complain. Mrs WILSON's chamber being adjacent to his own, he often called out to know if she was better, always adding, lest she should suffer on his account. LEE BOO do well, Mother. Soon after his interment in Rotherhithe church-yard, the India Company ordered a tomb to be erected over his grave with the following infcription:

To the Memory

Of Prince LEE Boo,

A native of the Pelew, or Palos Islands; And fon to Abba Thulle, Rupack or King Of the Island Coorogram;

Who departed this life on the 27th of December

1784,

Aged 20 years;

This Stone is inscribed,

By the Honourable United East India Company,

As a Testimony of Esteem

For the humane and kind Treatment afforded

By his FATHER to the Crew of their ship

The ANTELOPE, Captain WILSON,

Which was wrecked off that Island

In the night of the 9th of August 1783.

Stop, Reader, stop!—let NATURE claim a tear—A Prince of MINE, LEE BOO, lies buried here.

Upon the whole; no poet, either for character, situation, or incident, can have a better subject for a Tragedy, than is afforded by the History of Prince Lee Boo

Teris

This short narrative concerning the Pelew islanders is extracted from An Account of the Pelew Islands, composed from the Journals of Captain HENRY WILSON, and faint of his efficers, by the ingenious GEURGE KEATE, Ely: R. R. & S. A.

This interesting Chapter must not be concluded without some general resections. The reader has now been conducted through almost every region of the globe which has hitherto been visited by Europeans of intelligence. Though, in different climates, men vary in colour, appearance, and manners; yet the human character, however diversified, is not only recognizable, but perceived to be uniformly and distinctively the same. It is not by colour, nor even some, but by mental powers, that men rise superior to all other animated beings in this planet.

### RELIGION.

In every country, however remote from civilization, traces of RELIGION, or of Superstition, are discernible. The forms, the objects, and even the effects of religion, according to circumstances and fituations, assume different aspects; but the sentiments excited are nearly fimilar. The favage who starves and shivers in a tary frozen region, though he believes the existence of superior beings, naturally regards them as cruel and unpropitious. But, in climates of which the genial warmth multiplies and matures the productions of Nature, the ideas of the characters of gods and goddesses become more mild and benign. Men, placed in circumstances so highly favourable to happiness, feel gratitude to the Author or Authors of the numberless comforts they daily enjoy. Furnished with food in abundance, and having perpetually before their eyes the most delightful scenery, they possess an hilarity of spirit, which makes them ever gay and vivacious. Gloomy ideas, and dreadful apprehensions of futurity, are banished from their thoughts. Still, however, death,

the many physical evils of life, and fortuitous calamities produced by the elements, by earthquakes, and by occasional inundations, alarm their minds, and excite the idea of bad as well as of good These notions of good and of bad spirits, who superin-DEITIES. tended all human affairs at certain periods of fociety, were univerfal in all religions of the ancient states of which we have any historical knowledge. Greece and Rome were formerly overwhelmed with deluges of gods and goddesses, both superior and infernal. mountains, rivers, fprings, the earth, the fea, the fun, moon, and constellations, were all held sacred, or considered as so many separate deities, to whom distinct offices were assigned, and particular rites and facrifices performed at their respective shrines. Though men, by moral doctrines far more sublime, and more consonant to reason, were long ago favoured with the genuine principles of Theism, or of the existence of One great CREATOR and Governour of the universe; yet many of the ancient superstitions, absurd notions and practices, still subsist in several populous nations of Europe, Asia, &c.

fiaftical Hierarchy, was established. The simplicity, the purity, and the universal benevolence of the Christian system, could not be suddenly embraced by men who had long been habituated to the pompous impressions and exhibitions of Paganism, which had been rivetted in their minds. The early teachers of Christianity perceived this alarming obstacle to the propagation of the Gospel. To remove this obstacle, however, and to accommodate matters, these teachers, with, it must be supposed, the most zealous and upright intentions, adopted a number of heathen ideas and practices, and incorporated them with the faith of what was emphatically denominated the Catholic Church. The leaders and pastors

riches

pastors of this Church perceived the advantages they might derive from this motely jumble of Christianity and Paganism. these two inconsistent, and naturally opposite systems of religion. the minds of men were confounded and intimidated. The power of the POPE, who was regarded not only as the head of the church, but as the Vicar or representative of CHRIST upon earth, soon increafed to fuch an enormous degree, that, not the people only, but every Monarch in Europe, trembled at his anathemas, and ventured not to take any important step, even in political affairs, without the approbation of his Holiness! But the ambition of the POPE, and of his numerous tribes and orders of rapacious Priests, had no Not Kings and Princes alone, but the poorest private families, were laid under monstrous contributions, to pamper the flomachs, and minister to the lusts of these boly locusts, the most destructive and insatiable of all vermin. The arts employed to promote these diabolical, falsely called religious purposes, were various, and fometimes ingenious. The raptures of beaven, and the torments of bell, were depicted in the highest colourings which imagination could invent, or terror luggest. To procure the one, and to avoid the ter. money, goods, or victuals, were the necessary articles of exchange. Those mental tyrants, to complete their system of delusion and of depredation, fealed up every fource of information from the people. but what they chose to impart in artful and disguised forms. Factitious miracles were presented to the vulgar and believing eye. Absolutions for actual crimes, and dispensations from ceremonies and rules of the church, were fold. A purgatory, or flate of temporary punishments to foule that were either to be eternally damned or faved, according to the fums paid for the prayers of mercenary, and generally ignorant and subaltern priests, was invented. In a word, a thousand tricks and impositions were employed to augment the power and

riches of the church. The Pork became the greatest Emperor that ever reigned on earth; for his dominion was not only territorial but mental. This inhuman and fordid despotism continued for many centuries, and so clouded the minds of men with ignorance, superfittion, and timidity, that their natural powers were totally blunted. This period of Papal sovereignty was afterwards, with much propriety, denominated the dark ages; for, whenever a spark of genius burst through the universal gloom, it was instantly extinguished by the authority of the church.

The spirits of men may, for a time, be depressed and debased by religious and political bugbears; but, from the history of human fociety, we learn, that this humiliating and lamentable condition of mankind cannot always fubfift. Some bold and enlightened minds start up, assume their native rights, and, by their instruction and example, gradually loofen the chains of bigotry and oppression. This happy revolution took place, though later than might have been expected, in the western and northern parts of Europe. Amidst the threatenings of bulls, amidst proscriptions, murders, and massacres, daily inroads were made upon the rapacious despotism of the POPE and his abhorrent affistants. Men of knowledge, and of generous and ardent minds, arose. The art of printing, which enabled them to diffuse light and learning, was invented. The people saw with affonithment the ignorance and thraldom under which they had been enflaved. They spurned at spiritual tyranny, and with indignation threw off its yoke. A reformation in religious opinions and in church-government was established upon more rational principles. Since that glorious period, which does honour to human mature, the influence of this preposterous and infernal species of religion has gradually gradually declined, and, by fome late events, is now nearly annihilated; and, it is to be hoped, that nothing fimilar will ever again infult and difgrace the characters of rational beings.

## WAR.

BESIDE Religion, human nature is stamped with another univer-Hossilities were coeval with the existence of man, and sal character. still continue to deluge the earth with blood. Avarice, refentment, ambition, competition of interests, real or imaginary, are enumerated among the causes of war. But what, in the name of wonder, can be the final cause of cruelty, slaughter, and devastation? War, it has been faid, gives rise to fortitude, vigilance, and other active powers of the mind. But, are there not a thousand motives capable of exciting and calling forth these powers, without being attended by fuch horrible effects? As an apology, it has been alleged, that, were it not for the intervention of war, men would increase to such a degree that the earth could not afford them sustenance. tempt toward a folution of the difficulty is founded on ignorance or There is not a country in the habitable parts of the world which, with proper industry and culture, is not much more than sufficient to maintain the animals to which it gives birth. This final cause of war must, therefore, be relinquished till such an event, which is impossible, takes place. Nature has provided many effectual checks to a superabundant population. One half of the human race perish before they arrive at their seventh year. Those who surpass this period of existence are hourly cut off by innumerable diseases and accidents. Few, very few, reach what is called old age, or fourfcore years.

Where,

Where, then, is the necessity which forces men to exterminate one another from the face of the earth? The passions were bestowed upon us for the wifest purposes; but we too often give to these passions a direction contrary to the original intentions of Nature. But why should we be both willing and able to pervert the benevolent purposes of Nature? I will proceed no farther. The subject, though curious, is inextricable: I shall therefore dismiss it, by lamenting that state of human nature which, even in the present luminous condition of Europe, is still producing the most horrible, the most shocking examples of madness and cruelty! \*.

POSTSCRIPT.

\* Consider Europe at the moment I write-Quem Deus vult perdere prius dementat.

#### POSTSCRIPT.

COMMODORE BYRON, in his Voyage round the World \*, mentions the following circumstances concerning the Patagonians he faw while he was in the Straits of Magellan. When he came to an anchor in the Straits, he observed a number of horsemen riding backward and forward, and waving some white substance as an invitation to come on shore; upon which he ordered out a twelveoared boat, and made toward the beach. When Captain BYRON and his attendants came within a finall distance from the shore, they 'faw about five hundred people, some on foot, but the greater part on horseback. No weapons were perceived among them. Signs, however, were made, that they should retire a little from the shore, and they immediately complied. He drew up his people, with proper officers at their head, upon the shore, and gave orders that none of them should quit their stations till he should call or beckon to them. He then approached alone toward the Indians; but, as they always retired, he made figns that one of them should come near. One of their number accordingly came. 'He was,' fays Mr Byron, 'of ' a gigantic flature, and feemed to realize the tales of monsters in a ' human shape. He had the skin of some wild beast thrown over ' his shoulders, as a Scotch Highlander wears his plaid, and was painted so as to make the most hideous appearance I ever beheld. ' Round one eye was a large circle of white; a circle of black furfrounded the other; and the rest of his face was streaked with paint of different colours. I did not measure him; but, if I may judge ' of his height by the proportion of his stature to my own, it could ' not be much less than seven feet. When this frightful Colossus Vor. II. Yу came

Hawkefworth's edit. vol. 1. p. 27. et feqq.

' came up, we muttered fomewhat to each other as a falutation; ' and I then walked with him towards his companions, to whom, ' as I advanced, I made figns that they should fit down; and they ' all readily complied. There were among them many women, ' who feemed to be proportionally large; and few of the men were ' less than the chief who had come forward to meet me.—They ' were all painted and clothed nearly in the same manner. Their teeth were as white as ivory.—Except the skins, which they wore with the hair inwards, most of them were naked, a few only having upon their legs a kind of boot, with a short pointed stick fas-' tened to each heel, which ferved as a spur. Having looked round ' upon these enormous goblins with no small astonishment, and with fome difficulty made those that were still galloping up fit down ' with the rest, I took out a quantity of yellow and white beads, ' which I distributed among them, and which they received with ' very strong expressions of pleasure.' Commodore Byron distributed other trinkets among them, fuch as ribbons, &c. 'Their ' peaceable and orderly behaviour on this occasion,' our author remarks, 'certainly did them honour, especially as my presents did not extend to the whole company. Neither impatience to share the new finery, nor curiofity to gain a nearer view of me and what ' I was doing, brought any one of them from the station that I had ' allotted him.'

Captain WALLIS\* informs us, that he measured some of the Patagonians who appeared to be the tallest; that one of them was six feet seven inches high; that some of them were six feet six, and others six feet sive inches; but that the stature of most of them was from sive feet ten to six feet. Their complexion, like that of the North

<sup>·</sup> Wallis's Voyage round the World, in Hawkesworth, vol. 1. p. 374.

North American Indians, is of a dark copper colour. Their hair is Araight, and nearly as hard as the briftles of hogs. They are well made, robust, and strong; but their hands and feet are remarkably They are clothed with the skins of the guanico, an animal fmall. which, in fize, figure, and colour, refembles a deer, but there is a bunch on its back, and it has no horns. It was remarked, that some of the men had a red circle painted round the left eye, and that others had their arms and different parts of their faces painted. The eye-lids of all the young women were painted black. They talked much; but, when spoken to in Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch, they made no reply. Of their language we were equally ignorant. They had a fingular kind of miffile weapon. It was composed of two round flones, covered with leather, each about a pound weight, and were fastened to each end of a string about eight seet long. This weapon they use as a sling, one of the stones being kept in the hand, and the other is whirled round the head, till it has acquired fufficient velocity, and is then discharged at the object. So dexterous are they in the management of this double-headed shot, that, at the distance of fifteen yards, they can hit a mark not larger than a shilling. hunting the guanico or the offrich, however, they discharge these weapons in such a manner, that the cord entangles the legs of the animals, who then become an easy prey.

'After I had spent about sour hours with these people, I made signs to them that I was going on board, and that I would take some of them with me, if they were desirous to go. As soon as I had made myself understood, above an hundred eagerly officed to visit the ship; but I did not chuse to indulge more than eight of the number. They jumped into the boats with the joy and alacrity of children going to a fair, and, having no intention of mischies Yy2 against

' against us, had not the least suspicion that we intended any mischief ' against them. They sung several of their country songs while they were in the boat; and, when they came on board, did not express either the curiosity or wonder which the multiplicity of ' objects, to them equally strange and stupendous, that at once pre-' fented themselves, might be supposed to excite. I took them down into the cabin, where they looked about them with an unaccountable indifference, till one of them happened to cast his eyes ' upon a looking-glass, which afforded them infinite diversion. They ' advanced, retreated, and played a thousand tricks before it, laugh-' ing violently, and talking with great emphasis to each other.— 'They eat indifcriminately whatever was offered to them; but they ' would drink nothing but water. From the cabin I carried them \* all over the ship; but they looked at nothing with much attention, except the arimals which we had on board for live stock. They examined the hogs and sheep with some curiosity, and were ex-• ceedingly delighted with the Guinea hens and turkeys. \* not feem to defire any thing they faw, except our apparel; and one of them, an old man, asked for that. We gratified him with a pair of shoes and buckles; and to each of the others I gave some trinkets.—I showed them the great guns; but they did not appear to have any notion of their use. After I had carried them through the ship, I ordered the marines to be drawn up, and go through • part of their exercise. When the first volley was fired, they were ftruck with astonishment and terror. The old man, in particular, threw Limself down upon the deck, pointed to the muskets, and then, striking his breast with his hand, lay some time motionless, with his eyes shut. By this we supposed he intended to show us, that he was not unacquainted with fire-arms, and their fatal effect. 4 The rest, seeing our people merry, and finding themselves unhurt, foon

- foon refumed their cheerfulness and good humour, and heard the
- fecond and third volley fired without much emotion; but the old
- 4 man continued proftrate upon the deck for some time, and never
- recovered his spirits till the firing was over. When the boat put
- off with them, they all began to fing, and continued their merri-
- \* ment till they got on thore \*.'

# Nootka Bay-Prince William's Sound.

THE inhabitants are generally of a short statute, and square-made. The faces, both of men and women, are flat and round, with high cheek-bones, and flattish noses. Their teeth are white; their eyes dark, and quick-fighted. Their complexions are whiter than those of the fouthern Indians; and some of the women have roly-col used cheeks. Their hair is black, straight, and long; and, on the death of a friend, as a mark of mourning, they cut it short. The legs of the men are, in general, ill shaped, which Captain PORTLOCK attributes to their fitting perpetually in the same position in their canoes. They are as fond of what they effect personal ornaments; for they paint their faces and hands, bore their cars and notes, and flit their under-lips. In the holes made in their nofes, they hang ornaments of bone or of ivory, which are often two or three inches long. At the cars they generally wear beads, which hang down to the shoulders; and, in the slit in the lip, they place a bone or ivory instrument with holes in it, from which they suspend beads that reach as low as the chin. These holes in the lip disfigure them greatly; for fome of them are as large as their mouths. With all this fancied finery, however, in their persons they are extremely filthy, and over-

<sup>11111</sup> 

<sup>\*</sup> Captain Wallis's Voyage round the World, Havkesworth, vol. 1. p 375. &c

run with vermin. Their clothing confifts entirely of the skins of quadrupeds and of birds. In general, they are a friendly people, and remarkably affectionate to their wives and children. But your attention to their women must be carried no farther than giving them presents; for nothing irritates them so much as taking improper liberties with their females. Like all other Indians, they have a strong propensity to stealing, not only from strangers, but from one another. 'In the course of my trading with them,' fays PORTLOCK, 'I have frequently seen them steal from one another; and, on being detected, they will give up the articles they have ' stolen with a laugh, and immediately appear as unconcerned as if onothing had happened amifs. I am fure, that with them thieving ' is rather thought a grace than a difgrace; and the complete thief ' is a clever fellow, but the burgling pilferer is less admired.— During our intercourse with them, they grew less addicted to thieving, in confequence of my fometimes appearing a little angry with them, and taking some pains to convince them of the impro-' priety of their behaviour. Upon the whole, they appear a good ' kind of people; and I am convinced, in a little time, provided a fettlement of fufficient strength were established, would be an industrious fet of people, in hunting and procuring the fea-otter and other skins for fale to the settlers 1.

Both men and women esteem long hair as an ornament. When a relation dies, they cut their hair pretty short, a general mark of mourning among all these Indian tribes. Polygamy seems not to be practised here; 'as I never observed,' Portlock remarks, 'any one of them to have more than one woman, whom he seemed to 'consider as his wife, to whom they pay very strict attention, and 'treat

<sup>\*</sup> Portlock's Voyage round the Werld, from the year 1785 to 1788, p. 249. &c.

treat with a great deal of tenderness. You cannot affront them ' more than by attempting to make advances to their wives. They ' are likewise very fond of, and remarkably affectionate to, their ' children. It is not the custom with those people, as with the South Sea Islanders, for the men and women to eat separately; nor are the women confined to cat meats of a particular description; but for men, women, and children, to fit down indifcriminately at their meals, which chiefly confift of fifth of different kinds.— 4 Their perions are, in general, much about the fize of Europeans. The men have a very fierce and favage aspect, which, with their drefs, gives them much the appearance of warriors. Their weaopons of war are daggers and long pointed spears. They are very eafily irritated, and would make very little fouple to kill you when they think themselves injured. More than once I had nearby experienced that fate, from some trifling disagreements in trade. 6 But, being pretty well acquainted with their tempers, I guarded as "much against them as possible; and, on all occasions, took care to be well provided for them, in case of an attempt, by keeping my ' pistols ready-charged before me \*.'

Captain PORTLOCK likewise informs us, that their women, if kept clean, instead of being perpetually covered with filth and nastiness, would be very agreeable. In general, their features are pleasant, and their behaviour modest.

'The inestimable value of the American furs,' Captain PORT-LOCK remarks, 'will ever make it a desirable trade, and, whenever 'it is established upon a proper foundation, and a settlement made, 'will become a very valuable and lucrative branch of commerce.

<sup>\*</sup> Portlock's Voyage, p. 290. &c.

- 'It would be an casy matter for either Government or our East
- ' India Company to make a settlement of this kind; and the thin-
- ' ness of the inhabitants will make it a matter of easy practicability;
- ' and, as the Company are under the necessity of paying the Chinese
- ' in cash for their teas, I look upon it a settlement on this coast
- ' might be effected at a very inconsiderable expence, which would
- ' more than pay them for every article that is brought from China.'

CHAP.

# CHAPTER V.

Of Sleep and Dreaming.

## SECT. I.

Of the Nature and efficient Causes of Sleep and Dreaming—Dreams characteristic of the Dreamer—Instead of a Diary, a Nocturnal would more effectually unfold the real Dispositions of Men—Specimen of a Nocturnal—Utility of Dreaming—Dreams not peculiar to Man.

A MONGST the various powers and operations of the human mind, none make a more capital figure than that of the imagination. To this faculty we are principally indebted for that great variety of pleasure and amusement which make life agreeable, and reconcile us to the many pains and difficulties incident to our species. By imagination, as far as relates to the present subject, is meant, that operation of the mind which recals past ideas, or separates and combines ideas in a manner so lively, that the objects they represent seem to have a real existence, and affect us accordingly.

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This definition of imagination, though by no means complete, is fufficient for my present purpose. Every man *dreams* more or less. As far as I can learn, this subject has never been treated of in a rational or philosophical manner \*.

Sleep is the principal, though not the only source of dreams. I shall, therefore, make a few observations on that state of our existence which is so sertile in producing the phenomenon under confideration.

Man, while awake, is a very passive animal. Independently of his own inclination, his eyes and ears are constantly receiving impressions from a multiplicity of external objects. He is likewise stimulated by his other senses and bodily powers. His stomach must be alternately filled and emptied. The spring of his nerves and muscles necessarily impels him to motion. The pain of inactivity itself is sufficient to spur him on to action. But, no organ of the body, no faculty of the mind, can admit of long-continued action, without lassitude or a disposition to rest.

During fleep, our organs are no longer subject to receive impressions passively from external objects; the elasticity of the nerves and muscles is greatly relaxed; but the imagination, instead of being blunted, is whetted, and rendered more active. To give free scope to the imagination, it seems necessary that all communication with external objects should be entirely cut off. Having cursorily mentioned the principal circumstances and situations favourable to sleep and dreaming, we shall next inquire whether any analogous circum-

• The substance of this chapter was read before the Newtonian Society of Edinburghia the year 1764.

flances.

stances and situations exist when our senses and other powers are awake.

The great variety of characters, tempers, and peculiar biasses exhibited in human nature, renders it difficult to select any general turn of mind as a proper example for illustrating this subject. These differences, however, are not confined to men when awake. Dreams, on the contrary, are as characteristic of the genius or dispositions of any individual as his waking thoughts. A man whose ordinary train of thinking is quick and lively, will never find the quickness or vivacity of his perceptions retarded or blunted by fleep. For clucidating this point, I shall make choice of a person who is naturally inclined to indulge reveries. Let us fee how a person of this description is affected by the common occurrences of life. We shall first suppose him walking along the streets of a populous city. Numbers of objects present themselves on every hand, and solicit his attention. Among others, the rapid motion and noise of a coach oblige him to fly fuddenly to a fide, in order to cscape from danger. His fortunate escape at first gives him pleasure. But, upon reflection, he cannot refrain from representing to himself, by means of the imagination, how miferably he should have been bruifed, had he been less swift in his movements. This thought continues to torment him, till it is banished by some other idea which claims ? fuperior attention. Let us next view him in a folitary walk. Here, if his mind be perfectly calm, he indulges his fancy with some fictitious scene, in which, by a natural propensity, himself is always the hero. Whether this scene be of a gay or distressful kind; whether the fituation of his imaginary affairs demands courage, compassion, generofity, or gratitude, he not only feels the sentiments which these virtues inspire, but his actions uniformly correspond with his sentiments. Visionary scenes of this kind are not always of a transitory nature. When the situation of the place, and the present disposition of the mind, are favourable, a person often indulges that disposition till he performs a complete drama.

We shall now suppose our man of sensibility to be placed on the top of a precipice, or on the brink of a deep pit. In these situations, his mind is swifter than his eyes; for he is generally down himself before he gets a fight of the bottom. Some people are so much under the influence of imagination, that they have been observed to approach the mouth of a pit with cautious steps, and, as soon as they have looked down a few yards, sly back with horror, till they get far beyond the possibility of danger. Nay, so powerful is the imagination, and so prone to verify its ideas, that, were it counterbalanced by no other principle, a man would throw himself headlong from a precipice, merely to gratify his present feelings. Farther, when a person shuts his eyes, or rather when he is in an apartment without light; if, at the same time, he be alone, and his mind not ruffled or occupied by any painful ideas, then Fancy lays fast hold of him, and turns his attention to such objects as she pleases to represent.

Not to multiply particular fituations which are favourable to the operations of imagination, I shall only add another instance on account of its fingularity.

Fevers, and several other distempers, by some unaccountable influence of the body upon the mind, almost totally deprive us of our reasoning powers, and pervert our senses to such a degree, that we either mistake common objects, or they make little or no impression upon us. But, though these distempers deprive us of judicious reslection, flection, and of regular impressions from the senses; yet the train of our perceptions, which is the food of the imagination, instead of being interrupted, proceeds with the greater rapidity. I shall not attempt to assign reasons why particular affections of the body impair or destroy the act of reasoning or reslecting: I shall only remark, that the ordinary train of our perceptions is, in some measure, a mere involuntary progression of ideas. But reasoning is a very complex operation, and cannot be performed without the united efforts of almost the whole powers the mind. Considering, then, the intimate connection between our mental and corporeal faculties, is it not extremely natural, that indispositions or derangements of the body should more readily deprive us of a power whose operations are complex and difficult, than of that faculty the exertions of which are not only involuntary, but often act in direct opposition both to reason and inclination.

From the above analysis, the following remarks are naturally suggested: 1/1, That the imagination, when not restrained by judgment, or checked by impressions from external objects, uniformly endeavours to complete any scene or set of ideas which happens to arise either from the ordinary train of perceptions, or from any striking impression received by the senses; and, 2d, That circumstances or situations which tend to weaken our reasoning or restective powers, or to prevent the impressions of external objects, give additional force and activity to the imagination.

These observations shall now be applied to dreaming. When a person is just about to fall asseep, he feels a struggle between reason and imagination. The former grows gradually weaker and weaker, while the vigour and activity of the latter continually increase till it completely

completely gains the ascendant. Every man must have repeatedly felt this struggle: But we are particularly conscious of it when reafon gets the better of imagination. All the time when a person is between fleeping and waking, as it is termed, he is generally in eager pursuit after some airy phantom; but, if reason chances to prevail, he makes a fudden start, resumes the power over his half dormant faculties, and wonders at his credulity in believing the actual existence of such fleeting fancies. Sleep, however, at last gains a complete victory; or, in other words, our reasoning powers dentirely to those of the imagination. It was hinted above, that certain circumstances are peculiarly fuited to the exercise of the imagination; such as, alarming or dangerous fituations, folitude, tranquillity of mind. quiescence of judgment, emancipation from the impressions of external objects, darkness, &c. Now, is it possible to conceive a more complete coincidence of all these circumstances than takes place during fleep? Shut up from every external impression, involved in the blackest darkness, in a word, the imagination, freed from every check, roams at large, and triumphs without controul. Every idea that occurs, makes such a lively impression, that it produces a thorough conviction of the existence and actual presence of the object. This belief in the real existence of imaginary objects constitutes the sole difference between the ideas of imagination when asleep, and the same species of ideas which occasionally solicit attention in our waking hours. It only, of course, remains to inquire into the causes which produce this conviction or belief. We have already taken notice of some affections of the body which, in a great measure, have the power of realizing our imaginary ideas. Fevers, madness, and some other distempers, uniformly suspend the power of reasoning, which, as daily experience too frequently shows, makes the unhappy person lose the faculty of distinguishing between the ideas of imagination

gination and the impressions received from real objects. Without going deeper, therefore, it is perhaps sufficient to say, that sleep is one of those particular dispositions of body which invariably produces this strange effect.

The theory of dreaming is now, I imagine, pretty obvious. following observations, however, will render it still more intelligible. In the feveral fituations in which I have supposed our man of tensibility to be placed, and, in general, whenever the imagination fixes upon any particular scene or event, were it not for the intervention of reflection, or the impressions of external objects, we should uniformly purfue these ideas through all their relations as well when we are awake as when afleep: Nay more; we should be as thoroughly convinced of the real existence of the objects, and as senfibly affected with the various incidents, as if we were in the most profound fleep. For example: A man looks down with horror from the top of a high tower. Even the idea of absolute safety is not sufficient to make him easy: But, in order to obtain relief, he finds himself impelled to descend as quickly as possible. Now, in such circumstances, we are indebted to reason for the idea of security; and the loco-motive faculty enables us to descend. when the same or similar situations occur to the imagination during sleep, the acuteness of a person's feelings is greatly augmented. increase of feeling, however, is not the only difference. or imbecillity of his reason excludes the idea of security; and the present inactive condition of his body creates a dreadful consciousness of utter inability to move in any other direction than that of tumbling headlong down.

### SECT. II.

# Of the final Causes of Dreaming.

HAT music, sprightly conversation, and, in general, every exercise that falls under the denomination of amusement, recreates the mind more effectually than mere inactivity, is a fact which admits of no controversy. Sleep, in one fense, is nothing more than a total suspension from action. But this inactivity is not, of itself, sufficient for repairing that lassitude of organs and waste of spirits, which are the never failing offspring of vigilance and exer-The all-wife Author of our existence foresaw this defect, and hath accordingly provided the proper remedy. When afleep, the body, it is true, is inactive; but the imagination is vigorous: And, I may, from experience, venture to affirm, that the imagination uniformly conducts us to scenes that are of a gay, serce, and amusing nature, unless the mind is sourced by causes which excite disagreeable ideas, unless the body is struggling with disease or the seeds of disease, unless our characters and dispositions are tincured with malice, or haunted with remorfe. The gay and entertaining fcenes prefented by the imagination during fleep are much better adapted for recreating and invigorating our faculties than more infenfibility.

But this final cause of dreaming, however obvious, may appear liable to an objection. If this reasoning be just, how does it happen, it may be said, that disagreeable dreams are so frequent? This objection, however, instead of injuring the former, suggests another excellent final cause.

So delicate is the conflictation of man, that, befide the many dangerous differences to which he is constantly exposed, there is a great variety of little uncafineffes, which, though not fo alarming as to call forth the fympathy of friends, are nevertheless capable of impairing the happiness, and fretting the lives of individuals. There are some diforders which almost clude our feelings, but, if not timely remedied, would probably cut off our existence in a few moments. ing fleep that we are most liable to these secret disorders. fluil immediately be shown, one effects these disorders might produce are amply provided against by Nature. The chief causes of disagreeable dreams may be reduced to two: 1. When a perfon is actually labouring under a diffemper, or happens to lie in a posture which diffurbs some of the animal functions. 2. When any painful idea occurs in the ordinary train of perceptions. The first cause arises from morbid derangements in the corporeal organs, which, by a benevolent and falutary institution of Nature, communicate painful and horrid ideas to the mind. The only difference between these alarming ideas, and those which we feel in similar circumstances while awake, is this: In the former, although our ideas excite the fame fpecies of feelings; yet thefe feelings are generally referred to fome wrong cause. This common misapprehension of the particular part really effected is, however, productive of no bad confequences: A furious engagement with the devil, an interview with the ghost of a departed friend; or, in general, some horrible scene generally comes

to our aid, and gives such a brisk shock to the constitution as seldom fails, in cases, at least, where a longer continuance in sleep would be hurtful, to rouse us into reason and safety. Being thus suddenly awaked, the cause of our disagreeable dream, whether it derives its origin from a hurtful position of the body, or any irregularity in the motions of the sluids, is now not only clearly perceived, but instantaneously removed. Persons, therefore, who are so unfortunate as frequently to stand in need of disagreeable dreams, instead of complaining of the pain and horror they occasion, ought to regard them as kindly messengers sent to relieve them from a disease, of which they would be totally ignorant, but which, without their friendly interposition, would probably have put a final period to his existence.

The fecond cause of disagrecable dreams is derived from the particular temper or disposition of the dreamer's mind previous to fleep, or to painful ideas accidentally occurring in the ordinary train of perceptions. Here it is worthy of remark, that, during fleep, our ideas of pleasure and pain are greatly augmented. Pain, in particular, commonly rifes to fuch an excruciating degree, that it roufes us from fleep entirely. Every man, at fome time or other, has had an imaginary fall from a great height. But I doubt much if any perfon ever arrived at the bottom. He feels himself moving in the air; he even reflects on the terrible effects which must result from this But, before that horrid catastrophe happens, he never fails to fall. awake. It is impossible to determine what the consequences would be, were the imagination allowed to complete ideas of this destructive The effects they produce, even without being completed, are very violent. Alarmed with terror, the motions of the fluids are increased to a hurtful degree; cold sweats are produced; the ears tingle; and great confusion is perceived in the brain. Now, if the

imagination were allowed to complete such ideas, these noxious effects would at least be greatly augmented; their number too would be increased; and it is difficult to determine, whether a person who salls from a precipice in imagination would not undergo the same sate as he who does so in reality. Men who have the missortune to be subject to disagreeable dreams, learn by experience to know that they are dreaming. When terrified with impending danger, and even death, I have often said to myself, 'Don't be so much alarm- ed: You have been in the same or in similar situations, which were uniformly discovered to be dreams.' This species of dormitory reasoning greatly alleviates the pain, and not unfrequently gives an opposite direction to the imagination.

Another final cause must not be omitted. It would be improper, however, to confine this cause solely to such dreams as are occasioned by fleep; because it is fully as conspicuous, and perhaps more useful, in those exertions of imagination, which are incidentally indulged when our fenses are in a state of vigilance and activity. It has been remarked above, that the imagination, in fituations favourable to its operations, uniformly leads us into fcenes of action which give rife to the exercise of the respectable and benevolent virtues. We have all, at one time or another, supposed ourselves possessed of a great for-When indulging this speculation, we never fail to imagine, that we would behave with the utmost condescension to our inferiors: that we would cherish and reward the virtuous, patronise the learned, support the indigent; and, in a word, that we would exercise the most unbounded generosity and beneficence. Upon a cursory view of this subject, some people are apt to think, that a propensity to indulge reveries of this nature has its foundation in vanity, and are inclined, from that consideration, to curb and restrain it as vain and presumptuous. prefumptuous, or, at best, as a frivolous mode of employing our thoughts. It merits attention, however, that nature never gives an original propensity to the mind, but with a view to produce some beneficial purpose. But it will appear, from the following considerations, that the propensity to indulge fancied situations, and the particular conduct prompted by these situations, is wisely calculated to strengthen and promote the virtue of individuals.

Although we should never actually be possessed of the supposed great fortune; although these imaginary scenes should never happen; yet, so various are the incidents and situations which may fall out in the course of any man's life, that situations and incidents, if not precisely the same with those he may have figured in his imagination, at least resembling them in their principal circumstances, will undoubtedly occur. Now, when any circumstances in life demands the exertions of benevolence, compassion, courage, fortitude, or refignation, will not we be better prepared to act with dignity and propriety, than if these circumstances had occurred before we had any previous intimation from our feelings how our conduct ought to be directed on such interesting occasions? Hence the indulgence of aereal, though possible scenes of action, has an evident tendency to ftrengthen our virtue, to enlarge our experience, to improve the vivacity of our pleafurable feelings. Of course, instead of checking, it is our duty to encourage the reveries of fancy, provided her calls are not so frequent as to interrupt pursuits of a more important nature.

### SECT. III.

# Every Person may derive Advantage from Dreams.

TO know one's felt is the most important of all knowledge, and, at the fame time, the most disficult to attain. Mankind are so artful in difguifing the real motives of their actions, fo ingenious in deceiving themselves, so averse to the discovery of vice or imperiection in their fentiments or behaviour, fo keenly engaged in the occupations of life, and fo prone to contrast themselves with the most profligate of the specics, that they generally rest satisfied with their condition, and seldom inquire with any degree of impartiality into the real character or temperature of their minds. A more timple method of acquiring a knowledge of ourselves must be acceptable to every person who thinks himself interested in the inquiry. This end, I presume, may be accomplished by a moderate attention to our dreams. Dreaming must here be understood in the most common acceptation of the word; for an inquiry into the natural tendency of imagination while awake, would engage us in a struggle with all the obstructions to selfknowledge formerly suggested. Let us, then, attend to those particular vices which we are most inclined to indulge in sleep. That vice which is most frequently and most luxuriously indulged in our dreams, may fafely be effected our predominant passion. Though motives

motives of interest, decency, and the opinions of our friends, may have restrained us from actual gratification, and created a delusive belief that we are no longer subject to its sollicitations; yet, if the imaginary gratification constitutes an agreeable dream; if it is then indulged without check or remorfe, we may freely conclude, that we still remain its humble votaries, and that those motives which deter from actual indulgence are not the genuine motives which virtue inspires.

This method of discovering our real characters, it may be said, is more uncertain, and attended with greater difficulty than deliberate felf-examination. But, we should reflect, that, during sleep, the mind is more ingenuous, less inclined to palliate its real motives, less influenced by public opinion, and, in general, more open and candid, than when the fenfes are awake. It is true, that, by the return of external objects, business, and intercourse with the world, dreams are apt to escape from the memory, and that this circumstance, in some measure, deprives us of the advantages which might otherwise result from them. This is, indeed, the only difficulty we have to encounter; but it is not unfurmountable. It may be removed by a few minutes labour every morning. Let any person who wishes to know his real character, as foon as he gets up, revolve, as accurately as he can, those thoughts which made the deepest impression upon him while he was afleep, what scenes gave him pleasure or pain, what actions he approved or disapproved, and let him instantly write them in a book kept for the purpose. In opposition to a Diary, this book may be entitled A Noëlus nal. The nocturnalist, however, must be careful to give a candid account of his fleeping transactions, marking with accuracy the various feelings which the particular incidents excited. At first, perhaps, his business will be soon e. it ed.

the mere habit of writing, so ductile is the human mind, will soon make him both more attentive to his dreams, and increase his faculty of remembering them.

For the fake of illustration, and to show that this scheme is not impracticable, I shall subjoin, as a specimen, the capital scenes of a few nights dreams which I recorded thirty years ago.

### Specimen of a NOCTURNAL.

THE first night I found myself in a most tremendous situation. Alarmed by a sudden shock attended with a hollow subterraneous noise, I ran out to the streets of this populous city, in order to discover the cause. A dreadful prospect presented itself to view. The ground began to undulate like the waves of the sea; sheets of sire dazzled the eye; pales of thunder stunned the ears; the buildings split in a thousand directions; and, had not the native horrors of the scene soon restored me to reason, I should infallibly have been crushed to atoms.

The fecond night's entertainment, though not fo alarming, was much more extravagant and ludicrous. I was for fome time diverted with a furious dispute between Dr Monro and Dr Whytt concerning the uses of the *Deltoid Muscle!* The combatants at length became so hot, that they were just proceeding to give the dispute an effectual termination by the intervention of the cudgel, when I awoke; and behold it was a dream!

The third night, I found myself in the midst of a brilliant company Vol. II. 3 B of

of ladies and gentlemen. Chearfulness and innocence seemed to beam from every countenance. I was treated with the utmost affability and complaifance. My heart began to exult with the most pleafant emotions. The music struck up; each took his fair partner by the hand, and a sprightly dance immediately commenced. My spirits were much more elevated than I ever had experienced on any former occasion. I moved through the various evolutions of the dance with as much ease and alacrity as if my body had been a mere vehicle of air. But, in the midst of this enchanting scene, while setting to a young lady, my breeches fell plump to my heels! I quickly attempted to lay hold of them; but in vain. The very power of reaching forth my hand was abstracted from me. I remained fixed as a statue, and the dance was interrupted. The blushes of the company discovered how sensibly they selt my missortune; but none had the courage to affift me. In short, the feelings peculiar to such a whimfical fituation became at last so exquisitely painful, that I should infallibly have fainted away, had not fleep inflantly departed, and reftored me to reason and joy.

The fourth night's employment was still more serious and awful. I saw a groupe of winged angels descending from the sky. One of them, who seemed to lead and command the rest, had a large golden trumpet in his hand. When near the surface of the earth, he sounded the instrument, the noise of which made all Nature shrink. He announced the arrival of the last day, that day when the quick and the dead are to be judged, and receive everlasting rewards or torments, according to the merit or demerit of the deeds done by individual mortals. Astonishment and anxiety arrested all the living. They stood motionless, and looked aghast. A new scene instantly appeared. I saw the dead rising in myriads all around me. I particularly

cularly remarked, that, in the Grey-friars church-yard, bundreds of both fexes pushed one another out of the same graves! The day was so cold and frosty, that the terrified expectants of doom were all shivering. Another phaenomenon solicited my attention. I saw immense numbers of leaden pipes filled with cold water. Another trumpet was sounded, and the angel proclaimed, that, instead of being roasted in the flames of hell, the damned were to have their limbs cternally immersed in these water pipes. Terrified, and half-petrified with this frigifying idea, I got the start, and awoke. Upon examination, I found, that, by some accident, my limbs had been uncovered, and were excessively cold. This simple incident produced the whole scenery I have represented.

But here I must stop, lest I should discover more of my own character than would be consistent with prudence.

3 B 2

SECT.

#### SECT. IV.

## Of Ominous Dreams.

THE frequent accounts of ominous dreams we meet with in history, joined to the many stories which are daily related, sufficiently justify a few remarks upon the question, Whether supernatural suggestions are to be expected in dreams?

To deny the possibility of supernatural suggestions either when assespending or awake, would be both presumptuous and absurd. On the contrary, I can conceive a superior being so thoroughly acquainted with the human frame, so perfectly skilled in the connection and mutual dependence which subsist between our intellect and our sensitive organs, as to be able, by titillating, in various modes and directions, particular combinations of nerves, or particular branches of any single nerve, to excite in the mind what ideas he may think proper. I can likewise conceive the possibility of suggesting any particular idea or species of ideas, by affecting the nerves in the same manner as these ideas affect them when excited by any other cause.

The notion of dreams, however, being frequently fuggested by superior beings, is founded partly in ignorance, and partly on a fond regard regard which men are apt to indulge for every thing that relates to themselves. If it accidentally occurs to a man's mind, which is by no means an uncommon case, that a friend is sick, dead, or in circumstances of great distress; to satisfy himself, he inquires into the situation of this person. Instead of sinding him in the miserable circumstances he had fancied, he perhaps sees him not only in health, but making merry with his companions. This delusive and accidental impression is discovered to be false in every circumstance; and, of course, it is for ever concealed. But, supposing his friend to have actually been in the situation which he had imagined; then the case is entirely reversed. He is no longer assamed of his fond conception. On the contrary, he doubts not that it proceeded from a supernatural cause; and hence, to gratify his vanity, he tells it on all occasions, in order to infinuate his uncommon connection with heavenly powers.

Allowing that events and fituations which mankind represent to themselves, by means of the imagination, do sometimes actually happen; yet this circumstance is not wonderful. Considering the activity and wanderings of the imagination, it is surprising that so few examples of this kind occur. We never hear of the numberless instances where there is no coincidence between the events and the previous imagination. But, whenever they chance, even in slight relations, to coincide, which is extremely seldom, they are noised abroad with eager industry.

These observations apply to dreaming with accumulated force. In sleep, the imagination is much more active, and the time spent in fanciful representations is vastly greater than when we are awake. A greater variety of incidents, of course, occur in dreaming. Is it not, then,

then, extremely strange, considering the natural disposition of the mind to guess at suture events, that a man should continue to dream, both day and night, for fifty or sixty years together, without, perhaps, being able to recollect a single instance of his foreseeing any particular event?

Upon the whole, were the examples of ominous dreams more frequent, and better authenticated than they generally are, they might with great propriety be ascribed to causes merely fortuitous, and totally independent of any supernatural impulse or suggestion.

SECT.

#### SECT. V.

Of the Second Sight, or a Prophetic Power.

HE observations made in the two foregoing sections may, with much propriety, be applied to what is called the Second Sight. The persons said to be possessed of this faculty of seeing actual reprefentations, or pictures of future events, are, in Scotland, chiefly confined to the Highlands and western islands. Like many other prophets, both ancient and modern, our professors of Second Sight are illiterate, vulgar, and visionary beings. Their pretensions, however, are not mercenary. They neither ask nor receive money for their fupposed predictions. In this, as well as in all other countries, while the people remain in a state little removed from absolute barbarism, superstition spontaneously arises from a thousand causes; poverty, idlenels, high and rugged mountains, bleak heaths, a sterile soil, naturally excite gloomy and frightful ideas in uninformed minds. Our Highland feers are exactly in this melancholy situation. Their predictions, or rather reveries, accordingly, are all expressive of deaths, and other human calamities.

About thirty years ago, a most absurd publication appeared at Edinburgh under the title of A Treatise on Second Sight, in which more Vol. II.

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than a hundred instances are related, almost the whole of them portending difastrous events. Were it not with a view to banish, as far as I can, a notion fo difgraceful to our country, and fo humiliating to human nature, I should not have deigned to fully my book with the following specimen: 'DONALD MACKINNON, an honest te-' nant in Halistra in Waternish, relates, that, in harvest 1760, in ' the dusk of the evening, as he was binding and putting together ' corn, on a sudden he saw a neighbour of his foremost, and fol-' lowed by a pretty throng gathering of people, carrying a corpfe ' directly through a standing corn-field of his own, which he was onot well-pleated at; however, through fear that it might be a vision, he did not chuse to challenge his neighbour. He told what he had ' feen to his wife and family when he came home, faying, If it was ' a vision, it would undoubtedly be verified ere long; and, to fatisfy ' his mind concerning what he had feen, went early next morning to view the standing corn, to see if any of it was trode down, but ' not one stalk. About the same time next year, he saw his neighbour, the company and corpfe, in reality, coming through the fame field from Grishin mish, to bury it at the church-yard of Trumpan \*."

This simple example comprehends the spirit and tendency of the whole book; for every story it contains is equally ridiculous.

But here we must pause: The learned and ingenious Dr Samuel Johnson, who, some years ago, honoured Scotland, and even its Hebrides, with a visit, from similar stories, was credulous enough to believe in the second sight. The Doctor's definition of this ideal faculty is curious. 'The second sight,' says he, 'is an impression made either by the mind upon the eye, or by the eye upon the mind,

' by which things distant or future are perceived, and seen as if they were present \*.' To comprehend this definition would require a man to be possessed of both the first and second sights!

To do justice to the Doctor, however, though he execrates, with a superstitious meanness, that form of church-government called Presbyterianism, and prefers to it even Papal despotism; yet, upon this subject, he involuntarily and awkwardly makes a very great and a very just encomium on the good sense and general character of our Highland clergymen. 'The islanders,' he remarks, ' of all degrees, 'whether of rank or understanding, admit of it (i. e. the second sight) except the ministers, who universally deny it, and are sufficient pected to deny it, in consequence of a system, against conviction. One of them honestly told me, that he came to Sky with a resolution not to believe it!

It is not incurious to remark, that men, even possessed of distinguished parts, when urging any favourite topic, frequently contradict themselves, and, from absolute nonsense, inadvertently recur to sense. Of this, the following lines of Dr Johnson afford a striking example: 'Strong reasons,' says the Doctor, 'for incredulity will readily occur. This faculty of seeing things out of sight is local, 'and commonly useless. It is a breach of the common order of things, without any visible reason or perceptible benefit. It is 'ascribed only to a people very little enlightened; and among them, 'for the most part, to the mean and the ignorant \frac{1}{2}.' The celebrated author of these just observations was a sirm believer in the existence of second sight! 'The foresight of the seers,' says Dr Johnson, 3 C 2

<sup>•</sup> Johnson's Journey to the Western Islands of Scotland, p. 152. Edin. edit. 1792. † Ibid. p. 154. ‡ Id. ibid.

is not always prescience: They are impressed with images, of which the event only shows the meaning

Dr Johnson admits what is well known to all our Highlanders, that the persons said to posses this faculty are, in general, ignorant, dozing, indolent creatures, who never work, speak seldom, and spend whole days gaping and gazing straight forward, without altering their position, or taking the smallest notice of what passes around them. The whole employment of their minds, it should appear, is occupied with visionary phantoms: It is not surprising, therefore, that they should, at one time or other, stumble upon scenes or events, to which something similar afterward happens.

In the year 1779, the Reverend Mr Donald M'Nicol published Remarks on Dr Johnson's Journey to the Hebrides, a book written with much spirit, good sense, and acuteness of reasoning. Being born and bred in the Highlands, Mr M'Nicol must be allowed to have had better opportunities of knowing the dispositions, manners, and faith of his own countrymen, than a prejudiced Englishman, who was so short-sighted, that he could not see a tree in Scotland, though he passed many extensive woods and groves, both natural and planted. To show the light in which Mr M'Nicol viewed the narrative of the Doctor's Journey, I shall transcribe a few lines on the subject of second sight.

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<sup>&#</sup>x27;In page 248. our traveller,' Mr M'NICOL remarks, 'comes to

<sup>&#</sup>x27; examine the question of the fecond fight; and it is truly furprifing

<sup>&#</sup>x27; to fee with what a credulous weakness he endeavours to defend so

<sup>&#</sup>x27; visionary an opinion. Other things, which are believed by every

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<sup>\*</sup> Johnson's Journey, &c. p. 156.

- e man in the country, which are probable in themselves, and are
- ' supported by all the evidence that a reasonable man could expect,
- the Doctor often rejects; but this point, absurd in itself, uncoun-
- ' tenanced by any decent authority, and to which only a few of the
- " most ignorant vulgar give the least faith, he maintains with a
- " zeal which shews him to be ashamed of nothing but thinking like
- ' other men \*.'

Even on the supposition that such a faculty as fecond fight existed, the question may be asked, Cui bono? For what end should men be endowed with a power, which can only serve to torment them with unnecessary alarms? Though we were enabled to see impending calamities, but deprived, as we are, of the capacity of preventing them, instead of a happy attainment, it would render us perpetually miserable. The evils of human life are already sufficiently numerous; and Nature, for wise purposes, has hid suturity from our eyes.

Like many other superstitions, that of fecond fight must vanish in proportion as knowledge and civilization advance; and it is a pleasure to learn, that it is now nearly extinguished even in the Western Islands of Scotland.

SECT.

<sup>\*</sup> M.Nicol's Pemarks on Dr Samuel Johnson's Journey to the Hebrides, p. 191.

#### SECT. VI.

Of Somnambulists—History of Two who fell under the Author's Obfervation.

NOTHER remarkable phenomenon, which is sometimes exhibited in fleep, merits attention.—Some people, during fleep, retain the faculties of feeing, hearing, speaking, walking, laughing, crying, and, in general, doing almost every thing they are accustomed to perform when they are awake. Near thirty years ago, I had an opportunity of examining a striking example of fomnambulism. Within a mile of Edinburgh, I happened to relide some time in a farmer's house. Mr BAIRD, my landlord, had a servant maid, whose name was SARAH. I was not long there, when I learned from the family, that SARAH, particularly after receiving an affront, or being angered, was accustomed to rife in her sleep, to go out, and to walk about the fields. My curiofity was excited; and I begged to be informed the first time that SARAH should rise in her fleep. A few nights afterward, one of Mr BAIRD's fons awaked me, and told me that SARAH had got out of bed. I immediately hastened to the apartment where she slept. When I arrived, Mr and Mrs BAIRD, one of their fons, and a fervant maid, SARAH's companion, were present. SARAH was in the midst of them. was flightly and carelessly clothed. Her neighbour fervant perfuaded

her to fit down. I took my feat by her. We began immediately to converse. She answered any questions that were put to her pretty diffinctly; but she always mistook the person who spoke for some other, which gave us an opportunity of affuming any character within the circle of her acquaintance. I knew that one of the farmer's fervants, whose name was JOHN PORTEOUS, was a lover of her's; and, therefore, I addressed her in the style which I supposed John might fometimes have done. From that moment she began to scold me, upbraided me with feveral breaches of promife to marry her, and defired me, in the most peremptory manner, never again to speak to her on that topic. The conversation was accordingly changed. talked of her miftress, who was in the room, because I knew that they had occasional quarrels. Till now, I suspected that the whole was a trick, but for what purpose I could not discover. SARAH, however, abused Mrs Baird in the harshest terms. She said, but the other day, the had been accused of stealing and drinking some bottles of ale; that her misures was suspicious, cruel, and narrow-minded. As the mistress of the house was present, when these and other opprobrious terms were used, I began to doubt my preconceived notion of imposture; and, therefore, changed the object of my experiments and inquiries. I examined her countenance, and found, that her eyes, though open, wild, and staring, were not absolutely fixed. took a pin and repeatedly pricked her arm; but not a muscle moved, not a symptom of pain was discoverable. At last, she became impatient to get out, and made several attempts to escape by the door; But that was prevented by the domestics. Perceiving her inability to force the door, she made a sudden spring at the window, and endeavoured to throw herself over, which would have been fatal to her. To remove every suspicion of imposture, I desired the people, with proper precautions to prevent harm, to try if the would really precipitate herself from the window. A seemingly free access was left for her escape, which she perceived, and instantly darted with such force and agility, that more than one half of her body was projected before her friends were aware. They, however, laid hold of her, and prevented the dreadful catastrophe. She was again prevailed upon, though with much reluctance, to fit down. She foon refumed her former calmness, and ficely answered such questions as were put to This scene continued for more than an hour. I was perfectly convinced, notwithstanding my original suspicions, that the woman was actuated by strong and natural impulses, and not by any design to deceive. I asked if any of the attendants knew how to awaken A female fervant replied, that she did. She immediately, to my aftonishment, laid hold of SARAH's wrest, forcibly squeezed and rubbed the projecting bones, calling out, at the fame time, SARAH, SAPAH! By this operation SARAH awoke. She stared with amazement, looked around, and asked, how so many people came to be in her apartment at fo unseasonable an hour? After she was completely awake, I asked her, what was the cause of her restless and violent agitation? She replied, that she had been dreaming that she was purfued by a furious bull, who was every moment on the point of goring her.

A pretty similar example afterwards occurred. Mr Thomas Parkinson, then a student of medicine in the university of Edinburgh, was accustomed to talk and to answer questions in his sleep. This fact was known to his companions. To amuse ourselves, two of us went gently into his chamber while he was asleep. We knew that he was in love with a young lady in Yorkshire, the place of his nativity. We whispered her name repeatedly in his ear. He soon began to tos about his hands, and to speak incoherently. He gra-Vol. II.

dually became more calm and recollected. His imagination took the direction we intended. He thought he was stationed under the lady's window, and repeatedly upbraided her for not appearing and fpeaking to him as she had so often done on former occasions. At last, he became impatient, started up, laid hold of books, shoes, and every thing he could eafily grasp. Thinking his mistress was afleen. he threw these articles against the opposite wall of his chamber. By what he faid, we learnt, that his imaginary scene lay in a street, and that he was darting the books and shoes at the lady's window, in order to awake her. She, however, did not appear; and, after tiring himself with frequent exertions, he went quietly into bed without wakening. His eyes were nearly shut; and, although he freely converfed with us, did not feem to perceive that any person was present Next day, we told him what had happened; but he with him. faid, that he had only a faint recollection of dreaming about his mistress.

In the French Encyclopedic, under the word Noctambule, we have an account of a student of divinity in the university of Bourdeaux, who was accustomed to rise in his sleep, and to read and write without the use of his eyes. The fact is attested by the Archbishop of Bourdeaux, who thought it a phaenomenon worthy of his attention. Lest he should have been deceived by the young man, he interposed an obstacle between his eyes and the paper on which he was writing, or reading. But he read and wrote in the same manner, and with equal accuracy, as if no such obstacle had existed \*.

A recent and authentic occount of a sleep-walker has been publish-

<sup>\*</sup> This fact is likewise related by the learned and ingenious Lord Monsoppo, in his Antient Metaphysics, vol. 1. p. 159.

ed on the continent, and now translated into English under the title of A true and surprising Account of a Natural Sleep-Walker, read before the Philosophical Society of Lausanne in Switzerland, on the 6th of This fleep-walker's name is DEVAUD. February 1788. time the following experiments and observations were made upon him under the direction of the fociety, he was between thirteen and fourteen years of age. His conflitution was weakly, and his nerves extremely irritable. The fociety appointed three of its members, Dr LEVADE and Meffrs REYNIER and VAN BERCHEM, to make and report their observations on the sleeping exertions and behaviour of These gentlemen faithfully executed the injuncthis young man. tions they had received, and reported the results of the experiments they had made, and whatever authentic relations they procured from others.

His ordinary fleep, which is feldom tranquil, when about to be feized with a fit of Somnambulifm, is uncommonly disturbed. While in this state, he is affected with involuntary motions; his heart palpitates; his tongue faulters; and he alternately rises up and liedown. On one of these occasions, the gentlemen remarked, that he soon articulated more distinctly, rose suddenly, and acted agreeably to the motives of the dream which then occupied his imagination. When too quickly roused by a violent noise, or other causes, he is sometimes seized with convulsions. After a paroxysim, he complains of being satigued, and, on some occasions, is affected with sickness and vomiting. At soft, when he awoke, and found himself dressed, and in the midst of several persons, his surprise was great. But, after the habit of somnambulism had continued for some time, recollection of similar events, as formerly remarked with regard to disagreeable dreams, gradually dimmished his surprise. The ideas of a boy at

school must necessarily be few and simple; and, of course, his dreams can admit of little variation. His daily versions, cyphering, the church spires, and bells, but chiefly tales of ghosts and hobgobblins, were the principal objects of his nightly visions. When his mind was impressed with particular ideas before going to sleep, which is nothing uncommon, these ideas frequently constituted or gave a direction to his dreams.

The gentlemen examinators mention some effects of electricity and magnetism upon our somnambulist. But, in the translation, (for I have not seen the original), the facts are obscure, uninteresting, and sometimes even contradictory; and, therefore, shall be passed over in silence.

With regard to the young man's fenfer, we are told, that iron, brass, and silver, applied to his nostrils, made no impression: but that a bit of cedar, as well as the fingers of another person, gave him some uneafiness. In one of his paroxylins, they presented to him a piece of bread, and fome wormwood wine. The latter he immediately distinguished by the smell, and said, This is not our table wine. He was afterwards furnished with a little common wine, which he instantly drank. As he was walking along, wrapt up in some dream, two of the gentlemen put themselves in the way he was directing his course; but he passed between them, without being offended, or feeming to be conscious of the presence of any obstacle. He dressed himself with great propriety in a room which was perfectly dark: He felected his own clothes from a number of others which had been purpofely jumbled together, and complained that fome of his companions had made sport of him. When his eyes were perfectly shut, he touched, in presence of the gentlemen, several objects, and readily distinguished distinguished those which he had seen before from those he had not. A book that did not belong to him was put into a drawer where he kept his papers: When he selt the book, he expressed great anxiety lest he should be suspected of thest.

His sense of bearing while asleep was very accurate. In one of his reveries, he fancied that he was ringing the bell of St Martin's church, and performed all the necessary motions. After this operation was finished, he was asked how long he had rung? he answered, four minutes. He took a candle with a design to light it: But one of the company, not perceiving that he held it in his hand, remarked in a low voice, that he had forgot his candle. Of what use are your eyes, said Devaud, if you don't see it?

When our fleep-walker wishes to see any object, he makes an effort to open his eye-lids, which he does very imperfectly, and with much difficulty. The ball of the eye, on these occasions, appears to be fixed and languid. On this fubject Mr N. - makes the following remarks: 'When I accompanied the fleep-walker, I remained " always behind him, or by his fide; and very often without touch-'ing him. I put my face under his, to observe if his eyes were ' really flut; and I found them always closed. However, after ' walking tome steps in this posture, he usually discovered me by the ' noise of my feet, and went a little aside. When I still followed ' him, he raifed his head, drew up his eye-brows with difficulty, and " made an effort to open his eyes. This he could do only by halves, ' yet so as to perceive me: Don't fland in my way, he said, and held on at the fame pace. As the moon shone, I had an opportunity of ' examining his eyes very narrowly, and was convinced, that the dif-' ficulty he experienced in opening them proceeded from the inaction

of the upper eye-lid, which he could not move without first raising the eye-brows \*.'

The gentlemen examinators made many other experiments upon this fleep-walker. But as, in general, they are of a fimilar nature with those already related, it is unnecessary to give more examples.

Upon this curious subject, I must mention a singular conversation which happened in my house many years ago. The company consisted of the learned and ingenious Dr REID, at prefent Professor of Morals in the University of Glasgow, and the no less learned and ingenious Dr BLACKLOCK, both well known in the literary world. Dr REID, among many other questions, asked Dr BLACKLOCK, if he had any idea of light? Dr BLACKLOCK replied, that he had not, being deprived of fight so early as the second year of his existence. Dr REID then asked him, if there was any difference between his ideas of persons and objects when he dreamed, and those which were excited while awake? Dr BLACKLOCK replied, that the difference was great; that he doubted whether he could communicate this difference in fuch a manner as to be understood; but that he would make the at-His anxiety to please and inform made his explanation tempt. at first so obscure and perplexed, that it could not be under-This perplexity he perceived; retracted what he had faid as unintelligible; and, with some degree of exultation, exclaimed, 'Now I have it.' He then told us, that, when awake, he could diftinguish persons three ways: The most persect of which was that of hearing them speak; but he could also recognise an acquaintance by feeling his head and shoulders. The third mode of distinction was by attending, without the aid of speech, to the found and manner of breathing.

<sup>\*</sup> See the above mentioned Pamphlet, p. 25.

breathing. He then proceeded, and told us, that, in sleep, the objects which presented themselves to his imagination were more vivid, and that without the intervention of any of the three modes mentioned above, he had distinct perceptions of distant objects both animated and inanimated. Being asked by what means he thought these impressions were conveyed to him, he replied, that he imagined his body was united to theirs by a kind of distant contact, which was effected by the instrumentality of threads or strings which proceeded from their bodies to his own; and that mutual ideas were conveyed by vibrations of these strings. The Doctor could not come nearer to the point; for, though what he said did not amount to ideas excited by actual vision, yet the approach was associated in the said of the said

### SECT. VII.

Some unconnected Facts concerning Sleep and Dreaming.

AN is not the only animal that dreams. From many facts, and a very extensive analogy, it is almost certain, that every animal dreams more or less. Dogs bark in their sleep. This barking is indeed feeble; but the sounds peculiar to the chace, to anger, to desire, to complaint, &c. are easily distinguishable. I have often regretted, that ingenious men, when supporting favourite theories, should so frequently relate the grossest absurdities. The celebrated M. DE BUFFON, in his Dissertation on the Nature of Animals, gravely tells us, 'that idiots, whose minds are totally inactive, dream 'like other men: Dreams, therefore, are produced independent of 'mind. Brute animals, though they have no mind, not only dream, 'but I am tempted to think, that all dreams are independent of 'mind\*.' A most brilliant tentiment, and most logically expressed! Dreaming, thinking, or even feeling, without the intervention of mind, involve ideas beyond the limits of human understanding.

When about to fleep, most animals chuse a particular position of body. The camel places his head between his fore feet; the monkey, Vol. II.

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<sup>\*</sup> Buffon, vol. 3. p. 256. Translat.

like man, lies on his fide; most birds sleep with their head under one wing. The psittacus galgulus, a species of parrot, hangs by one foot on the branch of a tree; and some spiders, and other insects, suspend themselves by their fore legs.

A horse, when in good health, lies not above two or three hours at a time, and seldom sleeps more than three or four hours in the twenty-four. Some horses never lie down, but sleep standing; and even those which are accustomed to lie down, sometimes sleep on their seet. The ass sleeps still less than the horse; and, for that purpose, never lies down, except after great satisfier. The heaviest and most sluggish animals do not sleep the longest or the most profoundly. The slumbers of the ox are light and short. He is roused by the slightest noise: He generally lies on the lest side; and the lest kidney is always larger and fatter than the right \(\frac{1}{2}\). The sleep of cats, is, in general, light; but sometimes they have been seen sleeping with much more profoundness than most other animals \(\frac{1}{2}\). The sow-kind sleep longer than most quadrupeds.

Man, perhaps, sleeps longer than any of the larger animals. Befide the natural walle occasioned by exercise and labour, the perpetual activity of his mind fatigues the body, and renders a greater quantity of sleep necessary.

Badgers fleep the whole night and three-fourths of the day; yet, like the marmottes or dormice, they are subject to a lethargic or benumbed state during winter. This great quantity of sleep, though they eat little, makes them very fat; for this reason, they are enabled

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<sup>\*</sup> Buffon, ibid. p. 416.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid. p. 442.

<sup>1</sup> Ibid. vol. 4. p. 55.

to endure hunger a long time, and often remain in their holes three or four days together, without receiving the smallest nourishment.

Another affection, peculiar to the state of sleep, is the incubus, or night-more. This affection, in general, is produced by indigestion. and by eating too much, and particularly of flesh-meat, at supper. It is likewife fometimes occasioned by lying, while asleep, on the back, and the bed-clothes, of courie, picfling on the breaft. From whatever caule the night-mare proceeds, it is uniformly accompanied with great terror, and a fente of fuffocation; for by the preffine of wind, or fome other cause, upon the lungs, respiration is either prevented, or very much impeded. The fenfations excited by this cause are always of the most exerciciating nature. The imagination presents the ideas of some spectre or demon lying on the breast, or of situations which necessarily infer suffocation and death. When the sufferer attempts to throw off the load, or to escape from the impending danger, he discovers a total inability to move any of his members. This circumstance augments his terror and his pain, and, at last, banishes When he awakes, the imaginary weight, or cause of terror, is removed, and the power of motion is reflored. But the palpitations of the heart, and the confusion of the brain, remain for some time, till the paroxyfm is completely finished; and then the whole is recognifed to have been only an imaginary delution \*

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<sup>\*</sup> If the reader is desirous of seeing a more full discussion of this subject, he may confult Dr Willis, De Anima Brutorum, a learned and ingenious work, published in the year 1672.

## CHAPTER VI.

Of those Animals who sleep, or continue in a torpid slate, during Winter.

THAT state of animal existence denominated sleep, may be considered as an universal affection. Almost every animated being is subject to its dominion. As formerly remarked, some animals require more and others less sleep, according to their constitutions and other circumstances. But there are many animals who continue to sleep during the whole months of winter. While in this condition, they neither move nor take food; and yet they revive on the approach of summers. Of these a sew examples shall be laid before the reader.

It is well known, that many quadrupeds and infects remain in a torpid state during winter; but it is a remarkable sact, that not a single species of birds, except the swallow and cuckoo, have ever been supposed to sleep during the winter months. With regard to the swallow-tribe, I must refer the reader to my first volume, where this subject is amply discussed \*.

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The land-tortoise is a very long-lived animal. Mr White was gives an account of one that lived more than forty years in a little walled court. During that period, it regularly retired under ground about the middle of November, and came forth again about the middle of April. On its first appearance in the spring, it discovered very little inclination for food; but, in the height of summer, it was very voracious. As the summer declined, its appetite grew less; and, during autumn, it hardly ate any thing. In the month of April 1780, Mr White informs us, 'a moist and warm afternoon, with 'the thermometer at 50, brought forth troops of she'l-snails; and, 'at the same juncture, the tortoise heaved up the mould and put out 'its head; and the next morning came forth, as it were raised from 'the dead, and walked about till four in the afternoon †.'

The Alpine marmets, on the approach of winter, retire to their subterranean abodes, the entrances to which they shut up with earth or clay. In this situation they continue to be plump for three months; but afterwards they gradually decay, and are extremely emaciated at the end of winter. When discovered in their retreats, they are found to be rolled up in the form of a ball, covered with hay; and they are carried off by the hunters in a state so torpid, that they may be killed without showing the smallest symptom of pain. They may be revived by a gradual and gentle heat; and those which are tamed and fed in houses never become torpid, but are as lively and active in the winter as in the summer. Their holes are deep, and they live together in numbers. The fattest are selected for eating, and the young ones are preserved for taming ‡.

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<sup>\*</sup> White's Nat. Hift. of Selborne, p. 135, &c.

<sup>1</sup> Ibid. p. 262.

Buffon, vol. 4. p. 344. Translat.

The different species of bats sleep during the winter months. The final cause of their torpidity is obvious. In that season, there are no moths, or other flying infects, the chief food of bats. Hence, if Nature did not confer this faculty, or rather inactivity, upon them, a fingle winter would annihilate the species. 'The prevailing no-' tion,' fays the Honourable DAINES BARRINGTON, ' that they ' hang always in clusters touching each other, is not true, as this depends entirely upon their having a proper opportunity of adhering to the place from which they are suspended; they sometimes, ' therefore, are in contact, and often at confiderable distances, but ' always fix themselves by both their feet \*.' It is a well known fact, that bats, whilft in a torpid state, evacuate their dung, and, of course, both the circulation of the blood, and a certain degree of mufcular action, continue to be exerted. Mt Cornish applied a thermometer to the body of a bat when perfectly torpid; the liquor stood at 36, and the heart beat 60 times in a minute. When awakened to much that the fame animal could fly a little, the thermometer was again applied, the liquor rose to 38, and the heart beat 100 times in a minute.

Some animals who fleep during winter, may be kept awake by fupplying them with warmth and proper food. Of this kind are the bear, the viper, and the common house-fly, which, under these circumstances, continue alert and cheerful through the whole year.

The fat squirrel, a quadruped about fix inches in length, the sciurus glis of LINNAUS, remains in a torpid state during winter. Its internal heat exceeds not that of the air. When the heat of the air is ten degrees above the freezing point, the temperature of the sat squirrel,

fquirrel, the dormoufe, and the garden squirrel, is precisely the same, as M. de Buffon discovered by plunging the ball of a thermometer into their bodies. We cannot, therefore, be surprised that these animals, whose natural heat is so inconsiderable, should fall into a benumbed state, whenever their internal heat is not augmented by that of the external air, which uniformly happens when the liquor in the thermometer does not rife ten or eleven degrees above the freezing point. Cold is the true cause of the torpid state of what are called the fleeping animals. This torpid state continues as long as the cause by which it is produced, and ceases with the cold. A few degrees above ten or eleven is sufficient to revive them; and, if kept in a warm place during winter, they are never benumbed, but go about, and eat and fleep like other animals. When they feel uncommonly chilled, in order to expose less surface to the air, and to preserve their natural warmth, they roll themselves up in the form of a ball. It is in this form that they are found, during winter, in hollow trees, and in holes of walls exposed to the fouth. In these holes they lie upon collections of moss and leaves, without the smallest motion; and, though toffed about, they neither extend themselves, nor discover the least symptom of life. From this dormant condition nothing can rouse them but the application of a gentle and gradual heat; for, when fuddenly placed near a fire, they uniformly die. Though, in this state, they are totally deprived of motion, though their eyes are thut, and the animals feem to have lost every species of fensation; yet they feel any acute pain. When burned or wounded, they contract their bodies, and utter low and repeated cries. Their feafibility, therefore, and the action of the heart and lungs, still subsist. It is obvious, however, that these vital motions are but feeble. The circulation of the blood, it is probable, proceeds in the large vessels only; for the respiration is slow and feeble, the fecretions. long and rigorous winters, they sometimes die in their holes. They perish not, it should appear, by the loss of substance from perspiration; for in autumn they are exceedingly fat; and equally so when they revive in the spring. As cold is the chief, if not the only cause of their torpor, and as they do not fall into this state till the temperature of the air is below ten or eleven degrees; they frequently revive during the winter; for, in that season, many days often occur when the liquor in the thermometer rises to twelve, thirteen, four-teen, and even higher degrees above the freezing point. In weather of this kind, the dormice either come out of their abodes in quest of food, or eat part of what they had amassed in autumn.

The Hamsters, or German marmots, on the approach of winter, retire into their subterraneous abodes, where they remain in perfect tranquillity, and feed on their provisions till the frost becomes severe, when they fink into a torpid state. During this period of their, existence, if the holes be opened, the ham ter is found lying on a bed of straw. His head is bended under his belly between the two forelegs, and those behind rest upon his muzzle. The eyes are shut; and, when the eye-lids are forced open, they instantly close again. His members are stiff, like those of a dead animal, and the whole body feels as cold as ice. Neither respiration, nor any other sign of life. can be perceived. When diffected in this fituation, the heart alternately contracts and dilates. These movements, however, are so flow, that the pulfations do not exceed fifteen in a minute; though, when the animal is awake, the heart, in the same time, beats an hundred and fifty strokes. The fat seems to be coagulated. The intestines are equally cold with the external pasts of the body, and, upon the application of spirit of wine, or oil of vitriol, discover not the Vol. II. 3 F **fmalleft** 

fmallest degree of irritability. During this operation, the animal feems to have very little feeling. As if he wanted to respire, he fometimes opens his mouth. But his torpor is too powerful to admit of his awaking entirely.

This lethargy of the hamfter has been ascribed solely to the effects of a certain degree of cold, which may be true with regard to the bats and dormice; but, in order to render the hamster torpid, beside cold, he must likewise be excluded from all communication with the external air: For, when thut up in a cage, filled with earth and straw, and exposed to a degree of cold sufficient to freeze water, the hamster never becomes torpid. When the cage, however, is funk four or five feet under ground, and secured against the access of air, in a few days, he is equally torpid as if he had been in his own bur-If the cage is brought up to the furface, the hamster, in two or three hours, awakes, and refumes his torpid state when again put under the earth. When passing from a torpid to an active state, the hamster first loses the rigidity of his members, and then makes profound respirations, but at long intervals. His legs begin to move. he opens his mouth, and utters rattling and difagreeable founds. After continuing these operations for some time, he opens his eyes, and endeavours to raise himself on his legs. All these movements, however, are still unsteady and reeling, like that of a man intoxicated with liquor. But he reiterates his efforts, till he acquires the faculty of standing on his legs. He remains, for some time, fixed in that attitude, as if he meant to reconnoitre, and to repose himself after his fatigue. He now gradually begins to walk, to eat, and to act in his usual manner. According to the temperature of the air, this passage, from a torpid to an active state, requires more or less time. In a cold air, he is generally more than two hours before he completely awakes; awakes; but, in a more temperate air, he accomplishes this purpose in less than one hour. It is probable that this change is produced imperceptibly when the animal remains undisturbed in his hole, and that he feels none of the inconveniencies which arise from a forced and sudden reviviscence

The Hedgebog is one of those quadrupeds which lie in a dormant flate during the winter months. Some years ago, that ingenious, learned, and dexterous anatomist, Dr ALEXANDER MONROr made some experiments upon the hedgehog, as well as upon frogs, though he informs me +, that he did not profecute these experiments with all the accuracy and attention which the curiofity of the subject me-During a fevere winter, he kept a hedgehog in a room, where there was no fire from the month of November till March. He placed near the animal boiled beef, broad, cheefe, potatoes, water, About the beginning of December 1764, the hedgehog and straw. was affected with an unufual degree of drowfinefs. He, however. continued to eat, though more sparingly, till the 25th of that month. From that time till the 8th day of March following, he continued in a profound fleep, except when artificially roufed. After being thus roused, he soon walked back to his place of retreat, and resumed his dormant state. On the 25th of December, he weighed thirteen ounces and three drachms; on the 6th of February eleven sounces and feven drachms; and, on the 8th of March, eleven ounces and three drachms. The Doctor observed a small quantity of feculent matter and urine among the hay. At the time of his actual reviviscence. no person was present; and, of course, the circumstances attending it are unknown. In the course of white months, he did not perceive

<sup>\*</sup> For there and fimilar facts, fee Buffon and many other metural historians.

<sup>†</sup> In a letter, dated March 1794.

that the hedgehog had either ate or drank; but it remained conflantly in a profound fleep among the straw. Its limbs, however, were never rigid; but it lost two ounces of its weight. *Irogs*, which the Doctor kept during the winter in a vessel with water, seemed to be in a similar state with that of the hedgehog.

From every example we have enumerated, it appears, that extreme cold, and an exclusion from a free access to the operation of the external air, are the principal causes which produce the torpidity of certain brute animals. We shall now make a remark upon what happens to the human species when exposed to great cold, especially if accompanied with bodily fatigue. Men in this fituation, of which latal inflances too often occur, feel an almost irrefistible inclination to lie down to rest. When they yield to this propensity, being benumbed with cold, they foon fall afleep; and this fleep infallibly terminates in death. Those animals, however, who sleep during the winter, uniformly not only retire below ground, or into some other recess, but cover themselves with substances which resist such deleterious essects of cold as would destroy their existence. If man and the larger animals, when benumbed and actually afleep from the operation or cold, were placed in fimilar circumstances, it is probable they might be induced to fleep a very great length of time, and again awake without fuffering much injury.

# CHAPTER VII.

Of the Language of Beafts.

UNDER the term beasts, in the course of this chapter, I comprehend all those animals, of every class, who are inferior in mental powers to the human species. We can only perceive the language of beasts by attending to the particular cries they make, and to the influence which these cries have upon the seelings and actions of their associates. This subject is very copious. But I must limit myself to a few sacts, accompanied with such remarks as they may occasionally suggest.

I shall begin with the class of quadrupeds. But it is necessary to inform my readers, that by the language of beasts, I mean not what is called articulate or artificial language, but such vocal sounds as are expressive of different feelings, wants, and desires, by which animals are enabled to communicate particular sentiments to each other.

In opposition to artificial language, the nature of which depends upon convention or agreement, and sometimes upon mere accident, there is a natural language which is common to man and to most of the inferior animals. Men posses both these species of language; but the brute animals are limited solely to natural language. Brutes, by uttering certain sounds, are enabled to communicate their feelings, whether external or internal, to every individual of the same species. These assemblages of inarticulate sounds are uniformly the same, and, contrary to what takes place in the artificial language of man, suffer no variation from climate or institution, but are equally intelligible in every division of the globe.

The elephant loves the society of his equals, and can make himself to be understood by them. Elephants are often observed to assemble in troops, to act in concert, and again to disperse. These movements are not accidental, but produced by certain founds and geftures; and, though they carry on no common operation, this circumstance may, perhaps, be ascribed to the want of room and of tranquillity; for, in all countries inhabited by the elephant, men have been very antiently multiplied; he is, therefore, perpetually diffurbed, and no where possessive peaceably sufficient space to establish secure and permanent Elephants, in a wild flate, are neither fanguinary nor feabodes. Their natural dispositions are gentle, and they never make rocious. an improper use of their arms or their strength; for they exert their offensive talents only in defending themselves, or in protecting their companions. Their manners are focial. They commonly march in numerous troups; the eldest precede; the young and the feeble are placed in the middle; and those of middle age and full of vigour bring up the rear. The mothers carry their young firmly embraced in their trunks. This order, however, they observe in perilous marches only, as when they intend to pasture on cultivated fields. In the deforts and forests, they travel with less precaution, but never separate To far as to exceed the possibility of receiving assistance from each

other. When alarmed with any dangerous attack, they utter cries expressive of their situation and want of assistance. The meaning of these cries is perfectly understood by all the elephants within the reach of hearing; and they immediately run with eagerness to the relief of their distressed or apprehensive companions. When an elephant discovers a plentiful pasture, he calls to the others, and invites them to partake of his good fortune. From the great fagacity with which Nature has endowed him, he foon becomes acquainted with the language, gestures, and desires of men. He is, of course, easily tamed, instructed, and rendered submissive and obedient. As he is stronger as well as more intelligent than any other animal, his fervices are more ready, more extensive, and more useful. hunters go in quest of a wild elephant, they carry along with them into the forest a tamed female in season; and, when they imagine themselves to be near enough to be heard, her governour makes her utter the cry of love. The wild male instantly replies, and hastens to join her. She is then made to march towards an inclosure, pitfal, or other fnare, repeating, from time to time, the fame alluring cry, till he is completely deceived and raught. In a domestic state, the elephant foon learns to understand figns, and even the meaning of words, founds, and gestures. He distinguishes the tones of command, of anger, and of approbation, and regulates his actions accord-He never mistakes the voice of his master; but receives his orders with attention, executes them with prudence and alacrity, but without any degree of precipitation; for his movements are always measured, and his character seems to partake of the gravity of his mass. After this animal has had time to learn the language of his conductor, words alone are fufficient tomake him perform whatever is required of him. The eyes of the elephant, in proportion to the magnitude of his body, are very fmall, but lively, brilliant, and highly

highly expressive of tentiment. He turns them slowly and with mildness towards his master. When he speaks, the animal regards him with an eye of friendship and attention; and his penetrating aspect is conspicuous when he wants to anticipate the inclinations of his gover-He reflects, deliberates, thinks, and never determines till he has feveral times examined, without passion or precipitation, the signs or commands which he ought to obey. As the elephant is naturally grave and moderate, we cally read in his eyes, whose movements are flow, the order and succession of his internal affections. The cry of the elephant, whether excited by love or other fenfations, is heard and understood at the distance of more than a league; but it does not, like the roaring of the lion or tyger, create terror. the cornack, or conductor of the elephant, wishes to have some laborious office performed, he explains the nature of the operation, and mentions the reasons which should induce him to obey. If the elephant seems reluctant, his conductor promises to give him arrack, or some other thing of which he is fond. But it is extremely dangerous to break any of these promises. Many cornacks have fallen victims to indifcretions of this kind. A well authenticated fact, on this subject, happened at Dekan. An elephant, from some motive of revenge, killed his cornack. The man's wife, who beheld the dreadful scene, took her two children and threw them at the feet of the enraged animal, faying, 'Since you have flain my husband, take ' my life also, as well as that of my children.' The elephant instantly stopped, releated, and, as if stung with remorfe, took up the eldest boy with its trunk, placed him on its neck, adopted him for its cornack, and would never afterwards allow any other person to mount it.

Among the larger species of animals, the camel, the dromedary, the borfe, &c. not only express, by particular founds, their own wants, or defires, their pleafures and pains, but, when in a domeftic state, learn the meaning of words, and know distinctly how to obey the commands of their masters. A troop of camels, when travelling in the fandy deferts of Africa, after a repose, the moment they are defired, bend their knees, and lie down to be again loaded. These gentle and inoffensive creatures must suffer much; for, especially when over-loaded, or when too long in want of water, they express their uneafiness by uttering the most lamentable cries. In marching through the defert, the camels require neither whip no: fpur; but, when they begin to be tired, their courage is supported, and their fatigue is foftened, by fongs, or by the found of fome mufical instrument. Their conductors relieve each other in finging. When time is likely to be too much prolonged, the animals are occafionally allowed to rest only about an hour; after which, the fongs are renewed till they arrive at another resting place, when they again In this manner, and by these means, the camels, with heavy loads, perform journies almost incredible.

The language of the borse is not extensive. Mares and geldings neigh less frequently than perfect horses. Their voices also are neither so deep nor so full. In horses of every kind, whether entire or mutilated, five species of neighing, expressive of different pasfions, are distinguishable. In the neigh of joy, the voice is long protracted, and begins and terminates with sharp founds: The horse, at the same time, flings. but without any inclination to strike. In the neigh of desire, whether proceeding from love or friendship, the horse does not fling, the voice is long continued, and finishes with graver tones. The neigh of anger, during which he flings

and strikes with fury, is very sharp and short. Neither is the neigh of fear, during which he likewife flings, longer than that of anger; the voice is grave and hoarse, and seems as if it proceeded entirely from the nostrils. This neigh has some resemblance to the roaring of a lion. The noise expressive of pain is not properly a neigh, but a kind of groan or morting uttered with a grave tone, and following the alternate motions of respiration. It has been remarked, that horses which neigh most frequently, from motives of joy or defire, are the most generous and healthy. The voice of unmutilated horses is stronger than that of geldings or of mares. The female voice, even from the moment of birth, is weaker than that of the male. At two, or two and a half years, which is their age of puberty, the voices of both males and females, as in man and most animals, become stronger and more grave. In that large and thinly peopled country, comprehended between the rivers Don and Nieper, in the Ukraine, and among the Cossacks, the wild horses associate in troops of three, four, or five hundred. The conduct and behaviour of these troops seem to indicate, that men are not the only animals who live in fociety and obey, by compact, the commands of one of their own number. Each of these troops have a chief to whom they give implicit obedience. By gestures, movements, and voice, he directs their course, and makes them proceed or stop at his pleafure. When the troop is attacked by robbers, or by wolves, this chief likewise gives orders for the necessary arrangements and actions. He is extremely vigilant and alert, runs frequently round the troop, and, when he finds any horses out of their rank, or lagging behind, he commands and obliges them to take their proper stations. These animals, without being mounted or conducted by men, march in nearly as good order as our trained cavalry. Though at perfect liberty, they pasture in files and brigades, and form different companies, without ever mixing or separating. The chief occupies this important and laborious office four or five years. When he becomes weaker, and, of course, less active, another horse, ambitious of command, and who is conscious of his own strength, springs out from the troop, attacks the old chief, who, if not vanquished, keeps his command; but, if beat, he enters, with evident marks of shame and regret, into the common herd. The conqueror instantly takes the lead, is recognised as sovereign, and obeyed by the whole troop\*.

With regard to the ox-kind, their language is very limited. The bull feldom bellows but when he feels the ardours of love, and the female perfectly understands the meaning of what he utters. When strangers appear in his pasture grounds, he eyes them with suspicion, utters deep-toned murmurs, assumes a threatening aspect, and sometimes runs suriously at the intruders. These menacing tones and gestures are not, as generally imagined, indications of a natural serocity of disposition. On the contrary, they are the expressions of heroisin and of gallantry. By the sounds he utters, the semales are alarmed and put upon their guard. They approach near him, and regard him as their protector and champion. The lowings of the cow proceed oftener from terror or timidity than from any other cause; and pain, hunger, or the absence of the mother, produce the complaints of the cals.

Sheep have been represented by the COUNT DE BUFFON and by many other natural historians, as the most stupid of all quadrupeds.

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See descrip. de l'Ukraine par Beauplan, and a Memoir communicated to the Count de Buffon by M. Sanchez, formerly physician to the Russian army.

This charge, however, feems not to be altogether just. In a state of subjection, individuals seldom resist the attacks of an enemy. But they foon learn that their protection lies in the shepherd and his dog; for, when it is necessary to watch the flock, in order to prevent the affaults of wolves, foxes, or dogs, upon the first alarm, the whole run with violence to the place where the watchmen are stationed. On other occasions they never choose to make a very near approach either to men or dogs; but the sense of immediate danger removes their usual timidity; and their sagacity teaches them where to feek protection. These associated movements are effected both by imitation and by peculiar cries, or bleatings, expressive of alarm and of danger; for, though a very few individuals only perceive the common enemy, yet, by motion and language, the intimidating fentiment is in a moment communicated to the whole. When the female loses or is robbed of her lamb, the cries in a manner strongly expressive of the anguish she seels. In the eagerness of her fearch, the loudness of her complaints, and her desultory movements, her eye-balls seem to start from their sockets; and her irregular and distracted motions and distortions, joined to the violence and constancy of her bleatings, are evident indications of the most pungent grief. A young lamb, when it wanders from its mother, in the midst of the most numerous flocks, runs precipitantly about, and cries in pitiable tones. These cries the mother recognises, distinguishes them to be those of her own offspring, and instantly joins the lamb; their congress is attended with mutual expressions of the greatest joy.

With regard to mental and corporeal powers, the goal is much superior to the sheep. He approaches man spontaneously, and is easily rendered familiar. He is found of caresses both by the hand

and by words, and is capable of a considerable degree of attachment to those with whom he is familiar. When kept, like dogs or cats, in a domestic state, the whole powers of the goat are called forth. He utters founds expressive of all his desires, and understands, in a limited degree, what is faid to him by any of the family, as well as by all those who live in the neighbourhood. When he has remained some time in this state, his natural talents are unfolded and improved in a high degree. He knows personally every man, woman, child, and dog, within his usual range. His natural genius, which is bold and adventurous, when improved by domestication, renders him often frolicsome and even petulant. But, except to strangers, he is seldom seriously mischievous.

The natural fagacity and talents of the dog are well known and justly celebrated. But, when these are improved by associating with man, and by education, he becomes, in some measure, a rational being. The fenses of the dog, particularly that of scenting distant objects, give him a superiority over every other quadruped. He reigns at the head of a flock, and his language, whether expressive of blandishment or of command, is better heard and better understood than the voice of his master. Safety, order, and discipline are the effects of his vigilance and activity. Sheep and cattle are his fubiects. These he conducts and protects with prudente and bravery, and never employs force against them, except for the preservation of peace and good order. But, when in pursuit of his prey, he makes a complete display of his courage and intelligence. In this fituation, both his natural and acquired talents are exerted. foon as the barn or the voice of the hunter is heard, the dog demonstrates his joy by the most expressive emotions and accents. By his movements and cries, he announces his impatience for combat,

and his passion for victory. Sometimes he moves silently along, reconnoitres the ground, and endeavours to discover and surprise the enemy. At other times, he traces the animals steps, and, by disferent modulations of voice, and by the movements, particularly of his tail, indicates the distance, the species, and even the age of the sugitive deer. All these movements and modifications of voice are persectly understood by experienced hunters. When he wishes to get into an apartment, he comes to the door; but if that is shut, he scratches with his feet, makes a bewailing noise, and, if his petition is not soon answered, he barks with a peculiar and humble tone. The shepherd's dog not only understands the language of his master, but, when too distant to be beard, he knows how to act by signals made with the hand.

The fenses of the fox are equally good as those of the wolf; but his sentiments are more delicate, and the organs of his voice more pliant, which enable him to use a more extensive language. The wolf utters only frightful howlings; but the sox barks in different tones, yelps, and raises a mournful cry something resembling that of the peacock. He varies his tones according to the different sentiments with which he happens to be effected. He employs an accent peculiar to the chace, to the tone of desire, of complaint, and of sorrow. He has another cry, expressive of acute pain, which he utters only when he is shot, or has some of his simbs broken. His yelping in a species of barking, and consists of a quick succession of tones; at the termination of which he generally raises his voice similar to the cry of the peacock.

The language of the cat is more limited than that of the dog. Still, however, it is highly expressive of her feelings and desires.

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When she wants to flatter, or to sollicit favour, she makes a purring noise, accompanied with blandishing movements, and often rubs her sides upon the shins or garments of the person from whom she expects gratification. In the season of love, the semale not only goes in quest of the male, but announces, by loud cries and disgusting motions, the pressure of her necessities. These cries never fail to excite the sentiments and procure the attention and affishance of the male. When a cat happens to be barred out, her mew of anxiety, or her petition to get admittance, is persectly different from most of her other cries, but seems to be the same with that which she utters when desirous of food.

The roe-buck bellows not so frequently, nor with so loud or so strong a voice, as the stag. The young ones utter a short and plaintive cry, mi...mi, by which they indicate their want of sood. This sound is easily imitated; and the mother, deceived by the well-known call, often comes up to the very muzzle of the hunter's gun, and falls a victim to her maternal affection.

With regard to the orang-outang, the various species of apes and monkeys, their conformation gives many of them a near resemblance in external sigure to that of man. From this circumstance, they are enabled to imitate almost every human action. Linneus, and some other authors, have even gone the length of affirming, that the orang-outang speaks with a kind of hissing voice. But we have no proper evidence of this supposed fact. On the contrary, the Count de Buffon, who often examined the smaller species of orang-outang, denies that this animal ever uttered any sounds which had the most distant resemblance to articulate language. By the mode of chattering and other sounds, however, any person may soon learn

their particular intentions and emotions. BATTEL, who describes the largest species of orang-outangs, tells us, that ' they cannot speak, and have no understanding more than a beast \*.' By speech, in this passage, BATTEL evidently means articulate language; and this very circumstance is, perhaps, more than figure and manners, the strongest characteristic which distinguishes mankind from the brute The Count DE Buffon has collected, from the most authentic travellers, a great number of facts concerning the general manners and fagacity of the two species of orang-outangs; but, it should appear, he has not been able to obtain much information as to their language, or modes of expressing their passions and sentiments. Notwithstanding the great similarity between the form and organization, both external and internal, of the orang-outang, and the general structure of man, yet he cannot lay claim to humanity. Though he has the same organs of speech, he never attempts to articulate. The figure and proportions of his brain are likewise the same; but he discovers no extent of thought. There cannot, M. DE BUFFON properly remarks, be a more evident proof than is exhibited in the orang-outang, that matter alone, though perfectly organized, can produce neither language nor extensive thinking, unless it be animated by minds superior to those of brutes.

The pigmies are very numerous in the mountains of Mauritania, Constantia, and Bugia. We are informed by MARMOL, that they live upon herbs, corn, and fruits; that, in their depredatory expeditions, they go in troops to rob the gardens or fields; but, before leaving the woods or thickets, one of them ascends a high tree, or some eminence, from which he takes a survey of the country, and, when he observes no person in the way, he gives the signal, by a cry, which

<sup>\*</sup> Purchas's Pilgrims, part 2. p. 982.

which is perfectly understood, that the troop may proceed with safety, and leaves not his station as long as his companions are foraging abroad. But, whenever he perceives any person approaching, he foreams, with a loud and intelligible voice, warning the robbers of their danger, when the whole, by leaping from tree to tree, sly off, and make their escape to the mountains.

In Senegal, many other species of apes, baboons, and monkeys, when robbing orchards or corn-fields, observe a similar conduct with that of the pigmics. One of them, on these occasions, stands sentinel on a tree, listening and looking about on all sides, while the others are busy in collecting the booty. When the sentinel descries any person, he instantly, by loud and significant shrieks, alarms the foraging troop, who obey the signal, and sly off with their prey \*.

The ouarines, a large species of American monkeys, are distinguished by the appellation of preachers. MARCGRAVE, in his History of Brasil, relates the following facts concerning these preacher-monkeys, which, he affures us, he himself often witnessed. The facts are, That, every morning and evening, the ouarines affemble in the woods; that one of them assumes a more elevated station, and makes a fignal with his hand for the others to fit around and liften to him: that, when they are all feated, he begins a discourse so loud and rapid as to be heard at a great distance; that all the rest keep the most profound filence; that, when he stops, he gives a fignal with his hand for the others to reply; that, in an instant, the whole cry tomether, till he commands filence by another figual, which they, in a moment, obey; that the first resumes his harangue; and that, after hearing him attentively for a confiderable time, the affembly WOL. II. 3 H breaks

<sup>\*</sup> Voyage de le Maire, p. 103.

breaks up \*. It were to be wished that MARCGRAVE had endeavoured to discover the intention of these field-preachings; for, if the circumstances he relates be true, and I know no objection to his veracity, it is evident that the animals must be actuated by some peculiar motives. These barangues, perhaps, may, like our houses of Parliament, have some common interest for their object, and contain directions for the most prudent modes of accomplishing their purposes.

We shall now leave the language of quadrupeds, and proceed to mention a few particulars concerning that of birds. Brevity here is the more necessary, because in many places of my former volume, though treating of very different subjects, instances of the language of brute animals not unfrequently occur. Here I shall not confine my self to any systematic arrangement, but content myself with rambling, without any limited order, through the eloquence of the feathered tribes.

eculiar modulations of voice expressive of love, of pain, of anxiety, of anger, of complacency, and of good or bad fortune. These expressions, however, seem to be consined and intelligible to the individuals only of the same species. But there are certain sounds, particularly those of danger and of terror, which are perfectly understood, not only by the same species, but even by different genera and orders of birds. When the fox wishes to surprise birds in the neighbourhood of hedges, brush-wood, or trees, he lies down on his belly, and extends his hind-legs as if he were dead. In this situation, however, he is perfectly vigilant, and cunningly observes the motions

<sup>\*</sup> Marcgrav. Hist. Bras. p. 226

motions of the birds along the hedges and trees. If any of them happen to fpy him, they immediately fend forth foft, mournful, but shrill cries, to alarm their neighbours, and to advertise them of the enemy's approach. Blackbirds and jays have been frequently obferved to follow the fox, flying from tree to tree, and often repeating the same cries of alarm and of danger. These cries, by whatever birds they are uttered, are understood by every species within reach of hearing, who instantly use all their arts of defence against the common enemy. Birds are well acquainted with their natural enemies, and this knowledge feems to be purely inflinctive, and not derived from experience or observation. When they observe the pine-weafel, though for the first time, they utter the same mournful cry to announce his approach, as when they fee a fox. It is likewife worthy of remark, that birds utter this peculiar cry upon the appearance of all carnivorous animals, as the wolf, the fox, the pincweafel, the cat, &c.; but never against the stag, the roe, the hare, nor, I believe, even man, who, of all animals, is the greatest destroyer of the inferior tribes.

The language of most birds is a musical language, and reducible by a pitch-pipe to a musical key. All species are not equally eloquent. The language of some species is copious and sluent, but that of others is confined to a few important sounds, which are necessary to, express barely their feelings and their wants. But no bird, like the sinny tribes, is perfectly mute. The language of birds, Mr White of Selbourne remarks, is very antient, and, like other antient languages, very elliptical. They say little, but much is meant and understood\*. Owls have a very expressive language.

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<sup>\*</sup> See Nat. Hist. of Selbourne, by the ingenious and Rev. Mi WHITE, p. 240. of whose observations I have made frequent use.

They boot in a fine vocal found, which has a confiderable referblance to the human voice. This note feems to express complacency, and fometimes rivalship among the males. They likewise use a quick call, and an horrible scream; and they snore and biss when they mean to threaten and intimidate. The notes of the eagle-kind are shrill and piercing; and, in the season of love, very much diversified. Ravens, beside their loud croaks, sometimes exert a deep and folemn note, which makes the woods refound. The amorous found of a crow is strange, and even somewhat ridiculous. breaching season, rooks make clumfy attempts towards singing. parrot-kind, as remarked in Vol. I. possess a great range of modulation in their voice, as appears by the facility with which they learn to pronounce words, and even short sentences. The coo of the pigeon is amorous and mournful. When the male makes love, or is jealous of rivals, he crecks his body, raifes the feathers of his neck and head, and employs many strutting and lively gesticulations. these movements he adds a guttural, but not unpleasant kind of /peech, which is foft and alluring when he means to folicit the female. When jealous of a rival, he utters the same notes, but gives them a more sharp, and even a menacing tone. The weadpecker, when pleafed, fets up a loud and hearty species of laugh. goat-sucker, or fern-owl, from the dusk till day-break, ferenades his mate with founds similar to the clattering of castanets. Most of the small birds, or passeres, express their complacency by sweet modulations, and a variety of melodious founds. The favallow, by a shrill alarm, rouses the attention of his species, and tells them that the hawk approaches. Gregarious and aquatic birds, especially those of the nocturnal kind, who thist their abodes in the dark, are entremely noity and lequacions; as cranes, wild-genfe, wild-ducks, &co.

Their perpetual clamour prevents them from dispersing and losing their companions.

We shall now make a few observations on domestic fowls, whose language is best known, and, of course, best understood. The voice of the peacock, like those of many birds of the finest plumage, is harsh and grating. The braying of asses, or the yelling of cats, are The voice of the goofe clanks and founds not more disagreeable. fomewhat like a trumpet; but, the gander, especially when he apprehends danger to the young brood, joined to his threatening aspect, and the movements of his neck, biffes in a number to formidable as deters the too near approach of children and of small dogs. duck-kind, the voices of the temale and male are remarkably diffe-The quack of the female is loud and ionorous; but the voice of the drake is harsh, inward, and seeble. The cock turkey, when proud, or when addressing his mistress, blows up his wattles, erects his feathers, makes a humming noise by vibrating his wings, and utters a gobbling kind of fund, which, though we cannot describe, is perfectly understood by his own species. When attacked by a boy, or any other adversary, he assumes a pert and petulant some: and fuch is the obstinate courage he displays, that he will eather die than give up the contest. A hen turkey, when she leads forth her young brood, watches them with the utmost anxiety. Isla hawk. or any bird of prey, appear, though very high in the air, the careful and affectionate mother announces the enemy with a low inward kind of moan. If he makes a nearer approach, her voice becomes earnest and alarming, and her outcries are redoubled both in loudness and frequency. The effects of this interesting eloquence upon the young are aftonishing. They understand the intimidating language of the mother, though they know not the immediate cause of

the danger; but, by the intuitive knowledge of the meaning of what the Juys to them, they instantly employ every artifice to conceal and protect themselves from the impending danger. To accomplish this purpose, they run under hedges, brush-wood, and even the leaves of cabbages, and of such other plants as happen to be near them.

None of our domestic birds feem to possess such a variety of expression, and so copious a language as common poultry. A chicken of four or five days old, when held up to a window frequented by flies, immediately scizes its prey, and utters little twitterings of complacency; but, if a bee or a wasp is presented to it, its notes instantly become barsh, and expressive of disapprobation, and of a sense of danger. When a hen is about to lay an egg, she intimates her feelings by a joyous and foft note: But she has no sooner disburdened herfelf, than the rushes forth with a clamorous kind of joy, which the cock and the rest of his mistresses immediately adopt. multous noise is not confined to the family, or rather feraglio, but is transmitted from yard to yard, and spreads to every homestead within hearing, till at last the whole village is in an uproar. hen has hatched a brood, a new and interesting scene is exhibited. Her relation as a mother requires a new species of language. then runs clucking and fereaming about, and seems to be agitated with the greatest anxiety. When men or dogs suddenly approach ner feeble brood, her courage and maternal care are astonishing. With loud cries, and rapid motions, the affails the enemy; neither 1 man, nor a lion, in these circumstances, are sufficient to repress the courage of this unarmed bird. I have seen a hen, when attending her young, boldly attack, intimidate, and heat of a mastiff. sucabulary of the cock is likewise pretty extensive; and his generofity and gallantry are remarkable: When he discovers a quantity of food, instead of devouring it himself, he instantly calls to his concubines to partake of the repast; and, if he discerns a bird of prey, or any other alarming danger, with a warning voice, he desires his family to be on their guard against the common enemy. The cock has also at command his love speeches, and his terms of desiance. But his most peculiar found is his crowing, by which, in all ages, he has distinguished himself as the countryman's clock, as the watchman who proclaims the divisions of the night.

On the subject of our common poultry, I must not omit a curious fact recorded by that intelligent naturalist the Rev. Mr WHITE of Selbourne. A neighbouring ger tleman had, one fummer, lost most of his chickens by the depredations of a sparrow-hawk, that was in the practice of gliding down between a pile of faggots and the end of his house to the place where the hen-coops stood. The owner, exasperated to see his slock daily diminishing, hung a setting-net between the house and the pile, into which the unwary robber dashed. and was entangled. Refentment suggested retaliation; he, therefore, clipped the wings of the hawk, cut off his talons, and, after fixing a cork on his bill, threw him down among the brood-hens. Imagination, Mr WHITE remarks, cannot paint the scene that enfued. The expressions excited by fear, anger, and refentment, were strange and interesting. The enraged matrons upbraided, execrated, infulted, and, at last, triumphed over the helpless victim; they never defifted from buffetting their adverfary till they had torn him in pieces \*.

With regard to fifther, they have been always confidered as per-

WHITE's Nat. Hift. of Selbourne, p. 243.

fectly devoid of language. But, on this subject, it must be remarked, that the element in which they live, their natural timidity, the swiftness of their movements, and a thousand other circumstances, remove them from the accurate inspection and inquiries of men. That they have the organs necessary for hearing, the justly celebrated DR MONRO, in his differtation on fishes, has demonstrated in the most satisfactory manner. It is likewise well known, that water. which always contains a certain portion of air, is an excellent vehicle of found. It is, therefore, from these two facts, highly presumable, that fishes have some mode of communicating their sensations and defires to one another. To what purpose should Nature have bestowed upon such a numerous class of animals, as that of fishes. organs exquisitely adapted for hearing, unless to endow them with that faculty? And, if fishes hear, it may fairly be concluded, that they occasionally utter founds which are intelligible to their companions. The strong analogy derived from all terrestrial animals is another argument in support of this rational conjecture.

We shall now make a few observations concerning the language of insects, particularly those of the winged tribes. The amourt of dragon-slies, of spiders, and of butterslies, furnish many appearances which permit us not to doubt, that the males and semales have a very empressive mode of conveying their sentiments to each other. Their varied movements, their little alluring arts, are indications of that language which all sentient beings possess in some degree, and the signs of which are seldom equivocal. We see the male solliciting, by his gambols, his caresses, and his perseverance, savours which the semale affects, at first, to resule, with no other apparent intention than to excite and instance the passion of the male.

The grasshopper furnishes us with a remarkable instance of the language of insects. The grasshopper is a species of ventriloquist. The organs of his voice, which are both curious and complicated, instead of his head, are placed in his belly. By this instrument, in the season of love, he chants, or chirps, to the semale, who seems to be pleased with his addresses, and, when disposed, she approaches him, being led, not by the eye, but by his voice. From a very general analogy, we are warranted to suppose that organs of voice imply the relative organs of hearing. Hence we may conclude, that the semale grasshopper both hears and understands the love-speeches of the male.

Those insects which are brought forth, and live in society, who mutually affift each other in constructing works for the common good and accommodation, feem to have the greatest need of an extensive language. Being destined to form one large family, to give mutual aid and fupport to each other in all their common wants and operations, a species of language, and that not very limited, seems to be absolutely necessary to enable them to understand and to execute the different labours allotted to them with that regularity and harmony, which is fo remarkable in the magnificent structures erected by bees, wasps, and many other gregarious insects. Bees, as well as flies of every kind, make a humming noise by the vibrations of their wings. But the noise of the bee, when flying home with its load, is very different, even to our comparatively blunt ears, from that which it utters after arriving at the hive, where it makes a peculiar noise, which is perfectly understood by the working bees, who instantly come and carry off this fresh supply of materials.

Common flies, and particularly the large flesh-flies, make a soft Vol. II.

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finging kind of noise when flying about in tranquility. But, when alarmed, or when entangled in the web of a spider, the noise of their wings insimates diffress and terror. Instead of being fost and agreeable, it is then loud, quick, harsh, and interrupted, precisely analogous to the language and cries of men and of the larger animals when placed in fimilar circumstances. In my former volume, when treating of bearing, I have rendered it more than probable, that the common house-fly is endowed with the faculty of hearing. Whenever we perceive, that effects and movements are uniformly produced by certain founds, it may be concluded, that the animal is furnished with organs of hearing, though, from their minuteness, we are unable to discover where they are situated. In the winged tribes of infects, it is probable that the organs of hearing are placed near the infertion of the wings, or, at leaft, that nerves or vessels proceed from the wings to the more immediate organs of hearing, which may be inclosed under that elastic crustaceous substance with which the head is covered. This idea will be rendered still more probable by attending to the various modulations of founds produced by the vibrations of the wing, and by comparing these with the present situation and employment of the infect. When a common fly is irritated or terrified, the noise made by the vibrations of its wings is very different from that produced when the animal is flying about undifturbed. When a house or a flesh-fly is tormented by thoughtless children, who, for amusement, often insert pretty large pins into the bodies of these insects, which the animals, with much pain, are obliged to trail after them, the noise of their wings is then highly expressive of impatience and of torture. But, when they meet with food agreeable to their taste, the noise of their wings is soft, gentle, and even melodious. When the feason of their amours arrives, a new and interesting scene, both with regard to movements and language,

language, is exhibited. At that important period of their existence, they affemble in groups, which are more or less numerous, according to circumstances. These groups sly about, making a thousand circumpyrations, but always keep pretty close to each other. In these love-dances, as I call them, the males and females often meet, and lay hold of each other in the air; but the congress is only momentary. The noise of their wings, however, on this critical occasion, is brisk, sharp, and seemingly expressive of joy: This noise is easily diftinguishable from that excited by terror or by any embarrassing or But these groups of lovers not unfrequently depainful fituation. scend from the higher parts of a chamber, and alight upon tables or Here their language and motions become still more intelchairs. ligible. The males run about with ardour in quest of the females, and perch with alacrity and a pleasant murmuring species of noise upon the backs of the females, where, if their stay is short, it is amply repaid by the frequency of reiteration. I have often been amused with their mistakes. Though the eyes of slies consist of numerous lenses, so situated that they can see objects all around them; yet these lenses are so minute and so convex, that they can perceive objects at small distances only. When the males are roaming about in quest of females, it not unfrequently happens, in the keenness of refearch, that two males rencounter: As foon as the mutual mistake is perceived, each makes a fudden fnapping kind of noise, as if they were fpitting in one another's faces, and then run off in pursuit of more fuitable mates.

Some spiders, when they wish to have sensual intercourse, have a singular method of communicating their desires. A spider, who wants a mate, has a mode of striking against the wall or wood where she has settled. She first gives nine or ten gentle blows, re-

fembling, but somewhat quicker and louder, the vibrations of a watch; after which, she remains some time silent, as if waiting for a response; if the receives none, she repeats the same ticking noise, by what means it is not perfectly known, at intervals of about an hour or two, resuming this exercise and resting alternately both during the day and the night. After these amorous sollicitations have been continued two or three days, if no lover makes his addresses, probably because none are within the reach of hearing, she changes her situation, till she receives an answer from a neighbouring mate, who makes precisely the same kind of noise. If they are mutually pleased with each other, the conversation becomes brisker, and the beatings more frequent, till, at last, the approach is so near, that the two sounds are consounded. In a very short time, a deep silence takes place, when it is reasonably supposed that the intentions of Nature are accomplishing \*.

This chapter shall be concluded with a few general remarks. With regard to the language of beasts, a few examples have been selected from

Amusement philosophique sur le language des Bestes, par G. H. Boujeant, p. 118. Father Boujeant, as appears from his writings, was a man of considerable learning and ingenuity. He was also an acute observer of the operations and oeconomy of Nature. He supported his ideas, concerning the relative understanding and language of beasts, with great spirit and ability. But fanatical, or, which is the same thing, ignorant individuals, and, at last, the Romish church, were alarmed. Boujeant was himself a Jesuit; and, when called to account for his doctrine, like a gentleman of the profession, in a second edition, he not only recanted solemnly all his opinions or the subject, but acknowledged them to have been delassous of the Devil! To augment this literary, or rather religious farce, the very same opinions and reasonings are repeated in the subsequent edition, accompanied with the signed recantation of the author! The disfusion of science, so often attempted to be sufficiented by prinst, though, to the disgrace of human nature, both an antient and a modern practice, exhibits a dreadful picture of what are called the Lords of the Creation!

from the four great classes of Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, and Insects. To have enumerated more, would not only have tired the reader, but led me far beyond my intended limits. From the few specimens I have given, it is apparent, that Nature, in this, as well as in every other of her operations, supports and conducts her system of animation by universal and intelligent laws. On man she has bestowed three species of language, namely, natural language, the language of gesture, and, what is still superior, the faculty of inventing and employing artificial language. But the most distinguished of the brute animals are limited folely to the two former modes of communicating to each other their various feelings and defires. The language of the infect tribes feems to be still more limited. Their conversation is chiefly carried on by various vi rations of their wings, and by fimilar instruments; but still these simple modes of expection, by whatever motives they are produced, are perfectly understood, which is the fole end and intention of all language.

One very fingular observation remains to be made. Contrary to what almost universally takes place in the human species, the females of the inferior animals are not so loquacious as the males. This remarkable difference, if we scrutinize impartially the intentions of Nature, will be found, like all her other intentions, to be productive of the wisest and most beneficent purposes. Among those brute animals who pair or marry by mutual selection, and particularly almost the whole of the seathered tribes, when not corrupted by domestication, the language of the males is more extensive and more frequently repeated, than that of the semales. It is for this reason, that, in purchasing singing birds, great attention is paid to those characters which distinguish the males from the semales, the latter being considered as comparatively mute and useless. When the semale thrush,

or blackbird, is brooding over her eggs, the male fits upon a neighbouring tree; and, when no danger appears, he tells her, in melodious and encouraging strains, not to be afraid, because he is keeping the strictest watch. But when he perceives the too near approach of man, of birds of prey, or of any other rapacious animals, he instantly changes his addresses to her. Instead of his former soothing notes, he slies from branch to branch, or from tree to tree, uttering dismal, alarming, and harsh cries. In this manner he tells her to beware of the enemy. When the danger is greatly increased, by a still nearer approach, the male again changes his language: He then, by quick and precipitate sounds, commands her to sty, and to save herself even in preference to her eggs or her defenceless brood.

Here the intentions of Nature as well as the necessity of a varied though limited language, are evident both to our ears and eyes; for, on such occasions, the founds are uniformly accompanied with the most expressive gestures. When boys are about to carry off a nest of young birds, both parents, notwithstanding their natural dread of man, which is too often augmented by cruelty, make a much nearer approach than at any other time. Their almost invincible attachment to their offspring seems, in a great measure, to deprive them of the principle of self-preservation. Their cries are low, mournful, and not unfrequently resemble those uttered by human beings when placed in similar circumstances. But, when despair removes all hope, another change of language is exhibited. Both parents then sly round the assailant, screaming and uttering threatening cries; and sometimes they even attempt to repel the spoiler.

When a boy, I carried off a nest of young sparrows about a mile from my place of residence. After the nest was completely removed, and while

while I was marching home with them in triumph, I perceived, with some degree of astonishment, both parents following me, at some distance, and observing my motions in perfect silence. A thought then struck me, that they might follow me home, and feed the young according to their usual manner. When just entering the door, I held up the nest, and made the young utter the cry which is expressive of the desire of food. I immediately put the nest and the young in the corner of a wire-cage, and placed it on the outfide of a window. I chose a fituation in the room where I could perceive all that should happen, without myself being seen. I he young animals foon cried for food. In a short time, both parents, who understood the language as well as the peculiar voices of their mutual offspring, having their bills filled with small enterpillars, reforted to the cage, and after chatting a little, as we would do with a friend through the lattice or a prison, gave a small worm to each individual. This parental intercourse continued regularly for some time, till the young were completely fledged, and had acquired a confiderable degree of strength. I then took one of the strongest of them, and placed him on the outside of the cage, in order to obferve the conduct of the parents after one of their offspring was emancipated. In a few minutes, both parents arrived, loaded, as usual, with food. They no sooner perceived that one of their children had escaped from prison, than they fluttered about and made a thousand noisy demonstrations of joy both with their wings and their voices. These tumultuous expressions of unexpected happiness at last gave place to a more calm and soothing conversation. By their voices and their movements, it was evident that they earnestly entreated him to follow them, and to fly from his prefent dangerous He seemed to be impatient to obey their mandates; but, by his gestures and the feeble founds he uttered, he plainly told them

that he was afraid to try an exertion he had never before attempted. They, however, incessantly repeated their follicitations; by flying alternately from the cage to a neighbouring chimney top, they endeavoured to show him how easy the journey was to be accomplished. He at last committed himself to the air, and landed in safety. Upon his arrival another scene of clamorous and active joy was exhibited. Next day, I repeated the same experiment by exposing another of the young on the top of the cage. I observed the same conduct with regard to the remainder of the brood, which consisted of sour. I need hardly add, that not one, either of the parents or children, ever afterwards revisited the executed cage.

We have already seen, and every body knows, that in general, the males of the inferior animals are more loquacious than the females. But, in the human species, it is likewise an unquestionable sact, that the females are much more talkative than the males. It is even remarkable, that female children, though of the same samily, and receiving the same instructions and example, acquire the saculty of speaking one year, and sometimes two, sooner than the males.

We shall now endeavour to investigate the intentions of Nature in creating such a marked distinction.

In all ages, and in all regions of the earth, the early education and management of children have necessarily devolved upon the mothers. For this important task, they are much better qualified, both in the structure of their bodies, and in the dispositions of their minds, than the males. The connection between the mother and child begins long before it becomes an object of attention to the father. Ly a thousand circumstances, which mothers only know, and

fometimes attempt, though obscurely, to describe, they contract an affection for a still invisible being. After the child is ushered into the world, the curiofity and the sympathetic joy of the father, are ex-He, accordingly, exerts himself to render the condition both of the mother and child as happy as possible. To support the child with a mild but nutritive food fecreted from the blood and other juices of the mother, Nature has provided her with a wonderfully complicated fystem of vessels, or lacteal pipes, which all terminate in the nipples of her breafts. To these nipples the infants instinctively apply their mouths, and, by suction, create a vacuum. The pressure of the external air upon the breast, or collection of tubes filled with milk, forces them to discharge their contents into the mouth of the child, who continues to swallow it till its stomach is fatisfied. During this tender an I precarious state of existence, the anxious and persevering attention of the mother, makes her chearfully endure many toils and hardships, under which she would often fink, were the not, on fuch occasions, almost preternaturally supported by mere strength of affection.

After the child has arrived at the age of two or three months, and, in strong and healthy children, much earlier, or as soon as it is capable of giving a transient attention to particular objects, then the exertions of the mother are almost perpetual. Her sole object is to please by little amusements which she endeavours to accommodate to the weak, but gradually augmenting capacity of the infant. The chief instruments which she addresses are the eyes and ears. To the eye she presents shining or luminous objects with which children are very early delighted; and, at the same time, repeatedly mentions the names of the particular objects. Thus, by habit, the natural volubility of semale tongues is greatly improved. I have Vol. II.

often been amazed at the dexterity and quickness of mothers and nurses when endeavouring to please fretful children. They hurry the child from object to object, in order to discover if any of them arrests its eye. If this attempt does not succeed, they have recourse to other expedients. The ears of all infants are delighted with any loud noise. The mother, who wishes to appeale the fretfulness, or even to keep up the spirit and chearfulness of the child, tosses it about in her arms, fings, and talks alternately; and, on fuch occafions, it is aftonishing to observe the quickness of her transitions from one species of incomprehensible jargon to another. Still, however, the goes on either rattling with her tongue, or making a rattling noise on tables, chairs, &c. A person who had never attended to these scenes, which are so often exhibited by a sprightly mother and a sprightly child, would be apt to conclude, that both were proper inmates for a bedlam. These are well known to be universal facts; and we shall now endeavour to show their utility.

It is a very antient adage, that Nature does nothing in vain. To women she has given the talent of talking more frequently, as well as more fluently, than men: She has likewise endowed them with a greater quantity of animation, or what is commonly called animal spirits. Why, it may be asked, has Nature, in this article, so eminently distinguished women from men? For the best and wisest of purposes. The principal destination of all women is to be mothers. Hence some qualities peculiar to such a destination must necessarily have been bestowed upon them. These qualities are numerous: A superiour degree of patience, of affection, of minute, but useful attentions, joined to a facility of almost incessant speaking.

Here, however, I must confine my observations to the last conspi-

cuous and eminent accomplishment. To be occupied with laborious offices, which demand either bodily or mental exertions, and not unfrequently both, is allotted to the men. These causes, beside their comparative natural taciturnity, totally incapacitates them for that loquacity which is requifite for amufing and teaching young children to /peak. But the employments of women are of a more domestic kind. Household affairs, and particularly the nursing and training of children, are fully sufficient to engross their attention, and to call forth all their ingenuity and active powers. The loquacity of women is too often confidered, by poets, historians, and by unthinking men, as a reproach upon the fex. Men of this description know not what they fay. When they blame women for speaking much, they blame Nature for one of her wisest institutions. Women speak much. They ought to speak much. Nature compels them to speak much; and, when they do so, they are complying religiously with one of her most facred and useful laws. may be faid, that fome men talk as much as women. Granted. But beings of this kind, I deny to be men. Nature seems to have originally meant them to be women; but, by fome cross-accident, as happens in the production of monsters, the external male form has been superinduced upon a female stock.

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CHAP

## CHAPTER VIII.

Some Remarks on the Comparative Pleasures and Sufferings of Animals.

THERE are two great sources of animal pleasure and pain. The one arises from mental, and the other from corporeal causes. In proportion to the extent of intellectual powers in animals, the variety and the intensenses of their pleasures must be augmented. I wish the reverse were not equally true. Man, who stands at the head of all the animated beings of which we have any knowledge, derives the most extensive, variegated, and delicate species of pleasure from natural genius, especially when improved and illuminated by science, by literature, and by impartial, but acute observation. The means, however, of acquiring these accomplishments, are often productive of the greatest human calamities. They cannot be attained without much study and reading. But study and reading imply a sedentary life; and a sedentary life gives rise to consumptions, to the stone, to the gout, to want of appetite, and, of course, to every evil which hell can invent, or poor mortals suffer.

But let us take a view of the enjoyments procured by the acquifition of knowledge, and by a proper culture of the mind. Every flep we advance, from the very commencement of our progress, affords pleasures which are totally unknown, and even incomprehensible to the ignorant and too commonly vicious part of mankind, which unfortunately includes much more than nine-tenths of the species.

When about five or fix years of age, our fole delight confifts of rambling about, flying from one external object to another with often an unmeaning rapidity, and without perceiving, that, by this reftlefs activity, we are laying up ample flores for future reflection. Nature, in her operations, has foldom one intention only in view: While she is thus early stimulating us to gratify curiosity, or, in other words, to enjoy pleasures which are perpetually changing their forms and modes of impression upon the soft and ductile mind, she is, at the same time, extending and strengthening the body by the movements which these exertions necessarily require. The pleasures resulting from the acquisition of ideas by the inspection and examination of new external objects, from the age mentioned above, proceed with amazing rapidity. But, after this period, in what are called civilized, or rather artificial focieties, the natural current of the mind is checked, and turned into very different channels. To read, to write, to acquire dead or foreign languages; and, if the destination be still higher, geometry, and speculative knowledge of every species, are made the principal objects of a young man's attention. This fevere check is, in general, too early given. At the very time when young minds are eagerly investigating even the minutiæ of Nature, as insects, reptiles, and, when a little farther advanced, birds and quadrupeds of different

different species, they are prematurely hurried on, to the most abfurd and preposterous of all studies, namely, that of dead and foreign languages, long before they understand, to any extent, their native tongue.

Some small portions of the antient bislorical compositions may fomctimes be partially understood, and even relished by school-boys. But what are the fentiments which strike in the most forcible manner the unsuspicious, and, as yet, uninformed minds. They are of the most diabolical kind. Animosity, buttles, treachery, cruelty, and murders! The fuccessful perpetrators of these horid crimes are celebrated, both by their own historians, and by unthinking pedagogues, under the grand appellation of HLROES! What was the renowned Alexander? A great Hero? And what is a great Hero? An unrelenting butcher of his own species! Such was ALEX-ANDER, fuch was CESAR, and fuch were all the similar vagabonds, thieves, and murderers of antiquity. These men, however, are exhibited by our teachers, as glorious examples of human virtues! What monstrous lessons to young and tender minds! But, if our teachers were wifer than they generally are, the historical compositions of the antients would afford them the finest topics for inculcating every species of moral duty, and of moral feeling, upon the minds of youth. Patriotism, love of liberty, and bravery in the defence of the natural rights of man, when tempered with moderation and humanity, and, if properly explained, enforced, and illustrated by the numerous and splendid characters which antiquity occasionally affords, would not only excite attention, but expand the mind, and give it virtuous impressions which no time could ever efface.

I mean not to depreciate classical learning. I only complain of a most absurd and hurtful mode of education, which is, it may be faid, universal in Scotland. Not to mention the masters of different mechanical employments, JOURNEYMEN Spoemakers, taylors, weavers, carpenters, bakers, masons, bricklayers, &c. uniformly fend their children, when at the age of seven or nine, for the space of four or five years to learn Latin at grammar schools! During this time, the poor boys are forced to attend the school, and not unfrequently whipped into the repetition of some Latin vocables, which are never to be of any use to them during life. For, after performing this, to them, uselcss, painful, and dreary task, the thread is instantly cut, and they are hurried into apprenticeships, and, of course, into the business of life, without understanding either their own, or any other language. The progress of Nature may, it is true, be sometimes checked, but never entirely stopped. During the hours of recess from scholastic discipline, she resumes her empire, and by her irresistible power, obliges the children to frisk and romp about, and to enjoy those various and pure pleasures which result from activity and amusement. But, these enjoyments are no sooner over, than the abhorred ideas of unnatural confinement, and of a constrained attention to jargon, which, to them, is completely unintelligible, instantly recur, and harrafs and terrify their imaginations.

I have hitherto limited my remarks to languages alone. But, with regard to fentiment, the motely chaos becomes doubly dark. Of battering rams, spears, swords, shields, and other warlike instruments, some idea may be formed. But the political views of commanders, the various marches and counter marches of armies, of detached parties for the purposes of foraging, or of observing the motions and probable intentions of the enemy, and the means employed to ren-

der these intentions abortive, must be persectly incomprehensible to school-boys, who do not know one inch of the countries where such operations are transacting. It will be faid, perhaps, that all these difficulties may be obviated by proper maps and descriptions. voung men farther advanced in years, and who are destined to some learned profession, or to the education which every gentleman ought to receive, maps and descriptions are excellent sources of information. But, to school-boys, at the age I speak of, maps and descriptions con-Globes. vey no ideas of the countries they are intended to represent. it may be thought, will remove all objections of this kind. Globes. however, only augment the obscurities arising from maps, when attempted to be thus prematurely obtruded upon minds totally incapable of understanding the principles upon which either of them are The names of countries, of some rivers, and chief constructed. towns, like Latin vocables, may, by the mere exertions of memory, and of perfeverance, be mandated, and repeated, as the words and short sentences which parrots are taught to express. But, by these exercises, no new ideas are acquired; nor are those which may have formerly been in some measure acquired, either illustrated or expand-The fruitless and painful labours, however, which fuch prepolterous conduct in managing the early education of youth produce, are immense, and truly ridiculous.

These and similar observations relate principally to prose compositions. But, what are we to fay of poetry, the language of which is highly figurative, and the feutiments and allusions are derived from every object of nature and of art, which can strike the imagination of the poet? To read fuch works of genius and of learning with any degree of intelligence, often baffles the experience, the industry, and the abilities of our most acute commentators. This remark is appli-

cable, in part, to every species of poetry, but acquires a redoubled force with regard to that species called epic. Beside the various descriptions and allusions derived from natural and artificial objects, what goes under the strange appellation of machinery, is almost perpetually introduced. Not contented with berocs and brave men, in describing battles and human exertions, gods or devils must interfere in every hostile contest. In the Heathen mythology, the number of gods and goddesses is as infinite as their attributes and desti-Every nation, every town, every mountain, every 1iver, and many principal families, and even individuals, were supposed to be the favourites of particular divinities, by whom they were superintended, and protected, on all critical emergencies, from danger and death. When two heroes met and commenced a furious combat, if one of them was about to fall, to prevent the deadly blow, a god or goddess inflantly stept forward to his assistance, and, by some filly or abfurd miracle, faved him from impending destruction! But-LER, that prince of humour and of wit, ridicules, in the finest ftrains, the machinery employed by ancient as well as modern poets. When two of his renowned heroes were about to engage, not with fwords, but with fire-arms, in the moment of danger, he makes PAL-LAS interpose to save her favourite, in the following ludicrous manner:

> But Pallas came in shape of rust, And 'twist the spring and hammer thrust Her Gorgon shield, which made the cock Stand stiff, as 'twere transformed to slock

The splendid and beautiful descriptions of many natural objects are not more intelligible to mere boys than the machinery of gods, of goddesses, of angels, or of devils. Amaranthine bowers, myrtle groves,

<sup>\*</sup> Hudibras, canto 2 line 781.

groves, tombs covered with the difinal cypress, crowns of laurel, the deadly nightshade, the cedar of Lebanon, and a thousand similar names of objects, are equally unknown to the master, to the schoolboy, and often to the very poets who use them in their compositions. When the names and descriptions of plants happen to occur in the reading either of profe or verse, it would be no difficult talk, particularly in the feminaries of Edinburgh, where we have one of the most extensive and best replenished totanic gardens in Britain, for masters to procure specimens of almost every vegetable that is mentioned by the historians and poets of antiquity. A single inspection of such fpecimens would elucidate many passages in classical authors more completely than all the definitions which human ingenuity can in-Besides, this mode of explaining particular parts of the Classics would have another happy effect. It would not only give immediate pleafure to boys, but create a habit of attention to the productions of Nature with which we are perpetually furrounded, and perpetually overlook.

But, fay our pedagognes, for an explanation of all fuch generic or specific names, consult your distinary. We shall do so; and take a few examples from that of Ainsworth. Amaranthus, everlasting, a flower which never fadeth! Cupressus, a cypress-tree! Myrtus, a myrtle-tree! Laurus, the laurel or bay-tree! Circha, the berb called night-shade! Morus, a mulberry-tree! Mercurialis, the berb called Mercury! Mespilus, a mediar-tree! Mandra-Goras, an berb called mandrake! Mentha, the berb called mint! Amygdala, an almond-tree! Plantago, plantain! Leuco-Graphis, an berb good for these who spit blood! I will not disturb my readers with more specimens of similar unmeaning explanations,

or rather no explanation at all; for they convey no ideas whatever. In almost every page of our common dictionaries, whether Latin, English, French, &c. examples of such jargon are to be found. Our Lexicographers, however, not unfrequently descend still lower, and, instead of absurd definitions, or substituting English for Latin names, in which they are likewise often wrong, content themselves with barely saying, the name of a tree! the name of a plant! the name of an herb! the name of a precious stone! the name of a four-footed beast! &c.

Are these the sources from which boys, or even men, are to derive information concerning the productions of Nature? Bur, it is much to be lamented, that, in general, our pedagogues themselves are unqualified to use the proper resources, and, consequently, must be equally ignorant as the pupils they are attempting to instruct. To boys the task of learning dead languages is sufficiently hard and laborious. But, when ordered to read passages where natural objects of various kinds frequently occur, in the explication of which neither their dictionaries not their massers can afford the smallest assistance, the drudgery of groping in the dark becomes often so painful, that many boys leave the school perfectly disgusted, and drop for-ever such unprofitable, and, to them, unintelligible studies.

But, notwithstanding these, in particular instances, perhaps unavoidable difficulties, when somewhat farther advanced in years, if young men, by persevering industry, joined to a partial knowledge of some branches of science, are once enabled to read and to relish the writings of ancient or of foreign authors, then the pleasures resulting from the perusal of them more than counterbalance the pains suffered in the acquisition of that species of knowledge. Some of

the above remarks are equally applicable to the study of science and of art. But, as the principles of the arts and sciences are fixed, and seldom subject to cavil or misrepresentation, whenever these simple and natural principles are properly explained and understood, the pleasures arising from their application are very great. As formerly remarked, premature subject are uniformly painful; because such young minds are incapable of comprehending the principles, and far less the application of them to arts or science. Grammar, the first science obtruded upon, I may say, infantine intellects, is one of the most abstract and intricate. To attain even a tolerable knowledge of grammar, whatever be the language, (for the general principles are, and must be the same,) presupposes a considerable range of intuitive sacts, as well as of acquired ideas.

When these difficulties, however, are once surmounted, and the mind is enabled to perceive the beauties and the utility of science, its bappiness, which it hourly receives from a thousand sources, may be said, as far as our present condition admits, to be complete. But a mind thus cultivated is by no means satisfied. Every new acquisition, though attended with pleasure, produces, at the same time, a number of painful sensations. In proportion as the mind is expanded by different kinds of science, its desire for farther and often impossible acquisitions augments, and gives rise to painful anxieties, which not unfrequently terminate in dejection, which is a species of madness.

We shall now trace the progress and feelings of a well informed mind, after it has engaged in the more serious and interesting affairs of society. Here a preliminary remark must be made. The more the mind has been stored with a variety of knowledge, the more acute are its feelings. It derives pleasure from many sources, of which the vulgar can have no idea. But, mark the reverse. The causes of pain augment in more than a quadruple proportion. Of most of these the vulgar have not a conception; but they torture the seelings of what are called refined minds.

Business, of one kind or another, now becomes necessary; and an almost infinite series of pains and of pleasures are the unavoidable Mental or corporcal exertions, however laborious, we shall not confider as absolutely painful; for when these are past, and followed with success, they are causes of the greatest pleasures. this period of life, another fource of pleasure, as well as of pain, arises in an unexpected, and often involuntary manner. Both in the male and female fex, peculiar and strong attachments are form-Marriage, in general, is the confequence of such attachments: But, with regard to the present subject, what are the common consequences of marriage? Children, and a multitude of new pleasures and pains. When in health, the pleasures afforded by children are numerous and delightful; but, when difease comes, the account is more than balanced. A helpless infant tortured with pain is a most excruciating object. But, when a lovely child is, perhaps, fuddenly torn from its mother's breast by death, the painful sensations excited by fuch an event, parents alone can know. To proceed: When children have happily got over the common diseases incident to that critical period of life, and have advanced to manhood, and engaged in different occupations, the anxieties of parents, instead of being blunted, become more acute. They then look forward, with redoubled apprehension and affection, to the probable success or missortunes of their offspring. When successful, the pleasure is great. But when, from negligence and vice, or even from unforeseen misfornot to be described. Parents not unfrequently, from a natural, but superabundant affection, risk more than their fortune with a view to bring their children respectably forward in the world, and to render them happy. Such conduct is foolish; but the folly is amiable. A single slip, however, in children too frequently produces the greatest misery to both them and their parents. In all such cases, contrary to the common adage, coil comes out of good.

We have hitherto given flight sketches of the pains and pleasures arising from highly cultivated minds; and shall now descend to what are called the vulgar and uninformed.

The vulgar, in all nations and conditions of fociety, conflitute the great body of the human race. Born and brought up by poor and ignorant parents, their children, of necessity, are excluded from every fource of superior knowledge. These seemingly unfortunate circumstances, it should appear, would be productive of the greatest But Nature, ever attentive to the general happine/s of her productions, has decreed that the vulgar should, at least, be as bappy as the learned. They are excluded from many fources of real pleasure which the learned possess. But they know nothing of such defects; and what they do not know cannot possibly give them un-They labour with chearfulness, and eat their food with an eafine/s. appetite which no riches can purchase. Every moderate animal enjoyment is within their reach; and their rank in fociety precludes them from many painful circumstances which opulence alone can Their sleep is found and refreshing; and, as their food is generally light and eafily digefted, they are feldom troubled with those disagreeable dreams which torment the luxurious, whose stomachs are not only seeble, but often overloaded with dainties, and still oftener with intoxicating liquors. The vulgar are not barrassed with ambition, nor anxiously solicitous concerning suture prospects or future events. They enjoy the present moments as they sly, and rely upon the continuance of similar sources of happiness.

In their domestic affairs, the vulgar are exempted from many evils which too frequently perplex the imagination, and burt the feelings of those who occupy the higher stations of life. Of the many venatious circumstances arising from the negligence, the petulance, the thefts, and the long train of vices daily committed by fervants, the vulgar can never form an idea, and, of course, cannot feel the uneasineffes which they occasion. The vulgar are likewife exempted from a thousand restraints and ceremonious etiquettes, which cramp the freedom, occuply fruitlefsly the attention, and give rife to numberlefs anxieties and disappointments among what are called people of sasbion. The pleasures of the vulgar, though comparatively few, are more genuine and unadulterated, because they are less artificial, and, of course. unaccompanied with emulation or jealoufy, and feldom followed with regret or mental reproach. The pleasures of the great are generally tumultuary, exhaust the spirits, and produce languor and compunction, two painful feelings which mutually augment each other.

Upon the whole, to men of observation and reflection, it must be apparent, that the laborious pleasures of the nulgar are superior to the luxurious, and, I may say, painful pleasures of the learned and opulent.

Proceeding on our plan, we shall next consider the condition of what are called brute animals with regard to pleasure and pain.

Brutes are exempted from a thousand sources of pain which afflict even the oulgar of the human species. Brutes have not an idea of futurity; but they enjoy every moment of their existence, which, though, in most of them, not so long protracted as that of man, is, in general, a continued series of pleasures. I speak not of those animals, or rather slaves, called domestic; for these, to the disgrace of the human species, are too often overloaded, beat, starved, and maltreated in a shocking manner; but I speak of animals in that state which the God of Nature formed them.

The absence of pain is certainly a species of pleasure. When nothing burts either the body or the mind, pleasing sensations must necessarily follow. The mere consciousness of existence is pleasure. If brute animals are excluded from the pleasures of imagination, they are, at the same time, exempted from innumerable tortures to which it gives rise. Many of them, wherever they stroll, find their natural food under their feet. Others, of a more rapacious kind, are obliged to hunt for their subsistence. Their food, of course, is more precarious. But Nature has endowed them with the faculty of sustaining, with impunity, long abstinence. She has likewise bestowed upon them courage, artifice, patience, and alacrity both in attack and defence.

With regard to bodily pain, arising either from disease or external injury, the brute must suffer as much as the man. Brutes, however, though they suffer from these causes, are not tormented, like man, with the terrors of their consequences. They have not a conception of death, far less of future existence, and, what is infinitely worse, of eternal and excruciating torture. But, as many of mankind, these are perpetual sources of misery and of terror.

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Hitherto I have been talking of the comparative pains and pleafures of the larger animals. I shall now hazard a few remarks with regard to the condition of the more minute tribes.

Infects are animated beings as well as men and quadrupeds. it is extremely difficult to form proper ideas of their pains or plea-If we may judge, however, from the quickness and vivacity of all winged infects, we should reasonably conclude that every instant of their existence is attended with pleasure. Their lives, especially in their fly-state, is short; but, as a recompense, it is all enjoyment. They have their food, it is true, to fearch for and procure; but, from the instruments which Nature has conferred upon them, they are enabled to extract nourishment from almost every vegetable and animal substance, and even from the earth and waters. In quest of food, or of their proper mates, they are perpetually active; and activity itself is one of the principal fources of animal happiness. When man, whatever be the cause, loses the springs of activity, from that moment he is miserable. It is not unnatural, therefore, to conclude, that, whenever we see activity in the inferior animals, bappinels must be the consequence.

The motions of those insects which are not furnished with wings are comparatively slow and languid; but we are not, from this circumstance. warranted to inser that they are more unhappy than the winged tribes. Motion, whether quick or slow, requires exertion, and that exertion is not only pleasant, but productive of vigour and of health. Still, however, when we consult our own feelings, we are necessarily led to think, that the most active animals are the most bappy. In the human species, an active mind enjoys life more completed by than the indolent and sluggish. Sloth, or the absence of activity, is

real pair. Aluminomion, in some of the insect tribes, does not imply inadivity; because, from their frame, that slowness of movement requires, perhaps, even greater exertions than the rapid motions of other species.

The flaggish motion of earth-worms, and of snails, may, to us, feem to indicate great labour, and even pain. But, it should be considered, that, if their movements are comparatively flow, their travels are proportionably short; for their food is almost perpetually before them.

The great multiplicity of infects, both in species and individuals, is often attended with no small injury to man as well as to many other animals. As a counterposse, however, their enemies are innumerable. Myriads of birds, &c. daily devour ten thousand times the number of insects, both of the winged and reptile kinds. A bird, in an instant of time, swallows a fly; and, in the same instant, its life is extinguished, without feeling, perhaps, a single pang.

This subject shall be dismissed with a few remarks. From the facts and observations related above, it seems to be apparent, that Nature, through the whole of her animated productions, has distributed her pleasures and her pains in an equitable manner. If man and the larger animals are occasionally subjected to a greater number of diseases than the smaller tribes, their lives are, in general, protracted to a much longer space; and, of course, the quantity of their enjoyment is increased. Some species of birds, as eagles, parrots, &c. beside the pleasures arising from their natural activity, are very long-lived. Most of the small birds, though they live not so long, are still more active; and, of consequence, their happiness is proportionably augmented. The

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lives of most insects are very short; but their active enjoyments, during their existence, are almost perpetual. Thus, animals of every denomination appear to have nearly an equal portion of bappiness and of pain bestowed upon them by the beneficent institutions of Nature. Even pain itself is no inconsiderable cause of pleasure; for, when abated or entirely removed, the pleasures arising from these fortunate circumstances are immense.

CHAP.



#### CHAPTER IX.

# Of Poisonous Animals.

poison, it ought to be remarked, is a relative term. Substances which are deleterious or hurtful to one species of animals, afford the most falutary food to others. The bite of the common viper is very poisonous, and its effects are various to man, as well as to many other animals. But broth made of vipers is often prescribed by phyficians in cases of consumption and of general weakness. I suppose, however, that the heads, which are the chief, or rather the only receptacles of the poison, are cut off before the animals are boiled; for FONTANA, that justly celebrated Naturalist, who made more experiments upon the nature and effects of poisons than any man either before or after his time, has shown, that the venomous liquid, even when taken into the stomach, and without the intervention of any wound, is extremely dangerous and hurtful. REDI, and some other authors, maintain a contrary opinion. But FONTANA, with much probability, attributes these innocuous effects to the smallness of the quantities thrown into the stomach at one time.

The venom of all vipers, of which there are many species, when introduced, by means of a bite, into the bodies of men and other animals,

animals, is extremely hurtful, and, if not timely prevented, is certainly mortal. The Abbé FONTANA, anxious to discover a remedy to remove, or rather prevent, the dicadful effects of this animal poison, tried, often at the hazard of his own life, several thousand experiments on this subject. In the course of these, he found, that oils, and particularly that of turpentine, were the most effectual in preventing the too often fatal effects of poisoned wounds occasioned by the bite of vipers. The best method of applying this remedy, he tells us from his own experience, which was great, is to foment the part affected with oil of turpentine as hot as the patient can conveniently bear, and to continue this application a long time. thinks it also of use to keep the part affected immersed in water, either pure or impregnated, with some of the neutral salts, or with quicklime. These applications lessen the pain and inflammation. He likewife found that vomits had some effect in preventing the danger, but cutting out the wounded part, as foon as possible after the accident, was always the most effectual remedy, because it prevented the poison from being absorbed into the general circulation of the mass of blood, which infallibly produces death. method of care is practifed with equal fuccess upon sheep, horses, and black cattle, who are much more liable, when browfing on heaths, to be wounded by vipers than the human species.

Upon this subject, a curious and extraordinary fact must not be omitted. That infignisheant and inactive infect called the fresh water polypus, of all poisonous animals, seems to possess the most powerful and active venom. Small water-worms, which the polypus is only able to attack, are so tenacious of life, that they may be cut to pieces without their seeming to receive any material injury, or to suffer much pain from the incisions. But the poison of the polypus

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polypus instantly extinguishes every principle of life and motion. What is fingular, the mouth or lips of the polypus have no sooner touched this worm than it expires. No wound, however, is to be perceived in the dead animal. By experiments made with the best microscopes, it has been found, that the polypus is neither provided with teeth, nor any other instrument that could pierce the skin

The *spider*, which feeds upon flies, wasps, and similar insects, is furnished with a very sharp hooked forceps, placed near the mouth. With this weapon he seizes and pieces the slesh of such insects as entangle themselves in his web; and, at the same instant, by means of a small white proboscis, he insuses a poisonous juice into the wound, which, in a moment, kills the animal. This poison must be very active and deleterious; for slies, and many other insects, may be mutilated by depriving them of their legs, wings, and even cutting their bodies through the very middle of the abdomen, and, in that condition, will survive several days, as I have frequently experienced. I never prosecuted the experiment so far as to know whether any of the lopped off parts would be reproduced.

The poisonous weapons of the fcolapendra, or centibes, are somewhat different from those of the spider. Its bite is so painful, especially in the East Indies, as we are informed by Bontius, that it makes the patient almost mad. When the claws of its sorceps are examined by a microscope, on the upper side of each of them, near the point, a small aperture appears, through which the venom is conveyed into the wound. Of the East India centipes, Leev-wenners † had one sent to him alive; and he found, that, by pressing

<sup>\*</sup> Abbé Fontana on Poisons, vol. 1. p. 106. Trans.

<sup>†</sup> Continuatio Arcan. Natur. epist. 124.

preffing the claw, a small drop of liquor issued out of this aper-ture.

Stinging animals, of which the scorpion is the chief, likewise instil a liquor into the wounds they make. The poison of scorpions is more or less virulent in proportion to the heat of the countries they inhabit. In some parts of Africa, its effects are so dreadful, and these horrible reptiles so numerous, that LEO tells us, the town of Pescara is annually almost totally deserted by the inhabitants in the summer months; because inevitable death is the consequence of the scorpion's sting \*. Signor REDI, when residing at Florence, had several African scorpions sent him from Tunis. They arrived in the month of November; and he irritated them to sting pigeons, pullets, &cc. without discovering the smallest symptoms of uncasiness in these animals. But, what is singular, on the approach of spring, one of the scorpions, which had remained no less than eight months without food, and the wound of whose sting was formerly attended with no bad effects, stung to death two pigeons successively. A third and fourth, however, though wounded in the same manner, received no injury. But the fame scorpion, after being allowed to rest all night, killed another pigeon next morning. At the point of the sting, REDI often observed a small drop of white liquor, which entered the animal's body along with the sling. This liquid venom, it should appear, is not secreted from the blood and other juices of the animal, during the cold months of winter. The operation of cold is also greatly affifted by abstinence from food. Benumbed with cold, and half-starved for want of food, how is it to be expected that the animal's fluids should retain their former vigour and activity, far less that they should be able to afford a liquor so highly exalted as to deprive other creatures of life? Like certain fluids of other animals, which are secreted in small quantities only, the sling of the scorpion, even in the hottest months of summer, after two or three attacks, is perfectly inossensive, till the expenditure of this deleterious liquor has again been replaced by the operation of food and of time.

In the history of the feorpion, a remarkable circumstance must not be omitted. We are informed by gentlemen of veracity, who had lived feveral years in Barbary, that, when a scorpion is surrounded with a circle of burning coals or wood, and the animal begins to be pained with the heat, it runs about violently in quest of fome mode of escape; but, finding that impossible, it strikes itself two or three times on the back parts with its fling, by which wounds its life is immediately extinguished. We are likewise told, that this is a common amusement among the soldiers of Gibraltar, where these noxious animals abound. This self-murder, produced by pain and despair, indicates two curious inflinds; 1. That the scorpion is sensible of his dangerous situation; and, 2. That he knows the mode of getting quit of a painful and desperate existence. This fact likewife decides another controverly, whether poisonous animals of the fame species can kill another by an insusion of their venom. fame fact is exhibited by the viper. Dr HERMAN, when transporting three large vipers in one glass, two of them were killed during the voyage by fighting and biting each other with their poisonous fangs; and the learned RHODIUS observed, at Padua, that two scorpions, which were put into the same glass, fought with their stings, and one of them first killed the other, and then devoured it.

The structure of the stings of bees, wasps, hornets, &c. has been Vol. II.

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accurately

accurately described by several authors, and particularly by Hooker and Reaumur. Even with the naked eye, a person may sometimes perceive a bee discharge the venom from its sting; which is rendered still more perspicuous by a common magnifying glass. As the stings of these, and many other smaller insects, often produce inflammation and pain, these essects may be very soon prevented or removed by sucking out the instilled poisonous drop with the mouth; but, it this has been neglected, somenting the part affected with worm oil and discutient ointments, as in the bite of the viper, seldom fails to be a complete cure.

We shall now make a few remarks upon the bite of that enormous species of spider denominated the tarantula. It is very frequent in, and infests that warm district of Italy called Apulia. BAGLIVI, a native of that country, and a well known and learned physician, published a long differtation on this subject. After BAGLIVI, LUDOVICUS VALETTA, a Celestine monk of Apulia, tavoured the world with a treatife concerning this dangerous spider †.

The tarantula is a spider of that species which has eight eyes and eight legs, sour on each side, and three joints in every leg. From the mouth proceed two sharp darts similar to a hooked forceps, or the claws of a crab, by which the animal can easily pierce the skin; and, after the wound is inslicted, the tarantula, by means of a proboscis situated between the claws of the sourceps, instils a drop of a most active venom, which resists the operation of the usual alexipharmic medicines; for, notwithstanding the repeated use of them, the patient is affected with a gradually increasing melancholy, grows perfectly

<sup>\*</sup> Sec Baglevi de Praxi Medica, et Dissertationes, Romae, 1696.

<sup>+</sup> De Phalangio Apulo Opusculum, Neapoli, 1706.

perfectly stupid and timorous, and, in a short time, expires. By. what accident or fortunate thought an almost certain cure for the bite of the tarantula was first discovered, it is of little moment to inquire. But it is an unquestionable fact, that music is the only effectual remedy. At the first found of a musical instrument, if the tune happens to rouse the attention and strike the fancy of the patients, though lying motionless, as in a fit of apoplectic stupor, they gradually begin to move their hands and feet, and at last get up, and, for three or four homs, dance with wonderful vigour and agility, which occasions profuse sweatings. They are then put to bed for a short time, and afterwards renew their dancing with the same spirit and vehemence. Instead of being exhausted by this violent exercise, the patients declare, and show by their exertions, that, inflead of fatiguing them, the more they dance they become the stronger and the more nimble. In this exercise, the persons bit by the tarantula generally occupy twelve hours a day, and continue it for three or four days, when all fymptoms of diffrefs are completely removed. It is not every species of music which excites patients: for fome are ftruck with one kind, and fome with another. One is roused with a flute, another with a timbrel; one with a harp, and another with the violin. The muficians, accordingly, are obliged to make a variety of trials before they can accommodate their art to the minds of the fufferers. But we are assured by REDI, MEAD, FONTANA, &c. that brisk and chearful tunes produce the most inflantaneous and happy effects; but that flow and melancholy airs have not the smallest influence. Whilst the tarantali, as they are called, or persons who have been bit by the tarantula, are dancing to music, they seem to lose all sense of modesty and decorum; they perform many ridiculous tricks, and talk in the most obscene man-Heat exalts, and, of courfe, augments the dangers ariting

from every species of animal-poison. Apulia is the hottest district of Italy; and, accordingly, the bite of the tarantula there produces more violent effects than in any other part of that country. The inhabitants of Apulia, from the heat of the climate, conjoined. perhaps, with some other circumstances, are generally meagre, passionate, witty, and, in an uncommon degree, subject to inflammatory diseases, phrensies, melancholy, and other species of madness, are informed by Dr MEAD, who collected his facts from the most respectable authorities, that, in other countries, causes which produce only a flight melancholy, occasion the most deplorable effects ' Women,' he remarks, 'in a chlorofis, fuffer almost in Apulia. ' the same symptoms as persons poisoned by the tarantula do, and ' are cured the fame way; and, in like manner, the venom of the ' fcorpion does here, in effects and cure, agree very much with that ' of this spider \*.'

From these, and many other instances of salutary effects of music in removing diseases produced by animal-poisons, it is amazing that this remedy is so seldom tried by our modern physicians. In many species of melancholy and madness, from whatever causes they originate, the effects of different kinds of music might at least be tried. If a person labouring under a deep melancholy could be excited to dance with spirit, and even with some violence, profuse sweats would be induced, and, probably, as in cases of mania occationed by the bites or slings of poisonous animals, these sweats would expel the noxious cause from the system. Music might even be tried in the paroxysms of madness. If it should be found, which is by no means improbable, that music allays or cools the over-heated animal sluids, and, consequently, the turbulence of the mind,

<sup>•</sup> Mead on Poisone, p. 108

mind, this cure would be infinitely more humane than the cocrcions of firait waificoats, firipes, &c. which are, perhaps, too commonly prescribed even by the best physicians.

Ideas of this kind should not be despised. The antients, with great wisdom and ingenuity, employed music as a cure, or, at least, as an alleviating remedy in almost every kind of madness. We are informed by a Jewish historian \*, that SAUL, then King of the Jews, was afflicted with an evil spirit sent from the LORD; that is, the man was mad. What I think exceedingly curious, and shows the general opinion among those people concerning the falutary effects of music in mental discases, is, that even the servants of SAUL, when he was frantic, recommended tunes on the barp as the most effec-The passige is so remarkable, that I cannot refrain from transcribing it. ' And SAUL's tervants said unto him, Behold now ' an evil spirit from Gop troubleth thec: Let our lord now com-' mand thy fervants, which are before thee, to feek out a man who ' is a cunning player on an barp: And it shall come to pass, when ' the evil spirit from God is upon thee, that he shall play with his ' hand, and thou shalt be well. And SAUL answered one of his fer-' vants, and faid, Behold, I have feen a fon of Jesse the Bethlehem-' ite, that is cunning in playing.—Wherefore SAUL fent messengers ' unto JESSE, and faid, Send me DAVID thy fon, which is with the ' sheep. And Jesse took an ass laden with bread, and a bottle of ' wine, and a kid, and fent them by DAVID his fon unto SAUL. ' And DAVID came to SAUL, and stood before him; and he loved ' him greatly, and he became his armour-bearer. And SAUL fent to ' JESSE, faying, Let DAVID, I pray thee, stand before me; for he ' hath found favour in my fight. And it came to pale, when the

c cul

'evil spirit from God was upon Saul, that David took an barp, and played with his hand: So Saul was refreshed, and was well, and the evil spirit departed from him \*.' This is all well; but, from the following part of the history, we learn that David was not only cunning in playing on the barp, but that he was equally cunning in politics; for, in a short time afterwards, he barped poor Saul both out of his kingdom and his life.

The old Greeks and Romans seem to have understood the effects of music in alleviating and even curing particular diseases. We are told by GALEN, an antient, and, to this day, a most celebrated phyfician, 'that ÆSCULAPIUS used to recover those, in whom violent 6 motions of the mind had induced a hot temperament of body, by e melody and fongs †.' PINDAR, in one of his odes, takes notice of the fame happy effects produced by music; and Dr Mead very properly remarks, that, from these and similar facts, not only the notion but the term of charming (a carmine) feems to have derived its origin †. THEOPHRASTUS, in his Treatise on Enthusiasm, informs us, that ischiadic pains were cured by the Phrygian melody. This fpecies of music was performed upon the pipe, and was the most vehement and exhibitating that was known among the antients; for it fometimes excited the hearers to what had the appearance of maniacal and furious exertions of body |, which perfectly corresponds with the effects of mulic in expelling the venom of the tarantula. Beside the effects of music upon the minds of persons labouring under certain diseases, some of the antient physicians carried this prac-

tice

<sup>1</sup> Samuel, chap. 16. verte 15. to the end

De Sanit. Tuenda, lib. 1. cap. 3.

<sup>4</sup> Mead on Poisons, p. 123.

A Bartholin, de blbus viec 1, x c o

## OF MATURAL HISTORY.



tice farther, and placed the instrument upon the part affected. CAE-LIUS AURELIANUS denominates this application of music, decanture loca dolentia; and adds, that the pain is mitigated and often discussed by the tremblings and palpitations of the diseased part \*. Au-LUS GELLIUS mentions this same cure of ischiadic complaints, and subjoins, from THEOPHRASTUS, 'that the music of a pipe, rightly managed, healed the bites of vipers †.'

APOLLONIUS tells us, that music cured distractions of mind, epilepsies, and many other distempers \( \). As to this fact, he is joined by Democritus, who taught, that the music of pipes was the proper medicine for many discales \( \); which Thales of Crete confirmed by his practice. When sent for by the Lacedemonians to remove the pestilence from them, he is said to have done it by the operation of music \( \). All these instances show, at least, that music was very antiently employed as a remedy both in mental as well as corporeal diseases. Caelius Aurelianus ascribes the invention of this cure to Pythagoras, who settled and sounded his sect in that very part of Italy where the tarantulae are most frequent, which was then called Graecia Magna, and now Calabria.

With regard to the dreadful effects produced by the bite of a mad dog, we shall make only a few remarks. The terrible disease it occasions is generally known by the appellation of bydrophobia, or dread of water. The wound from the bite of a mad dog, at first, differs

not

<sup>\*</sup> Morb. chronic. lib. 5. cap. 1

<sup>+</sup> Noct. Attic. lib. 4. cap. 13.

J Histor, Mirab.l.

<sup>||</sup> Apud Aul. Gell. loc. citat

Plutarch. de Musica.

not from that of any other animal, and heals as foon; for a confidevable, time, often clapses before any symptoms of madness appears Instances are recorded where the difease was deferred till two, three, or fix months after the wound was inflicted. I myself knew a case where the wound did not show itself till full twelve months after the bite. This case was that of JAMES POLLOCK, a blacksmith and athletic person, in the suburbs of Edinburgh. As soon as symptoms of madness appeared, he was carried to the Royal Infirmary, where, in a few days, he died of an evident bydrophobia. GALEN tells us, that he saw a case of hydrophobia more than a year after the wound was received \*. Dr MEAD, who had great practice as well as skill with regard to the effects of different poisons, informs us, that he knew a case of this disease more than cleven months after the fatal accident. He adds, however, that the attack generally happens in thirty or forty days, and sometimes, especially in young people, in fifteen or fixteen. The first approaches of this distemper are commonly discoverable by an acute pain in the part that had been wounded, which gradually extends to the adjacent parts, and is followed by a general laffitude, and an uncafiness in the limbs. The patient then grows melancholy; his fleep is diffurbed and unrefreshing; he complains of faintness and of depressed spirits, and especially of an oppression at his breast; his pulse intermits; his nerves and members tremble; he is affected with cold sweats, a great sickness, and loaths every species of food. Though he feels an inward heat and thirst. and wishes to drink; yet he swallows meat, but particularly liquors, with the utmost difficulty. These symptoms proceed increasing in their violence; and, the next day, from the pain he feels in swallowing, he conceives such an aversion to liquide, that the very sight of them throws him into dreadful convultions. This bydrophebia has always

<sup>\*</sup> Comment. 2 in 1. Prorrhet. Hippocrat.

always been confidered as an infallible symptom of a person's being affected by the poison proceeding from the bite of a mad dog; for it seldom, if ever, appears in any other disease.

At this period of the distemper, a fever usually comes on, which is attended with a quick but low pulse. The patient cannot command the smallest degree of sleep; his voice turns hoarse; a white froth collects in his mouth, which he spits out upon the people about him; universal convulsions succeed, but particularly in the throat, and in the musculi erectores penis, which produce a continued priapsim. During this dismal scene, which is generally satal in the course of two or three days, a delirium appears, sometimes attended with the most dreadful paroxysms of rage and sury, and frequent attempts of the patients to injure their most beloved friends and relations. But this disease, instead of suror, more commonly terminates in a deep melancholy. In this situation, the unhappy but humane patient, resigns himself to the quick approaches of death, and desires his attendants to beware lest he should hurt them, begs them not to trouble him any more, and, in a short time, expires in convulsions.

This cruel and terrifying disease is taken notice of by many of the antients, such as DIOSCORIDES, GALEN, AETIUS, ÆGINETA, &cc. None of them, however, have described it so accurately, and with so much precision, as CAELIUS AURELIANUS\*. From the writings of SORANUS, and other Greek physicians, he has collected the symptoms of this disease with great care and exactness. Among the moderns, the history of this malady is ably delivered to us by VANDER WIEL †, and the ingenious Dr Lester ‡. There are some symptoms of this disease with great care and exactness.

De Morbis acutis, lib. 3.

<sup>+</sup> Observat. varior. cent. 1. obs. 100.

t Exercit. Medicinal.

toms, though with occasional variations; are common to all persons infected with this deleterious poison. . The slightest touch of any part of their bodies is painful. The finallest noise is offensive to their ears; and the opening or shutting of a door terrifies them as much as if the house were falling upon them. Light is so hurtful to the eyes, that even the fight of any white substance becomes intolerable. The internal parts are likewise so tender and easily affected, that they cannot bear their natural fimuli. The ordinary coolness of fresh air is disagreeable to the lungs; and the passage of urine is accompanied with great pain. The aspect of the sufferers is either frightful with. threatening symptoms of rage and fury, or dull, depressed, and attended with moanings and every indication of despair. When the patient is maniacal, the strength of the muscles is almost incredible. Dr MEAD mentions a case of a man who was tied down in bed with firms gords; but such was the convulsive force of his muscles, that he broke the whole by one great exertion, and immediately died paralytic. But such exertions of strength are not peculiar to canine In every species of mania, from whatever cause it originates, when an actual furor comes on, the exertions of mulcular force The cause of this increased force of muscular action are prodigious. in obvious. In madness, the sense of pain is either almost extinguished, or, which amounts to the fame thing, is not attended to by the patient. Whenever the fense of pain is blunted or obliterated, nothing but actual tearing the tendons or muscular fibres can put an end to their mechanical powers. Men, when not disordered in mind, are obliged to defift from overfiretching their muscles by the pain it produces.

With regard to the cure of this horrible distemper, it accords not with my plan to be very particular. When evident symptoms of canine

nine madness once exhibit themselves, the skill of the physician, as well as the virtues of medicines, are totally inessected. But, whenever a person is bit by a dog who is, perhaps, only supposed to be mad, medical practitioners, with great propriety, employ preventative remedies, the principal of which I shall just mention.

The wounded part is the first object of attention. The antient physicians \*, who, in this article, are still followed by the moderns †, advised, where the part would admit of it, that the wound should be enlarged by incision; that a cupping-glass should be applied; that the wound should be feared with a hot iron; and that a discharge from the ulcer should be artificially kept up for many stays. Two or three preventative remedies are recommended upon seemingly rational grounds: The cineres cancrorum fluviatilium, or ashes of the river craw-fish, have been often celebrated. These were procured by burning the fish alive upon a plate of copper, with a fire made of the twigs of white briony. GALEN avers, that this remedy was never employed without fuccess. Before the days of GALEN, DIOSCO-RIDES tells us I, that this plant is a medicine, the efficacy of which may be relied upon. A spoonful or two of this calcined powder were given to the patient every day; and the same dose was continued for forty days. It was used either alone, or mixed with a small porportion of gentian root and frankincense.

The Spongia, vel Cynorrhodi, Rosae sylvestris, the sponge of the dog-rose, is another celebrated antidote against canine as well as other animal poisons. P. BACCONE ||, who wrote a treatise upon

Galen. de Ther. ad Pris. lib. 1. cap. 16. Actius, lib. 6. cap. 14. Celsus, lib. 5. cap. 27. A Hildan. Obs cent: 1. obs. 87. De Therlac. cap. 2.

<sup>3</sup> Musco de plante rare, obs. 2.

its virtues, informs us, that, in Sicily, it has received the denomination of Sanatodos, or All-beal. The plant Alyfum, or Madwort, among the antients, had its name from its great efficacy in preventing canine madnefs. Garlie, Agrimony, and Oxylapathum, were likewife employed with advantage. Dr MEAD justly remarks, that all these remedies are powerful diuretics.

Most insects, especially when taken internally, create an unusual discharge of urine: But those slies, known by the name of Cantharides, have a more powerful effect in promoting this evacuation than any other species. The learned Baccius\*, from the authority of Rhazes and Joannes Damascenus, prescribes Cantharides to be given in substance for many days successively. This antidote, as he calls it, is prepared by infusing the slies in sour butter-milk twenty-sour hours, then drying them, and, with the flour of lentils and wine, making them up into troches of about a scruple in weight, one of which is to be taken every day. Even though the patient, he adds, by the use of this medicine, should pass urine mixed with blood, yet copious draughts of milk removes that symptom, and the bydrophobia is happily prevented. We are likewise informed by Baccone, that the physicians in Upper Hungary prescribe five Cantharides as a dose to men, and a greater quantity to larger animals †.

ARTIUS ‡, who carefully collected all the medicines prescribed by the antient physicians for preventing or curing canine madness, affirms, that he himself knew an old man who cured those who had the missortone to be bit with common forrel only. He washed the wound with a decoction of this plant, and laid it on the part as a cataplasm, and likewise

<sup>\*</sup> De Venen. p. 89.

<sup>+</sup> Museo di fisica, obf. 21.

<sup>1</sup> Lib. 6. cap. 24.

likewife gave it in drink, which made the patient discharge great quantities of turbid urine.

From all these and similar accounts, it appears that the remedies against the effects of this posson have, in all ages, been strong discretics. By reflecting on this circumstance, the celebrated Dr MEAD was led to recommend the following prescription: ' Let the patient be blooded at the arm nine or ten ounces. Take of the herb cal-'led, in Latin, Lichen cinereus terrestris; in English, Ash-coloured ground liver-wort, cleaned, dried, and powdered, half an ounce ;of black pepper powdered, two drachms: Mix them well together, and divide the powder into four doses, one of which must be taken every morning, fasting for four mornings successively, in half a pint of cow's milk warm. After these four doses are taken, the patient 6 must go into the cold bath, or a cold spring or river, every morning fasting, for a month: He must be dipped all over, but stay in (with his head above water) longer than half a minute, if the water be very cold. After this, he must go in three times a week for a fortnight longer \*.'

This remedy was first published in the Philosophical Transactions of London †, by Mr Dampier, in whose family it had been long, and, of course, infamously kept a secret. In the year 1721, however, Dr Mead, like a gentleman and a man of humanity, procured it to be inserted in the *Pharmacopeia Londinensis*, under the name of *Pulvis antilyssus*. This Lichen, like the other medicines formerly recommended, is a strong diuretic. To this prescription Dr Mead added cold bathing, either in the sea or river water, according to the situation

<sup>\*</sup> Mead on Poisons, p. 164.

<sup>+</sup> No. 237.

tion and circumstances of the patient. The antients also had the idea of curing canine madness by cold bathing. But, instead of employing it as a preventative, they never used it till evident symptoms of hydrophobia appeared, when it was perfectly ineffectual. Besides, their practice often amounted nearly to actual drowning, which, to be fure, would remove every disease as well as the bydrophobia. Celsus\*, who was a bold as well as a skilful physician, prescribes cold bathing as the only certain cure for this dreadful disease; and advises, that, if the patient cannot swim, he should be allowed to remain some time under the water, that he may swallow part of the fluid; and, if he can swim, that he should be kept under by force, in order to compel him to drink. Dr MEAD remarks, that this practice is just drowning and recovering by turns t. We are told by the famous VAN HELMONT ‡, that he faw an old man, who had been feized with the hydrophobia, cured by submerfion in salt water; that this patient was first held under water about four minutes, then taken out, and again plunged twice, about a minute each time; that, when taken out, he was thought to be quite dead; but that, by warmth, and by being laid across a barrel, he threw up the water he had been obliged to fwallow, and recovered both his life and right fenses! The same author tells a story of a cure of the common mania by drowning the patient in fresh water; from which he draws this fage conclusion, that it makes no difference in the case whether the water be falt or fresh! Such medical practice may be reckoned bold, as it certainly is; for, to drown any perfon will most effectually remove all his complaints! It is associating that the learned Dr MEAD, within less than fifty years ago, should have related seriously stories almost equally ridiculous in substance,

programme and the

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. 5. cap. 27.

<sup>+</sup> Mead on Poisons, p. 172.

<sup>1</sup> Ortus Medicin. demens idea.

as they are absurd in the terms he employs; but so it is \*! The Doctor, however, afterwards remarks, that, before the canine madness makes its appearance, simple immersion, without drowning, often prevents this horrible disease †.

Two other preventative remedies have been, by some physicians, highly recommended. 1. What is called the Ormskirk medicine for the bite of a mad dog: It is no part of my business to give specific quantities, because these may be either salse or fanciful. I shall, however, relate the bases of the two supposed remedies.

- 1. The Ormskirk medicine consists of chalk, alum, Armenian bole, the powder of the plant called elacampen, and the oil of anise-feeds.
- 2. The tonquin remedy, which is recommended as an antidote by Sir George Cobb. It is composed of native and factitious cinnabar, compounded with musk.

With regard to the ferpent tribe, which is very numerous, some of them are armed with fangs, through which a mortal poison is conveyed into the bodies of such animals as they happen to bite; but luckily the proportion of these noxious species, when compared to the whole, is very small. The species of serpents described by LINNEUS amount to 218, of which 32 only are poisonous, and, of course, 186 are innocuous. Of lizards, 77 species are enumerated, not one of which contains or emits a particle of venom. The toad is a verrucous animal, has a lurid appearance; his movements

<sup>\*</sup> Mead on Poisons, p. 173.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid. p. 177.

ry process of his body, a factory inhibitance like inivaria. The forbidding afpect of the mad has created him numberless and miles, as well as a very had, though very unjust, character. Wherever he appears, he is perfecuted, maltreated, and murdered, by children, and even by adults, on the supposition, that, because he is an ugly animal, he must therefore be venomous; but, notwithstanding his unseemby appearance, he is inossensive, and perfectly destitute of poison. The same remark applies both to our water and land lizards, of which we have very sew species that are natives of Britain. Still, however, though their aspect is by no means so disgusting as that of the toad, a ridiculous opinion is generally entertained that they are venomous, and they, accordingly, suffer the same perfecution as that innocent animal.

Of venomous animals, I have looked, but looked in vain, for a final cause. What could be the intention of creating reptiles, both abhorrent to the fight, and, by their bites or stings, fatal to men and other animals, I cannot even form a conjecture. Their poison, it has been faid, is given to them as a personal protection. deny; for, even of the ferpent tribes, though the form of their bodies, and their mode of life be nearly the fame, not one in ten of them are provided with this supposed defence. A man, when walking, either for health or amusement, on a grassy turf, accidentally tramples upon a viper; the abominable reptile bites him, instils a poison into the wound, and, if proper remedies are not timely applied, a cruel and inevitable death is the confequence. He will be more than an intelligent man who can demonstrate a final, or, which is the fame thing, a good cause, for such a confequence. Serpents have, in all ages and countries, had the reputation of extraordinary fagacity.

Their aspect, their movements, the idea of their venom, in a word, their whole frame, excite horror. When these circumstances are taken into consideration, what, in the name of wonder, should have induced Moses to represent this vile, this abborrent animal, as a proper object of temptation to what, we must suppose, to have been the finest woman that ever existed? Yet such things are!

## Conclusion of the Philosophy of NATURAL HISTORY.

I HAVE now finished my original plan; with what success I know not. I shall only say, what every intelligent reader will easily perceive, that my labours have been great. Before I began the work, had I known the numerous authors which it was necessary to peruse and consult, I should probably have shrunk back, and given up the attempt as impracticable, especially for a man so carly engaged in the business of life, and the cares resulting from a family of no less than thirteen children, nine of whom are still in life.

In the first and second volumes, I have endeavoured to unfold the general as well as distinctive properties of the vegetable and animal kingdoms. Occasionally, I have done more. I have sometimes given pretty full characters both of the figure, dispositions, and manners of animals. In these descriptive discursions, MAN has not been neglected. Being the principal animal in this planet, he, of course, deserved particular attention, and it has not been Vol. II.

The varieties of the human species, in every region of with-held. the globe, have been collected and described from the most authentic resources both antient and modern. Even in the most uncultivated, and, to us, deplorable fituation of the human race, evident traces of goodness, of genius, and of heroism, are to be found. These amiable qualities, it must be confessed, are too often sullied by cruelty, irrafcible passions, and every species of vice. these qualities are universal, in whatever situation men, whether in a civilized or barbarous state, are placed. The strangest and most unaccountable part of the history of mankind is that of their eating one another; and yet, from the numerous evidences I have produced, it is impossible not to give credit to the shocking fact. reality of buman facrifices is equally certain as the existence of cannibals. The diversity of dispositions, the versatility of genius, the great differences of taste and of pursuits, are strong characters of Man, and distinguish him eminently from all the other inhabitants of this earth.

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