THE PILGRIMAGES OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

THE life of man is frequently termed a pilgrimage; but in the sense in which the word is usually employed, it is applied to a journey undertaken for devotional purposes, or to gratify the interest which remarkable events have excited by a visit to the spot in which they took place. The birth-place or tomb of the truly illustrious is equally calculated to stir up emotions of deeper interest than those to which the mind is capable of rising when it is not operated upon by the recollection that here the men themselves acted their part in the scene of life, or there their ashes are deposited. Dr. Johnson, who visited Icolmkill, one of the western islands of Scotland, which, in remote ages, was, as he says, the "luminary of the Caledonian regions," thus speaks of the nature of those emotions to which we have alluded:—"To abstract the mind," he says, "from all local emotions would be impossible, if it were endeavored, and would be foolish, if it were possible. Whatever draws us from the power of our senses,—whatever makes the past, the distant, or the future, predominate over the present, advances us in the dignity of thinking beings. That man is little to be envied whose patriotism would not gain force upon the plain of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of Iona."

The places to which the Christian pilgrims of the middle ages chiefly resorted were Rome, Loretto, Jerusalem, Compostella in Spain, and the local shrines with which every part of Christendom abounded. Two pilgrimages to a neighboring shrine were equivalent to one visit to another at double the distance. Those who were unable to make long journeys gave money to assist the poorer pilgrims on their way. A dream or vision was frequently the preliminary of a pilgrimage; and the belief was general, that if certain pilgrimages were not made during life they must be performed after death. Southey remarks, in one of his minor poems,—

> "Some went for payment of a vow,
> In time of trouble made;
> And some who found that pilgrimage
> Was a pleasant sort of trade."

All classes—from the king to the peasant—from the archbishop to the humblest clerk—bent beneath the custom of the times.

The Holy Land was resorted to by pilgrims as early as the fourth century. The passage to Asia by land was subsequently closed in consequence of the hostility of the Hungarians, and Rome and Loretto then attracted the greatest number of pilgrims. In the eighth century the Anglo-Saxons made frequent pilgrimages to Rome; and at an earlier period than this, Cadwallader, King of Wales, founded a hospital at Rome for Welsh pilgrims. The great jubilees of the church drew to Rome large numbers both of sinners and devotees, for at these festivals plenary indulgences were granted for the remission of all sins. Indulgences of a less extensive nature were granted at all periods to those who made a pilgrimage to the holy relic called the Veronique, or Vernicle.

SCALLOP SHELL OF THE PILGRIMS.

The church of Loretto was in high repute during the middle ages as an efficacious resort for pilgrims; and at particular seasons there were frequently not fewer than 200,000 visiting it at once. They formed processions round the "Palace of our Lady," as it was called; and some went round it on their knees five, nine, or a dozen times, according to the importance with which they were pleased to invest any particular number.

In the fifteenth century the pilgrimage to St. James, or Santiago of Compostella, the patron-saint of Spain, was quite a passion among all classes, and the local shrines were comparatively forsaken. Charlemagne had caused the place to be made the seat of a bishopric; and afterwards, through the influence of Ferdinand and Isabella, who founded a hospital there for pilgrims, it was erected into an archbishopric. The number of English pilgrims who visited Compostella in the fifteenth century was very great.

The pilgrimage to Palestine, the scene of sacred history, had the most important influence on the religious spirit of the middle ages, and was sanctioned by the most rational motives. In the present day the Holy Land may properly be regarded as one of the most interesting portions of the globe which a traveler can visit, while the glories of Compostella and Loretto have long since departed. Jerusalem had been visited from an early period of Christianity by devout Christians. The anticipated termination of the world with the arrival of the thousandth year of the present era, strongly directed men's minds to religious subjects. A natural impulse of gratitude, when it was found that after this dreaded period the world went on as before, led men to visit the scenes distinguished in the history of the Saviour. The conversion of the Hungarians from paganism to Christianity—an event which was hailed with rapture by all Christendom—contributed to increase the religious excitement which was prevalent. Sharon Turner, in his History of England during the Middle Ages, says that in the eleventh century the inferior orders, on whom natural feelings always first operate, began the peregrination. Their return and conversation excited the middle ranks to imitate them; and at last nobles, ladies, and kings imbibed the passion, and traversed Europe and Asia to Jerusalem. The pilgrims were received by the patriarch, and with a solemn procession were led amid the thunder of cymbals and immense splendor of lights to the church of the Holy Sepulchre. Jerusalem was at this period in the possession of the Mohammedans, who often maltreated the pilgrims with impunity, and refused them permission to enter the city without the payment of a tribute. Wasted as they were with the hardships of so long a journey, when the means of traveling were very imperfect, their resources exhausted by the tolls which they had paid in crossing bridges and entering towns, and by the cost of providing themselves with necessaries on the road, their condition was frequently deplorable in the extreme. William of Tyre says that there was scarcely one out of a thousand who reached Jerusalem who could support himself. Towards the close of the eleventh century, Peter the Hermit made the pilgrimage to Palestine, and was so deeply touched by the sufferings of the pilgrims, and indignant at the conduct of the infidels who held possession of the city, that on his return he roused all Europe to that great movement of the middle ages, called the Crusades or the Holy War, which to a great extent partook of the nature of a pilgrimage.

The above-mentioned places were the principal resorts of pilgrims from the various countries of Europe. There were in England, however, and also in the rest of Europe, local shrines which were visited under a great variety of circumstances. Strutt says that it seems to have been almost as fashionable in the days of Chaucer to visit the tomb of some favorite saint, as it now is to frequent the different watering-places; and the Rev. T. D. Fosbroke, in noticing the custom, in his work on British Monachism, mentions some of the circumstances which occasioned the practice to be so common. Shrines were visited before making a voyage, to ensure the prayers of the saint for safety. To some shrines annual pilgrimages were made; and others were only resorted to as events occurred or were anticipated, which rendered it of interest to the parties concerned to visit them A visit to the shrine of Becket was considered of universal efficacy. His skull encased in silver was shown to the pilgrims, and the blade of the weapon with which he was killed, and other relics. The shrine was extremely rich in offerings, which were exhibited through a strong grating by a prior with a white wand.

We are chiefly indebted to the Rev. Mr. Fosbroke's work for the subsequent information relative to the costume of pilgrims. He states that they were peculiarly designated by the scrip, the staff or bourdon, palmer's staff, scarf, sclavina, hat, rosary, and scrobula.

The scrip was derived from the Egyptian monks, and was usually a leathern pouch or wallet, attached to the scarf, and used for containing provisions and other necessaries. Thus Chaucer says,—

"In scrippe he bore both bread and leaks."

Charlemagne wore a golden scrip when he made the pilgrimage to Rome. The term scrip was sometimes applied to the whole of the articles which a pilgrim carried along with him. A sack instead of a scrip is mentioned as being carried by a poor female pilgrim. The scarf was simply a leathern thong or belt.

A bourdon was a long staff with a knob in the middle, and without a cross at the top, though in theatrical representations one is erroneously affixed. This staff was sometimes excavated into a rude piece of music, the sound from which was an accompaniment to the singing with which pilgrims beguiled the tedium of their journey. In Germany, walking-sticks are made which serve as tubes for pipes, with a compressing pump at one end to obtain fire, or fitted up as telescopes. A walking-stick may be used for such a variety of purposes, that we may easily believe, though it is not quite satisfactorily proved, that the bourdon staff of the pilgrims was formed into a musical instrument. Southey has alluded to the fact in the following lines:

"And the staff was holed and bored for those
Who on a flute could play,
And thus the merry pilgrim had
His music on the way."

From a dialogue between a disciple of Wicliffe and Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of Henry IV., it would appear that the pilgrims were sometimes accompanied by less simple music than that of a hollowed staff. The Archbishop defends the practice against some insinuations, and states that "pilgrims have with them both singers and also pipers, that when one of them goeth barefoot and striketh his foot against a stone, and

maketh him to bleed, it is well done that he or his fellow begin then a song, or else take out of his bosom a bagpipe for to drive away with such mirth the hurt of his fellow: for with such solace the travail and weariness of pilgrims is lightly and merrily brought forth." The palmer's staff was made of palm and was borne by those who returned from Palestine. We may here state the difference which, according to Mr. Fosbroke, distinguished the palmer from the pilgrim. A pilgrim had a fixed residence, a palmer had none; a pilgrim went to a fixed place, a palmer to none in particular; a pilgrim went at his own expense, a palmer professed voluntary poverty, and frequently ended life as a hermit.

The sclavina was a long coarse robe. The scrobula was the robe worn by female pilgrims, and, with the exception of closer sleeves, similar to the sclavina. The rosary was a string of beads which the pilgrim ran over as he repeated his prayers. The hat was broad brimmed, turned up in front, and something like the hats often worn by infants. Sometimes the pilgrim's hat was slung at his back, and a substitute for shooting off the wet was used to supply its place.

The pilgrim from Rome, from Jerusalem, or Compostella, was distinguished by variations of costume peculiar to each pilgrimage. The Jerusalem pilgrims wore the signs of Sinai, which were relics brought from thence. Those who had made a pilgrimage to Rome wore a cloak marked with cross-keys and the veronique or vernicle. The scallop-shell which the pilgrims wore in the front of their hats was, properly speaking, peculiar to the Compostella pilgrimage. Fuller therefore is not correct in assigning the use of this shell to pilgrims generally, on the ground that "it was oft cup and dish to them in Palestine." Southey's notes to the "Pilgrims to Compostella" contain an old monkish legend which gives the origin of scallop-shells being worn by the pilgrims to the shrine of the Spanish saint. Popes Alexander III., Gregory IX., and Clement X. granted a faculty to the Archbishop of Compostella that they might excommunicate those who sold these shells any where except in the city of Santiago, and in these documents the reason assigned is, that the scallop-shell is the badge of the Apostle Santiago. In the church of St. Clement at Rome there is a picture of Santiago, apparently more than 500 years old, which is decorated with scallop-shells. The scallop-shell in a coat-of-arms shows that some of the bearer's line have visited the shrine of St. James. The cut represents one of these shells, on which St. Joseph, with a staff of palm in his hand, and carrying the infant Jesus, has been worked in bas-relief.

Before setting out on a pilgrimage, confession of sins was made, which being concluded, the future pilgrim prostrated himself before the altar. Certain prayers were then said, after which the scrip and staff were solemnly consecrated; and the pilgrim was clothed in his appropriate costume. In the form of prayers in use before the Reformation, the people were bid to pray "for all true pilgrims and palmers that have taken their way to Rome, to Jerusalem," &c. Mr. Fosbroke says that in Normandy, a pilgrim who had received the sanction and blessing of the church, was led out of the parish in procession, accompanied by the cross and holy water; and on the return from pilgrimage it was in most countries the custom to go to the church to thank God for their happy success; and in proof of the fulfilment of their vows to proffer palms or branches of that tree to the priest, who placed them on the altar. These ceremonies would naturally

fall into desuetude when the habit of undertaking pilgrimages became more general.

Pilgrimages to the Holy Land, as a general fashion, ceased about the time of Henry V. The growing activity of commerce supplied a new motive for visiting foreign lands. But pilgrimages had not been without their use in the advancement of civilization.

St. Jerome noticed that pilgrims conveyed news. "In one summer (he says) Britain has learned what the Egyptian and Parthian have known in the spring." It is believed that the drama was first introduced into France from Italy by Pilgrims. Mr. Fosbroke says,—"Pilgrimage was a kind of apprenticeship, served in various places, in order to acquire a stock of novel ecclesiastical customs and knowledge." At a time when commerce employed but a few individuals, there would have been no inducement to visit other countries if men had not been actuated by the religious spirit. But this operated upon the mass of the people, and sent them to gather the various lessons of civilization and improvement which each country respectively furnished.

The standard by which the state of one country may be compared with that of another was rendered more enlarged and varied by the habit of visiting distant shrines; and a comparatively rude people were enabled to obtain by this means, some of the benefits of a superior civilization. Sharon Turner remarks, that "the habit of pilgrimage, and afterwards of the crusades, increased the taste for study. It was impossible for so many, from all ranks and nations in Europe, to visit the Grecian and Arab states without some conviction of the benefit of superior knowledge. From the account left by Luitprand of the wonders he saw at Constantinople, and of the horse-laugh with which his astonishment was received by the conceited courtiers, it would seem that the saucy Greeks amused themselves with making the western barbarians stare. The specimens of their mechanical skill to which he alludes may have first interested a rude stranger's notice; but their tasteful architecture,—their elegant sculptures,—their fine manuscripts,—their celebrated loquacity,—and the fame of the poets and philosophers who once adorned their name, must have powerfully impressed the attention of many, and have created that feeling of deficiency and that desire of emulation which are the certain parents of improvement." He adds, that a visible improvement took place in England after these pilgrimages had become common, increasing as the crusades increased the intercourse with Constantinople and the East. Schools were established, and architecture and the arts advanced.

STOCKHOLM.

THE beauty and peculiarity of the position on which the capital of Sweden is built, have excited the surprise and admiration of all travelers. It seems to have been selected with a happy reference both to picturesque effect and commercial convenience, and we are unwilling to believe the popular tradition that attributes the choice of the spot to mere

VITY OF STOCKHOLM—SWEDEN.

chance. According to this "say" of the inhabitants, about three centuries and a half ago, the Viceroy Berger Jarl, or Earl Berger, who then governed Sweden, determined to found a city, but instead of fixing the spot from the dictates of judgment and taste, he preferred committing the event to chance. To this end he set a piece of wood or stick afloat down the Mälar lake, wisely determining that at whatever place it should stop, there to build his projected town. A small island arrested the stick in its progress, and the name of Stockholm, which, literally translated, means "Stick-island," is said to have been given it from this circumstance.

Stockholm is built on seven small rocky islands, at the junction of the waters of the Mälar, the most picturesque of all Swedish lakes, with an inlet or arm of the Baltic sea. It in this respect somewhat resembles Venice, but the water that flows between its islets is clearer, and far deeper, than that of the *canali* and *lagune* of the Italian city, admitting the largest ships to sail among the houses. These islands, which are irregularly scattered, are covered with buildings, gardens, and groves, the domes of churches intermingling with oak-trees: at certain points they are connected together by stately bridges, but more direct communications are kept up by means of wherries, that are seen constantly rowing from place to place. A great part of the city stands upon the steep declivity of a very high hill, houses rising above houses like the seats in an amphitheatre. The whole is surmounted by an enormous palace, which Heber thought "as big as five Somerset Houses." Indeed all the houses that meet the eye are large and many-storied, with a common staircase, and generally a family on each floor; they are chiefly of brick, but universally stuccoed or whitewashed. The lower parts of the city that are built of wood, are masked and concealed by the better portions of it. The faubourgs or suburbs, stretch up surrounding elevations on the mainland, to the north and south, and consist principally of gardens, elegant houses, and even beautiful edifices. The northern quarter or suburb, called Norrmalm, is exceedingly handsome, and is traversed in its whole extent by the Drottning-Gatan, or Street of the Queen, which is broad, straight, and upwards of half a mile in length. The other streets are generally winding and narrow, and do not permit of a lengthening perspective of the architecture of the houses, which is mostly in good taste.

But it is not from the streets that one can judge of the beauty of Stockholm; it is on the quays by the water-side, and in the large and numerous squares, that the eye embraces the magnificent features of the Swedish capital, with its infinite number of architectural and other decorations. Some of the quays are very noble, and interest at once by the beautiful buildings that flank them and the great commercial activity and bustle of which they are the scene. They are very broad and have upwards of ten fathoms water at their sides. Beyond them the view is generally terminated by the clear waters of the Baltic, or by the quiet and romantic Mälar lake, which winds into the interior of the country to the distance of more than twenty-five leagues. The Slottet, or king's palace, stands in the city proper, on the elevated summit of the central islet called the Staden, or island of the city. Two bronze lions of a most colossal size stand in front of this vast, simple, and majestic building, which is flanked on one side by a fine terrace and a garden.

Among other treasures the apartments of the palace contain many of the

exquisite works of Sergel, the Swedish sculptor. The chief ornaments of the squares are columns and statues, erected in honor of the national heroes; and these works of art are far more numerous than might be imagined. In the Riddar-hus square, among many other public monuments, there is a fine equestrian statue of the great Gustavus Vasa; in the Norrmalm square, an equestrian statue, in bronze, of Gustavus Adolphus; in the Slotsbacken square a beautiful bronze statue, supported on a lofty pedestal of Elfdalen porphyry, of Gustavus III., besides a fine granite obelisk, erected by the latter prince in honor of the burger militia of Stockholm.

The most interesting church in Stockholm is the Riddarhuskyrken, which contains a great number of tombs, sarcophagi, trophies, and the ashes of a long line of Swedish kings, among whom are Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. The exterior of this edifice is exceedingly rich in details and ornaments, without appearing to be overloaded by them. A steeple of prodigious height, but very slender and tapering, shoots boldly up from the midst of a group of small domes and cupolas, that remind the traveler of some of the mosques of Constantinople, and of the Church of San Marco at Venice.

The great arsenal of Stockholm, along with a good deal of worthless trash, contains many interesting objects, and some of which are very dear to the military pride of the Swedes. There is a large hall, filled on one side with effigies of the kings of Sweden on horseback, done in wood and wax, and very like (and just as vile as objects of art) the old figures of kings that used to be in the Tower of London. In other apartments there are prodigious heaps of arms, standards, and other trophies taken by the victorious Swedes from the Danes, Russians, Poles, Saxons, and Austrians. There is a curious boat, said to have been built by Peter the Great, when he was studying the art of ship-building, which was taken by the Swedes on its passage from Saardam. They preserve with scrupulous care the breast-plate, buff-coat, and bloody shirt which Gustavus Adolphus had on when he fell at Lutzen, in 1682: and the famous uniform worn by Charles XII. when he was killed at Fredericshall, in 1718. Charles's coat is a coarse blue cloth regimental one, such as was worn by every common soldier. He had round his waist a broad buff-leather belt, in which hung his sword—a plain rapier, almost five feet long. His gloves and boots are remarkably small, and with other parts of his dress prove the hero to have been a man of very slight make.

The Admiralty, the Military Academy, the Cabinet of Natural History, and the Senate-house, are interesting objects; and the hospitals and other charitable establishments, together with the manner in which they are administered, are highly honorable to the Swedish government and people. From the inequality of the surface of the rocks on which they are built, some quarters of the town are steep and inconvenient for carriages; nor are the streets of Stockholm in general well paved. There are no flag-stones at the sides for foot passengers.

The numerous passage-boats, which, like the gondolas at Venice, are kept in constant requisition, are all rowed by women. For longer excursions elegant steamboats are now employed, one or two of which set out every day, during the fine season, with holiday parties to visit the island of Drottningholm, where there is a summer palace of the king, surrounded by

woods and gardens. In the immediate neighborhood of the city there are two public promenades open to all classes, and available alike to those who walk, ride, or drive in carriages. There is a royal palace at each of these favorite spots; the one called Haga, the other Rosendal, or Valley of Roses. The views from the latter, which is situated on the left bank of the Salt-Sjön, as the channel of the Mälar is called below Stockholm, are very interesting. In one direction the eye takes in dark forests of pine, in another the bed of the channel, dotted all over with small islands and rocks, of which some are covered with magazines of naval or military stores, and others left in their native rudeness. Where the Salt-Sjön is broad and unimpeded the stream is tranquil and slow, but in the narrow passages between the islands it rushes on rapidly, whitening their rocks with froth and foam. On the whole, few situations can be more romantic than that of this extraordinary town and suburbs.

ROCHESTER CASTLE.

CLOSE by the side of the river, and immediately above the bridge, stands Rochester Castle; still, though now a bleak and roofless ruin, retaining many unobliterated features of its ancient vastness and magnificence. Its site is considerably elevated above the general level of the city; and, dilapidated as its walls are, they still tower far above all the other buildings in the neighborhood, the pinnacles of the cathedral only excepted. The principal part of the castle may, indeed, it is said, be seen from a distance of twenty miles.

As Rochester was a military station in the latter times of the Roman empire in Britain, there is reason to believe that a fort occupied the site of the present castle, the position of which is exactly such as would have recommended it for such an erection. Many Roman coins have been found within the circuit of the castle, but none in any other part of the city; from which we may conclude that this was the only part of the city which existed in the time of the Romans. This supposition is still further confirmed by the language of documents of the Saxon period, which speak of the place as still merely a castle. Indeed the name Rochester, is an evidence that the station was originally merely a chester, castrum, or camp, and that the town has gradually grown up around the military fort.

The oldest portion of the present ruin is in the early Norman style of architecture. The building was probably the work of the Conqueror,—one of the many strongholds which he erected in all parts of the country to maintain his foreign dominion. Here it appears that his illegitimate brother, the famous Odo, Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent, resided, and kept his court as a sort of petty sovereign of the country. After the death of the Conqueror, Odo, who espoused the cause of his eldest son Robert, shut himself up in this castle, and being joined by many of the nobility, for some time resisted the arms of Rufus. The rebels were, however, at length reduced. In the latter part of this, or the commencement of the following reign, the vast and lofty tower which now forms

RUINS OF ROCHESTER CASTLE.

the principal part of the ruin, is said to have been built by the famous Bishop Gundulph. But if the bishop's whole expenditure, as is asserted, was only "three score pounds," comparatively cheap as labor and materials then were, he could not with that sum have advanced such a building very far. It is not improbable, therefore, that the tower was completed, and indeed principally constructed, at the expense of the Archbishop of Canterbury, to whom the castle was granted by Henry I., and by whom it is known that extensive repairs and improvements were executed upon the fabric. "By means of which cost done upon it at that time," says Lambarde, "the Castle of Rochester was much in the eye of such as were the authors of troubles following within the realm, so that from time to time it had a part almost in every tragedy."

In the reign of John, Rochester Castle was taken possession of, first in 1215, by the insurgent barons, who were, however, after some time, obliged to surrender to the king's forces, and, in the following year, by the Dauphin of France, whom they had called over to their assistance. In the time of the next king, Henry III., its strength was again attempted to be turned against the crown, having, in 1264, immediately after the battle of Lewes, been attacked by the victorious Montfort, Earl of Leicester. This celebrated person, Lambarde tells us, "girded the city of Rochester about with a mighty siege, and setting on fire the wooden bridge, and a tower of timber that stood thereon, won the first gate or ward of the castle by assault, and spoiled the church and abbey; but being manfully resisted seven days together by Earl Warren that was within, and hearing suddenly of the king's coming thitherward, he prepared to meet him in person, and left others to continue the siege, all which were soon after put to flight by the king's army."

The last repair of the building that is recorded to have taken place was in 1461, in the reign of Edward IV. Since then it appears to have been almost entirely neglected, and has been allowed gradually to fall into the ruinous state in which it now appears, though not without the waste of time having been assisted by active dilapidation.

LONDON AND BIRMINGHAM RAILWAY.

BIRMINGHAM station on the London and Birmingham Railway lies on the north-eastern extremity of the town, adjoining the station of the Grand Junction Railway, and not far from the great London road. The buildings of the station are similar in character to those of the London station at Euston Square. There are covered yards for the trains, ranges of buildings for booking-offices, containing also spacious apartments as waiting rooms for the passengers; and other buildings, some of which are not quite finished, for the reception of goods, engines, &c. Our wood cut gives a view of the principal entrance. The building here represented contains a spacious "refreshment-room," so that the impatient traveler, posting from London to Liverpool, need not enter Birmingham seeking for an inn; and very shortly he will be "transferred" from one railway to another without any trouble to himself.

ENGLISH RAILWAY STATION.

THE CASTLE OF CHILLON.

THE Castle of Chillon is built on the north-eastern shore of the Lake of Geneva, near the mouths of the Rhone. The Lake is here seven miles wide, and of great depth. The castle is built on a flat rock near the shore, from which access is obtained by a wooden bridge; many years since it was used as a state prison. The Duke of Savoy, the oppressor of the Genevese, enclosed within its dungeons the firmest supporters of the independence of Geneva; amongst whom was François de Bonnivard. He was confined from 1530 to 1536. The Duke of Savoy was determined on stifling the Reformation, if it were possible for his armed bands to effect such an object; but his persecution and tyranny drove his victims to arms. He endeavored to starve the Genevese into submission by intercepting their supplies, but they boldly fitted out five boats, each manned with eighty soldiers, and crossed the lake to procure provisions on his own territory. Being afterwards aided by 7000 Burnese, the Duke's position soon became desperate, and the last place which held out for him was the castle of Chillon. It was invested both by land and water, and the imprisoned Swiss heard the cannon of their victorious countrymen battering the walls which had so long confined them. Bonnivard was among the number released. He had worn a track across the rocky floor of his cell by pacing it so many weary days and nights. Lord Byron's fine "Sonnet on Chillon" alludes to this circumstance:—

Chillon! thy prison is a holy place,
And thy sad floor an altar—for 'twas trod,
Until his very steps have left a trace
Worn, as if thy cold pavement were a sod,
By Bonnivard!—May none those marks efface!
For they appeal from tyranny to God.

Lord Byron, in his note on the castle of Chillon, says,—"Within it are a range of dungeons. Across one of the vaults is a beam black with age, on which we were informed that the condemned were formerly executed. In the cellars are seven pillars, or rather eight, one being merged in the wall; in some of them are rings for the fetters and the fettered; in the pavement the steps of Bonnivard have left their trace." M. Simond visited the castle in 1817: it was then garrisoned by a few lazy soldiers, one of whom guided him to the dungeon said to be beneath the level of the lake, M. Simond, however, was sceptical on this latter point. He says, "Comparing the height of the loop-hole grates, *where captives weep*, (as he sarcastically remarks,) above the water's edge on the outside, and above the rocky floor inside, I remained satisfied the latter was something above the former:—particularly when I observed a hollow place full of water, which must come from the lake, and would rise above the floor of the dungeon if it really were lower than the level of the lake." The writer satirically adds,—"It grieves me to contradict poets or picturesque and sentimental travelers, but really the dungeon of Chillon is not under water; and, besides, is absolutely a comfortably sort of dungeon enough, full forty feet long, fifteen or twenty feet wide, and fifteen feet high, with several narrow slits into the thick wall, above reach, but admitting air and light, and even some rays of sun."

CASTLE OF CHILLON.

THE WINE-MARKET AT PARIS.

HALLE and *marche* are words often applied in an indiscriminate manner, but there exists a difference between their true import which it may be useful to observe. A *halle* is a place of depot for merchandize, where it is at the same time stored for consumption and exposed for sale; and it is of course sheltered from the elements. A *marche*, on the other hand, is an open space of ground where articles are not stored, but merely brought for immediate sale. When the business of the day is over the *marche* is a vacant space, while the *halle* still contains its stores. Thus the spot where butter, eggs, fish, or vegetables are brought for sale is, properly speaking, a *marche*, while the appointed public place where flour, cloth, or wine are constantly kept on sale is a *halle*. The Halle aux Vins, or wine market, is one of the most complete and best arranged of any of the places in Paris for the accommodation of merchants and traders. It is situated within the walls of the capital, at its eastern extremity, beyond the Jardin des Plantes. The inconvenience of the old Halle aux Vins, established in 1656, had long been felt; but the first stone of the present market was not placed until the 15th of August, 1813, when the Empire was in its wane. At first the works were actively carried on, but political disasters occasioned them to be suspended, and they were not completed until several years after the Restoration. It fronts the river. The piles of magazines are seven in number, four in front and three behind. The two center piles in the front are divided into seven compartments, and are used as a market. One of the buildings in the back division is of large dimensions, for containing brandies. The buildings are neat and commodious, and a part of them are surrounded by a terrace. The space between the several masses forms a sort of street, of which there are several, named after different kinds of wine—as the Rue de Champagne, Rue de Bourgogne, Rue de Bourdeaux, Rue de Languedoc, Rue de la Côte d'Or. This latter street, which is represented in the engraving, is the finest, and extends the whole length of the *halle*. There are counting-houses for the merchants, and small *bureaux* for the officers who superintend the entrance and delivery of the wines. A duty of ten pence is paid on each cask, and the number of entries sometimes amounts to 1,500 a-day. France can boast of the simplicity of its system of weights and measures, but, as in this country, improvements are often obstructed by local customs; and in the *halle* there is a *bureau de depotage*, containing measures of the casks in use in different parts of France, and here purchasers can have their casks gauged. The Halle aux Vins contains 325,000 square yards, enclosed by walls on three sides, and separated on the side towards the Seine by an iron railing 889 yards in length. The buildings were calculated to contain 400,000 casks, though in making this estimate it was thought there would only be one row of casks above the ground-floor; but the manner in which the constructions were completed renders it probable that they will hold 600,000 to 800,000 casks.

HALLE AUX VINS—PARIS.

UPSALA.

UPSALA or Upsal, formerly the capital of all Sweden, at present of the province of Upsala, is an exceedingly pretty but small town, rendered remarkable by its ancient university and cathedral. It is situated near to the great lake Mälar, which facilitates its commercial intercourse with Stockholm, the present capital of the kingdom, but which lies low, and so much out of sight as not to enter into any of the views from Upsala or its environs. Several steamboats already navigate this lake. The little river Fyrisa runs through Upsala and falls into the Mälar. Within the town the banks of this river are planted with trees, and as, generally speaking, the houses are built apart from each other, and have gardens and groves about them, the effect, in the fine season of the year, is remarkably pleasing. The present fixed population does not exceed 5,000 souls, to which number, however, may be added the students frequenting the university, who generally amount to about 800. This seat of learning gives a quiet, academic aspect to the whole city, of which no inconsiderable part is occupied by the different buildings devoted to letters and science. Among these edifices the new library, a detached building, is the most considerable. Its architecture is simple and elegant, its situation excellent, for it stands on a gentle eminence that façes one of the principal streets, and is seen from most parts of the city.

The old buildings of the university are remarkable rather for their number and the variety of useful purposes to which they are devoted than for any external display of architecture. There are separate houses for the different professors and lecturers, who are numerous, and who have generally been distinguished, as a body, by their acquirements and the conscientious discharge of their duties as teachers. Their salaries are small, and the fees, which are paid only on the admission of students, very inconsiderable; but to make up a proper remuneration for men of learning, such of them as are in holy orders have also prebends in the cathedral churches. Anciently, the different nations, as they are called, which compose the Swedish monarchy, namely, the Ostrogoths, Westrogoths, Swedes, Finns, and Vandals, had all different academic dresses, which were discontinued on account of the animosities to which they gave rise. The interesting nomenclature which revives the recollection of mighty invasions and revolutions, when the Roman empire fell under the sword of the free men of the north, is still, however, retained, and each nation has its separate heads and endowments in the university.

The foundation of the University of Upsala dates from the year 1476, when Sten Sture, the elder, obtained the requisite bull from Pope Sixtus IV., and took the ancient University of Bologna for his model. In the course of the following year the government and senators of Sweden granted to the institution the same privileges as were enjoyed by the University of Paris. In 1624, after the reformation of religion, the great Gustavus Adolphus, who was a benefactor to the institution, reörganized it

UPSALA—SWEDEN.

in a few essential respects, and assigned it some estates which were put under the direction of the professors themselves in consistory. By an old law, which we believe is still observed, no one can undertake the important offices of a civil magistrate in Sweden without having undergone a public examination at one of the three Universities of Upsal, Obo, or Lund. The old library of the University of Upsala, which was founded by Gustavus Adolphus, contains 80,000 volumes, and many rare manuscripts and other curious objects. A building erected by Gustavus III. at the end of last century, and which contains a vast green-house, and a museum, is a noble edifice with a Doric portico, remarkable for its proportion and beauty. This edifice is situated in the middle of the botanical garden. It serves as an agreeable promenade to the inhabitants of the town. A little beyond it, on the other side of the river Fyrisa, there is a detached hall in which Linnæus lectured and taught the principles of his system. From the time of Linnæus, who passed many years of his life at Upsala, and lies buried in the neighboring cathedral, the Swedes have been distinguished by their love of botany. The botanical cabinet of the university, which was for some time under the direction of Thunberg, the distinguished traveler and naturalist, who deposited in it all the plants he had collected in southern Africa, Japan, and other countries, is exceedingly rich and interesting, and with the garden and conservatory attached, and the able professors employed, it renders Upsala a good school for this pleasing and valuable branch of science. The zoological cabinet, also enriched by the donations of Thunberg, and the mineralogical cabinet, stocked with specimens from all parts, and complete in what regards the minerals of Sweden, a country abounding more than most others in mines, are both of them very valuable collections.

The cathedral, which is the finest ecclesiastical edifice in the kingdom of Sweden, stands opposite the old library of the university. It is in a good Gothic style, and reminded Bishop Heber of Westminster Abbey, to which, he says, it is not unlike. That excellent traveler, however, complains of some injudicious repairs and additions made in modern times, of the removal of all the carved work or tracery from the windows, and of a coating of white plaster, with which the good people of Upsala had disfigured the interior. A church was erected on the spot at the first conversion of the Swedes to Christianity, but the present edifice is a work of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. It is about 260 English feet in length, by 110 in breadth. It contains the tombs of many of the most interesting characters in Swedish history. In a chapel behind the high altar is the tomb of the great Gustavus Vasa, the liberator of his country, whose ashes repose there with those of his wife, while several of his children and grandchildren occupy another tomb close at hand. This chapel has been recently painted in fresco by a distinguished artist who has studied at Rome, and formed his style on the great masters of the Italian school. The appropriate subjects he has treated are derived from the history of the hero who lies beneath, and his adventures among the hardy mountaineers of Dalecarlia, who, from the condition of a helpless fugitive, hiding and working in the mines, raised him to be king of all Sweden in 1523. In another chapel of the cathedral are the sepulchres of the families of Oxenstein and Stenbock. Among the tombs, which are too numerous to describe, there are several adorned with sculpture, the work of native artists—and here

we may mention that the Swedes, whose performances are but little heard of abroad, have for many years cultivated sculpture with great success. The works of Sergel, who was sent to study at Rome and Florence by the unfortunate Gustavus III., at the end of the last century, have been compared, in some instances, to those of Flaxman and Conova.

Linnæus, the pride of the place, lies interred under a stone near the main door of the cathedral, with his much-loved wife by his side. The stone bears no inscription—not even his name; but at a short distance from it there is a bust of Linnæus, cut in *alto-relievo* on black marble, and the following inscription engraved on a tablet of beautiful Swedish porphyry:—

"Botanicorum Principe,
Amici et Discipuli.
M.DCC.XCVIII."

The countenance is very expressive, and this bust is said by his surviving friends to be the best likeness extant of the great naturalist. In a sort of cave adjoining the cathedral they preserve a rude wooden figure of the Scandinavian god Thor, which was one of the idols of the Pagan temple of Old Upsala. At a short distance from the cathedral there is an old church, remarkable for having been the scene of the tragical death of St. Eric, the first Christian king of Sweden, who was murdered there by his subjects for attempting to overthrow their idols, and change the fierce religious faith they professed. Several other objects in or near to Upsala recall the memory of the times of the Runic mythology, and of the customs of a warlike and predatory people. The ruins of the Pagan temple where Thor frowned, with his "mighty hammer" (the very image now preserved in the cathedral,) still exist at Gamla-Upsala, or Old Upsala, and contain the broken image of another god. Near at hand are some rude barrows, or heaps of stones, which, according to tradition, cover the remains of ancient kings and warriors who once held dominion on sea as on land, and carried their victorious arms to the distant corners of the ocean, whence they returned with rich booty to carouse in ale and mead, and enjoy a foretaste of the delights of Walhalla, that paradise in which they would drink out of the skulls of the enemies they had killed in battle. On certain holidays the now peaceful and civilized people of Upsala meet at this spot, and commemorate in potations of excellent ale the festivities of their Pagan ancestors. On the borders of the Mälar Lake, some Runic stones and fragments of buildings are believed to mark the site of Sigtuna, the capital of the dominions of the god Odin, who founded the city himself.

EGYPTIAN ROOM, BRITISH MUSEUM.

OF the many pursuits which the talents and enterprise of the present day have created, few have been prosecuted with more ardor, or have become more popular, than those connected with the study of the history and manners of the ancient Egyptians. It is true we have long been acquainted with the highly interesting accounts given by early

BRITISH MUSEUM—EGYPTIAN ROOM.

travelers of the pyramids and other monuments of a former age existing in Egypt; but the discoveries in the interior of ancient tombs and temples, and the exertions made in investigating the characters and emblems of their exterior, by which we have attained to a more intimate knowledge of these relics of antiquity, have principally been prosecuted by travelers of the present day.

Since the discoveries made by the French, others have prosecuted the subject with the greatest success, and we are now almost as familiar with the ancient Egyptians as with the ancient Greeks and Romans.

It was customary with the ancient Egyptians to ornament the interior of their temples and tombs (which were generally constructed on a large scale) with representations in painting and sculpture of their religious and political ceremonies, their public processions, and even their domestic customs; and when a person died, his remains were embalmed, or *mummied*, and interred with great solemnity in the tomb of his family, where many of his personal effects were also deposited. The priest, on his death, carried to the grave with him the emblems of his sacerdotal office; the lady, her trinkets and jewelry; the artisan, his tools; and even the child was accompanied in death by those little playthings with which it had amused itself when living.

As the relics of a time which has been in some degree rendered familiar to us by the beautiful writings of the Scriptures, and as serving to elucidate many doubtful passages, and to illustrate the many allusions to the manners of the ancient Egyptians so frequently occurring in those writings, the collections which have been made and forwarded to Europe must claim the attention and prove highly interesting to all who are acquainted with the Bible.

Some of the most important articles in the collection made by the French army having fallen into the hands of the English, they became the nucleus of the splendid collection of Egyptian art which now adorns the national museum.

In the centre of the room are two glass cases, containing in the lower portions the outer cases or coffins of two mummies, which may be seen in another part of the room. These coffins are covered within and without with paintings and hieroglyphics having reference to the deceased; and, being hung upon pivots at the ends, are so placed that both the interior and the whole of the exterior may be seen. In the upper portions of the glass case in the foreground of the engraving are several curious specimens of personal ornaments, as necklaces of gold and precious stones, rings for the finger, seals, and other ornaments, worn as charms or talismans. Many of these are beautifully carved and ornamented, showing the great advance made by the artisans of that early period (about 3000 or 4000 years ago) in manufactures and the arts of design.

The Museum contains several hieroglyphic Papyri manuscripts, and could we trace the characters on them with certainty, we should doubtless find much interesting matter relative to the customs, arts, and state of science among the early Egyptians; but the dissimilarity of the characters in which they are written to those of any known language has for some time kept us in ignorance of their contents. Several attempts have however been made to decipher them; and from the labors of Young, Champollion, Wilkinson, &c., a clue has been found to the characters and lan-

guage in which they are written. Of these there are several sorts, as the Hieroglyphic, Hieratic, and Demotic. Among those in the Museum is one in the Hieratic character which cost £30. This Papyrus has an address upon it, and appears to be a letter sent by a merchant to one of his friends; in which, after having spoken at some length of their respective affairs, he encloses him an account current, well drawn up, and with neatly executed figures. It is supposed that this document, if properly understood, would throw considerable light on the mode of conducting commercial matters in Egypt. Papyri are purchased at very high prices: one about 16 feet in length and 18 inches wide, in the Hieratic character, was purchased by the British Museum for 90 guineas; and even much higher prices have been given for specimens supposed to contain valuable information. As it appears to have been sometimes the case that the early Greeks copied into their own language Papyri written in the Egyptian character, it is evident that a comparison of the copy (with the language of which we are acquainted) with the original Egyptian document, would throw considerable light on the construction and character of the unknown language; and accordingly, much of our present knowledge of the ancient Egyptian languages has been derived through such means;* and therefore Papyri, which, with even our present imperfect knowledge of their characters, we may discover to contain matters of interest, are valuable for the light which, when we are able to read them with facility, they will probably throw on the manners of their writers; and as the difficulty of procuring them is considerable, for they are of great rarity, their value is increased.

In the glass-cases, seen in the cut, on either side of the central cases, are arranged mummies, showing the different stages of the process: some are merely covered with the first layer of cloth; others are more extensively bandaged and covered with bituminous matter; some are seen enclosed in the first pasteboard or thin wooden case, and others show this first covering enclosed in another of similar construction; while in adjoining cases are shown the outer boxes or coffins in which the body was conveyed to the tomb. One of these mummies is particularly deserving of attention for the richness of the paintings and ornaments with which the cases are adorned, and for the care with which the body has been prepared. It appears to be the body of a royal personage, who officiated as priest of Osiris. Two boxes, or coffins, in which it was enclosed are preserved in another part of the room. The body, which is 5 feet 10 inches in length, is enveloped in a case composed of a thick composition laid on linen, which has been afterwards colored with light blue as a ground-work, on which the various ornaments and hieroglyphics in gold are placed in relief. This is the finest specimen yet discovered of the splendor with which the ancient Egyptians mummied the bodies of their chiefs and priests. It was found in Thebes, and was purchased by the Museum for the sum of 305 guineas.

On the confines of the apartment are arranged the many interesting

* The famous "Rosetta stone," in the Egyptian Saloon, British Museum, a stone found at Rosetta in Egypt, with a Greek inscription on one part of it, repeated word for word in another place in the Enchorial character, and similarly in another portion of the stone in Hieroglyphics, derives its celebrity from the great use made of it in obtaining an insight into the meaning of two hitherto mysterious modes of communication, by comparison of the two unknown languages with the Greek.

articles employed by the Egyptians in their domestic concerns, with specimens of their manufactures, models of many of their larger works, and other curious things, found in the tombs, mummy-cases, and other depositories in Thebes, Memphis, &c.

THE DEATH OF PIERS GAVESTON.

ON the edge of the road that leads from Warwick to Coventry, is a knoll now almost covered with trees, which was the scene of one of the most remarkable events in English history. It was on this mount that Piers Gaveston, the favorite of a weak monarch, Edward II., was beheaded. The original name of this place was Blacklow Hill. It is now called either by that name or by that of Gaveston Hill. The murder which was there committed appears to us to present a very appropriate illustration of the fierce and troublesome times, when force was opposed to force, and the conflicts of power had not yet submitted to the sacred dominion of law and justice.

The granting of the Great Charter by King John took place in the year 1215, nearly a century before the execution of Gaveston. The establishment of general freedom, and of legal obligations, in a rude and martial state of society, is generally the work not of a few years, but of whole generations. Though the terms of Magna Charta evidently imply that the great principles of civil liberty were very early developed in England, yet it is evident that the condition of the great body of the people was still slowly improved, and that the crown and nobility were too often involved in disputes for power, which would not admit of any very decided social amelioration. During the long reign of Henry III. the country was distracted by civil contests; and in the succeeding sway of Edward I. the bold and martial character of the prince was communicated to the age in which he lived; and though many wholesale laws were established, the balance of authority and of interests in our constitution was still very imperfectly exhibited. The vices and frivolity of Edward II. again stirred up the contests between the monarch and the barons. The event which we are about to record shows to what daring extremities these contests would sometimes lead.

Previous to the accession of Edward II. to the throne, in the year 1307, he had submitted himself, with the most blind and obstinate confidence, to the counsels of his favorite, Piers Gaveston. This young man was a Gascon by birth. He is represented by historians to have been possessed of singular personal and mental acquirements;—to have been handsome, active, enterprising, and courageous—and superior in spirit and talent to the rough and unpolished barons of the English court. But he was notoriously unprincipled and profligate, and his pride and ambition were altogether of the most extravagant character. During the life of his father, the young Prince Edward had exhibited marks of a vicious and dissolute disposition. He had incurred the displeasure of the king by his irregularities; and his

GUY'S CLIFF.

crimes being ascribed to the evil suggestions of Gaveston, the companion of his vices was banished the kingdom. The first act of the accession of Edward II. was to recall his favorite, and to load him with fortune and honors. He made a grant to him of the whole estate belonging to the earldom of Cornwall; and also bestowed upon him a sum of money, which, in the currency of our own days, would appear to exceed the most extravagant donations of the most thoughtless and luxurious princes of antiquity. Gaveston soon acquired an unbounded influence over the weak king. He removed all the high and responsible officers of the court from their stations, and filled their places with his dependants. He procured himself to be appointed Great Chamberlain of the kingdom, and he became, indeed, the sole ruler of the English dominions. The monarch bestowed upon him his own niece in marriage; and consummated the greatness of his favorite by appointing him guardian of the realm during a voyage which he made to France. Had Gaveston possessed the greatest discretion, it is probable that these honors would have excited the utmost jealousy amongst the English nobles. But he was vain and presuming; and his pride and insolence laid the foundation of an enmity, as extensive as it was bitter and unrelenting.

The unbounded power and ostentation of Gaveston soon called forth the fierce and uncompromising spirit of the barons. They demanded of Edward the banishment of his favorite. The king tampered with their claims;—and it soon appeared probable that the sword would decide the controversy. The barons solemnly demanded in parliament that Gaveston should be expelled the kingdom—the clergy pronounced him excommunicated should he continue in the island. The king at length appointed him lord-lieutenant of Ireland, assigned the whole revenue of that kingdom for his subsistence, and attended him to the place of his embarkation.

In a very short period, Edward, being impatient for the return of his favorite, prevailed upon the Pope to absolve Gaveston, according to the wretched superstitions of those days, from the oath he had taken to leave the kingdom forever. The sentence of excommunication was also suspended. At the parliament which followed, the king induced the nobility to consent to Gaveston's recall. But the favorite had not learned prudence. The barons came armed to parliament;—and having a popular subject of complaint against the king, they succeeded in compelling him to authorize a commission for regulating the affairs of the kingdom. The monarch proceeded to the Scottish war against Robert Bruce, accompanied by Gaveston, but his enterprises were not eventually successful. Edward returned to England. The commission which he had authorized had formed many salutary, though, perhaps, extreme and unconstitutional, regulations for the restriction of the royal prerogative. One of the articles particularly insisted upon was the banishment of Gaveston. The king was compelled to yield, and his favorite left the realm, and for some time resided at Bruges, with all the splendor of a sovereign prince. The next year (1312) he ventured to return to York. The barons almost immediately took arms, under pretence of holding tournaments. They suddenly united their forces, and proceeded to attack the king at Newcastle. The unhappy monarch fled with precipitation; and Gaveston secured himself in the fortress of Scarborough, then one of the strongest holds in the kingdom. A detachment of the baronial army immediately invested that post. Gaveston stood

BLACKLOW HILL.

several assaults with great bravery;—but, dreading to exasperate his enemies, he at length capitulated to the Earl of Pembroke, on condition of being kept in safe custody, while the barons should deliberate on the disposal of his person; and if he should not agree to their terms, that he should be placed in the same posture of defence which he resigned. The barons in authority pledged themselves to this treaty, on pain of forfeiting all their possessions. The Earl of Pembroke proposed to convey his prisoner to his own castle at Wallingford, but left him, during one night, at Deddington Castle, near Banbury. Guy, Earl of Warwick, the implacable enemy of Gaveston, immediately seized upon his person. He bore him in triumph to Warwick Castle, where the Earls of Lancaster, Hertford, and Arundel, repaired to hold a consultation about their prisoner. His fate was speedily decided. He was dragged to Blacklow Hill, about two miles from Warwick Castle, where he was beheaded amidst the scorn and reproach of his implacable and perfidious enemies.

On the top of Blacklow Hill there has for some time been a rude stone, on which the name of Gaveston, and the date of his execution, are inscribed. A few years ago, the possessor of Guy's Cliff, an adjoining mansion, distinguished for its picturesque situation and romantic grounds, erected the cross which is represented on the opposite page. It bears the following inscription:—

IN THE HOLLOW OF THIS ROCK
WAS BEHEADED,
ON THE 1ST DAY OF JULY, 1312,
BY BARONS LAWLESS AS HIMSELF,
PIERS GAVESTON, EARL OF CORNWALL;
THE MINION OF A HATEFUL KING,
IN LIFE AND DEATH,
MEMORABLE INSTANCE OF MISRULE.

As we have here sat, looking with delight upon the beautiful prospect which this summit presents, we could not avoid contrasting the peacefulness and the fertility that were spread around, with the wild appearance that the same spot must have presented at the period of lawless violence which we have described. Beneath our feet the Avon was gliding in tranquillity and loveliness, pursuing its silent course through plenteous fields, or by elegant villas—now ornamenting the mansion of the noble, and now bestowing its beauty upon the cottage of the peasant. When Gaveston fell, it flowed amongst sterile cliffs, or through barren plains—for equal laws had not then bestowed upon industry the blessing of security;—the laborer worked for a severe task-master, and the possessions of the yeomen were under the control of a tyrannical lord. In the distant prospect we saw the lofty towers of Warwick Castle rising above the woods in ancient magnificence. When Gaveston perished, they were the scenes of many a midnight murder, and many an ignominious torture. Here had been the rude pomp, the fearful counsels, and the tumultuous passions, of the feudal days. The pride, and the devices, and the ambition of those times were now only "to point a moral, or adorn a tale." The towers of antique splendor indeed remained;—but they were associated with the beauties of modern adornment; and the hand of taste had arrested the slow ravages of time, to preserve those memorials of past generations, whose records should teach us how much we have gained in intelligence and in happiness.

The first engraving represents the beautiful mansion of Guy's Cliff, which possesses many attractions for the curiosity of the traveler.

WESTMINSTER BRIDGE.

A CENTURY ago, not one of the several bridges existed that now span the Thames at London. There was then, in fact, no bridge over the river at all, with the exception of that which stood where the present London bridge is now erected. It was not until the year 1735, that Parliament, on the petition of the inhabitants of Westminster, passed an act for the building of a second bridge. Even then this improvement was not secured without great difficulty; a strenuous opposition being made to it by the Company of Watermen, the society called the West-Country Bargemen, the Borough of Southwark, and the City of London, all of which parties conceived themselves interested in forcing everybody who wanted to cross from one side of the water to the other, either to go round by London bridge, or to make the passage in a boat. Fortunately, however, it was determined that the convenience of the whole population should not be sacrificed, nor their personal safety placed in jeopardy, on this monstrous demand of a few individuals.

On the 13th of September, 1738, the preparations for the building of the bridge were begun, by the driving of the first pile for its foundation, in the presence of a vast number of spectators. On the 29th of January following, the first stone of one of the two central piers, that next the west side, was laid by the Earl of Pembroke. The whole structure is built of stone, and principally of Portland block stones, of which few are less than a ton in weight, while many are two or three, and some even four or five tons. There are fourteen piers in all, besides the two abutments, and consequently fifteen arches. They are semicircular in form, and the span of that in the middle is seventy-six feet; the others gradually decrease in width; the sixth from the centre on each side being only fifty-two feet, and the two next the abutments only twenty-five each. The whole length of the bridge is 1223 feet; and the clear water-way under the arches is 870 feet. The road over it is forty-four feet in breadth; the foot-paths on each side included. In the beginning of 1747, when it was nearly completed, one of the piers sank so much as to determine the commissioners to have it pulled down and rebuilt; and this was the only circumstance by which the work was materially retarded. It was at last brought to a conclusion on the 10th of November that year; when the new bridge was formally opened by a procession passing over it. The work cost in all £389,500, which was granted for the purpose in successive years by Parliament. Maitland states that the value of £40,000 is computed to be always under water in stone and other materials; and according to other authorities the whole quantity of stone used in this bridge is asserted to have been nearly double that employed in St. Paul's Cathedral.

WESTMINSTER BRIDGE.

CAVE OF ST. ROSALIA.

A LITTLE to the west of Palermo, and nearly at the summit of the lofty and rugged Monte Pellegrino, there is a natural grotto or cave of considerable extent. Hamilcar Barcas, whose Carthaginian soldiers are said to have made a barrack room of the cave, long resisted the Romans on this isolated and almost inaccessible height; but it is not from these circumstances that the grotto is dear and sacred to the Sicilians. The mouth of the cave no longer opens on the mountain's side, but is masked and enclosed by a curious church they have built round it. Crossing this church, you enter a low, narrow vault under the rocks—cold and gloomy in the extreme, where silence is never broken, except by the low whisperings of the devotees, or the echoes of the service in the church. Nearly at the extremity of the cavern there is a beautiful young maiden in a reclining posture, with her half-closed eyes fixed on the cross. It is only a statue; but in the dim obscurity, partially broken by the lights from some small silver lamps, it looks, at a certain distance, like a human being in the act of expiring, with beatific visions of a brighter and happier world than this. Even on a nearer approach, when the illusion vanishes, the effect of this exquisite piece of workmanship is exceedingly touching. The delicate beauty and youth of the countenance, with its mingled expression of simplicity, resignation and devotion—the flowing lines of the body and limbs, with their soft and perfect repose, quite captivate the beholder, and almost excuse the idolatry of which the statue is the object. The head and hands are cut in the finest Parian marble; the rest of the figure is of bronze, gilt, appearing as if covered with a robe of beaten gold. Many valuable jewels testify the devotion of successive ages.

The figure represents Santa Rosalia, the patroness saint of Palermo, who is believed to have lived and died "in these deep solitudes and awful cells." According to the legend, this beautiful virgin was niece to King William the Good, a prince of the Norman line, who reigned in Sicily from A. D. 1150 to 1154, and who was succeeded by his son, surnamed William the Bad, under whom the island became the scene of civil wars and all kinds of iniquities. Even from infancy, the young princess showed symptoms of sanctity; and in the sixteenth year of her age, seeing the wickedness of the world, she deserted it altogether, and retired to the solitary mountains. When she disappeared (in 1159) the people thought she had been taken up to heaven, deeming her soul too pure, and her body too beautiful, to be subjected to the ordinary processes of mortality. Tradition states that she at first retired to a mountain cave at a considerable distance; but being disturbed in that retreat, she wandered to Monte Pellegrino, and discovering this grotto, fixed her residence here as a less accessible place.

Nothing more was heard of her till her bones were found, nearly 500 years after her disappearance, on the very spot where her statue now reposes. A mlracle was, of course, connected with their discovery. In

DEAN BRIDGE—EDINBURGH.

the year 1624 Palermo was visited by a dreadful plague, which no human means could moderate; a holy man had a vision, and he told the people that the saint's bones were lying unhonored in a cave near the top of Monte Pellegrino; that if they were taken up with due reverence, and carried in procession round the walls of the city three several times, the plague would immediately cease. A deputation was sent to the mountain—the bones were found in the place indicated—the processions were performed—the people were cured, and the fair Rosalia was elevated to the rank of tutelar saint of Palermo. The bones, preserved in a silver box, curiously wrought and enriched with jewels, were deposited in the ancient cathedral of the city; but proper care was taken of the holy grotto, and a magnificent causeway, and then a fine road, in terraces, rising above each other, and very properly called La Scala, (the stairs,) were made to lead to it, over the rugged heights and along the precipices of the mountain. Besides the church, a residence was built for a few officiating priests, who are bound to be constantly on the spot to celebrate mass, show the cave, and receive the offerings of pilgrims; and in process of time a small *taverna*, or house of entertainment, arose in the vicinity, to afford refreshment to the numerous visiters, who generally require it after their toilsome ascent. The church, the cave, the shrine, are seldom found without kneeling devotees. At certain seasons the sailors and poor people from Palermo, and the peasantry from the neighboring country, flock hither in numerous troops, and, according to a practice which is general at such places in Italy and Sicily, after they have performed their devotions they give themselves up to enjoyment—to feasting and dancing for the rest of the day. The view from Monte Pellegrino is at once cheerful, diversified and sublime, extensive and beautiful in its details. The fair city of Palermo, with its suburbs, *La Bagaria* and *Il Colle*, full of villas and gardens, is close under the eye; the upper sides of Mount Etna, though at the distance of nearly the whole length of the island, are visible; and looking seaward, most of the Lipari islands, with the ever-smoking cone of Stromboli, are discovered.

The festival of Santa Rosalia is the most splendid religious pageant in Sicily, and, according to the Sicilians, whose pride and boast it is, the finest in the world. It is held annually at Palermo, in the glowing month of July, and lasts five days—the anniversaries of the finding of the bones, their transfer from the cave to the cathedral, and three processions round the walls of the city. People repair to it from all parts of the island, from the neighboring coasts of Calabria, and (in smaller numbers, which have been increased since the establishment of steam packets) even from the city of Naples. A detailed account would occupy some pages; but the principal features of the festival are these: a lofty car of an exceedingly elegant form, and richly ornamented, is surmounted at more than the height of sixty feet, by a statue of the saint, in silver, and considerably larger than life. The car is about sixty-five feet long, and thirty feet broad. On seats which rise above each other like stairs, a numerous orchestra and vocal performers are disposed in rows and in full court dress. This enormous vehicle is dragged slowly through the centre of the town by fifty white oxen. It stops every fifty or sixty yards, and at each pause the music, which is generally admirable, fills the summer air, which is otherwise sweetened by incense, and the breath of innumerable flowers, that are suspended to the car or scattered before its path. In the evenings the

Cassaro or principal street, and the long and beautiful promenade of the Marina, are splendidly illuminated, and fireworks on a very extensive scale are let off. In these arts the Palermitans particularly excel. Horse races are added to the amusements. On the fourth evening the interior of the fine old cathedral is filled with one blaze of light; the silver lamps, the wax torches, the candelabra, the mirrors, the rich hanging draperies of gold and silver tissue, and all other accessories, being arranged with admirable taste and effect. The festival concludes on the fifth day with a procession, in which the effigies of all the saints in Palermo are carried, amidst a deafening noise of drums, trumpets and patereroes. A part of the countless assemblage of people file off from the Marina, and take the steep road of Monte Pellegrino to the grotto of Santa Rosalia.

FESTIVAL OF ST. ROSALIA.

HOUEL, from whose work on Sicily the engraving is taken, minutely describes the festival as he witnessed it in 1776; and after a lapse of 75 years—a period so fertile in alterations of national character,—his description, with allowances for variations in the accessories, may be taken as a description of the festival, as celebrated at the present day. "The festival," says Malte Brun, "attracts to Palermo nearly a fourth part of the population of the island, and costs the municipality about 60,000 ducats. The interest that the Palermitans of all ranks and of all ages take in the vain show, the luxury that prevails, and the importance attached to trifles, seem to indicate that the blood of the ancient Greeks, who were so devoted to ceremonies and religious festivals, flows still in the veins of the Sicilian people."

The festival is celebrated in the month of July, and lasts five days. The weather is most usually delightful, for though the heat is great during the day, the evenings and nights afford the inhabitants and visitors of Palermo ample opportunity to enjoy the promenades, illuminations and fireworks. Rain, that great enemy of processions and fetes, seldom disturbs the festival of Santa Rosalia.

On the first day, the car, the construction of which used to be an annual source of intense solicitude, and which was always built after a new model, is brought out in grand procession. It is generally a huge machine, about eighty feet in height, and carries a great number of musicians—the orchestra of the car. Above the orchestra is placed a gigantic statue of Santa Rosalia, of massive silver, magnificently clothed. The car is decorated with shrubs and flowers, and is drawn by a long string of mules, or white oxen.

At an appointed signal the procession sets forward, moving slowly, amid the shoutings of the populace. Entering the town, it traverses the spacious Cassaro, the main street of Palermo, the balconies and windows of every house being crowded by well-dressed and excited gazers. As the procession does not take place till the afternoon, evening closes in before it is

CAVE OF SANTA ROSALIA.

well over; and then a new scene commences. The principal streets are brilliantly illuminated; fireworks on an extensive scale are exhibited; and the whole populace are out enjoying themselves till two or three o'clock in the morning. "For," says Houel, "it is not with fastings, austerities, and mortifications that the Sicilians honor the Saint, but with songs, fireworks, and rejoicings of every kind."

On the second day of the festival there are horse-races. The procession of the car, illuminations, and fireworks are the main features of the amusement of each afternoon and evening; but there are also some variations in each. The horse-races are repeated on three or four days. There is usually an aquatic excursion, and abundant firing of cannon; and on the fourth evening the cathedral is lighted up with many thousand wax-tapers, adorned with flowers, and crowded with people. On the last day of the festival the procession of the car is more than usually splendid. All the priests and monks in Palermo join in it, bearing the images of the saints from every church; and then, with "fountains of fire," illuminations, and universal rejoicings, closes a festival which the Sicilians regard as the most magnificent in the world.

PASS OF THE GEMMI—BATHS OF LEUK.

ONE of the principal passes in that great chain of the Alps, which, branching off to the north-east from Mont Blanc, is separated from the main chain by the valley of the Rhone till it unites with it again near the St. Gothard, is the pass over the Gemmi. This mountain is so called from the Latin word Gemini, or twins, an appellation very applicable to its peculiar appearance at the summit, which consists of two precisely similar peaks. The view from thence to the south extends over the valley of the Rhone into Piedmont, its principal feature being Monte Rosa, a mountain second only to Mont Blanc among the mountains of Europe. To the west rise the peaks of Strubel and Razli, whence descend two enormous glaciers which pour their torrents into the lake of Daube, which is at the very summit of the Gemmi Pass. This lake is about a mile and a half in length, and half that in width, and is frozen during eight months of the year; but its most remarkable characteristic is, that though fed by several considerable streams from the annual melting of the snow and ice, it has no visible outlet. The probability is, that there exists some subterranean channel which conveys the water into the Dala, which afterwards joins the Rhone. This lake is situated about 7400 feet above the level of the sea.

The Gemmi is chiefly celebrated for the wonderful road which leads across it from Kanderstag in the canton of Berne, to the baths of Leuk (or Loueche) in the Haut Valais. The southern side of the mountain, as is the case throughout the Alps, is the steepest and most inaccessible, and in this direction presents a perpendicular precipice of nearly 3000 feet. A road practicable for pedestrians and mules, was, in 1741, constructed by some Tyrolese workmen: it is cut throughout in the solid rock, and is con

tinued in a perpetual zigzag from top to bottom. From the side of Leuk, the traveler, on preparing for the ascent, can perceive no indication whatever of the road, and sees nothing but a perpendicular wall of rock, to all appearance quite impassable. (A faint line given in the drawing shows the direction of the route, but in reality it is totally imperceptible.) Though only practicable for mules, this road is incontestably a superior work to most of the passes where carriages can be used; and although cut out of the bare face of the rock, there is not the slightest danger to be apprehended; for a rough, but not the less useful, parapet of large stones, nearly breast high, prevents the possibility of an accident. From the baths of Leuk to the summit of the pass is a distance of about two hours' walk, and thence to the village of Kanderstag about three and a half more.

The baths of Leuk are much celebrated in Switzerland for their efficacy in cutaneous diseases, and the water, when taken internally, is said to be very effective in curing disorders of the stomach. There are upwards of a dozen sources, the principal of which is consecrated (the Valis being a Catholic Canton) to St. Laurence, whose image is placed immediately over the source, whence the hot water flows in two channels, one to supply the baths, the other for the use of the villagers, who are to be seen kneeling before the stream washing linen. The water is clear, without any strong flavor, but possessing a slight smell of sulphur. The temperature is about 41° of Réaumur. Almost everything is here constructed of fir, with which the sides of the mountains are clothed; and at the height of nearly 5000 feet above the sea, in an almost inaccessible valley, where not even corn can grow, and which has more than once suffered from avalanches, but few luxuries can be introduced. A person commencing a course of bathing usually begins with half an hour a day, but gradually increases the dose till he arrives at eight hours, and then leaves off in the same proportion.

The following extract from the journal of a pedestrian traveler contains an account of the Gemmi, the baths of Leuk, and of the ladder-road to the village of Albinen:—"At nine o'clock, on a fine morning in September, I arrived at Kanderstag, and commenced the ascent of the Gemmi Pass, which for some way was very steep, but at length I emerged from a narrow gorge into an open valley, about 6300 feet above the sea, where there was already some snow, which, of course, as the road ascended, increased in depth. Having passed some châlets (or mountain sheds), I perceived on the left the gloomy valley of Gastera, extending to the foot of Mont Altels, and further on passed over a place where the effects of an avalanche in 1782 were still distinctly visible. I next threaded my way among the débris of a mountain, which had, probably, fallen some centuries before,—another species of the awful devastations to which these Alpine regions are liable. I soon reached the Schwarrenbach, a solitary habitation, used only during summer, where I had to pay a small toll of half a batzen, or about three farthings, for the use of the road. I did not at the time, however, comprehend why this toll was demanded; for, having no guide, and the snow, owing to a late fall, being now knee-deep, the road was quite invisible, and I made out my route entirely by the map. This dismal place is the scene chosen by Werner in his 'Le 24 Fevrier.' After leaving this wretched place I came upon the lake of Daube, and as, when that was passed, I was evidently drawing near to the ridge of the Gemmi,

PASS OF THE GEMMI—BATHS OF LEUK.

I began to look out for the place to descend. This place, after some little difficulty, I found; and I then at once perceived why the toll had been demanded, the whole path being made by blasting, and the marks of it being everywhere visible. Indeed, descent was quite out of the question anywhere else, for the southern side of the mountain was quite perpendicular, and I looked straight down from a height of nearly 3000 feet on the village of Leuk; while along the valley in which it lay the eye tracked the course of the Dala, which rushed impetuously into the valley of the Rhone, on the further side of which the eternal snows of Monte Rosa terminated the view. The descent, once begun, was very rapid. I found a run down the declivity easier than a walk, and the mountain-staff, or alpenstock, which I carried, rendered the turning at every zigzag safe and easy. I never saw such prodigious icicles as on this occasion; they hung from every projection; many, close to which I passed, were much longer than my own height, and some that I saw at a distance must have been at least twenty feet long. On a projecting crag I observed a ragged pine growing somewhat horizontally and leaning over the precipice. It is said that a Valaisan once ascended this tree, and carried away its topmost bough. In this venturous attempt he must have been suspended at a height of at least 2000 feet above the valley below. When I had nearly arrived at the bottom of the precipice, I observed on one side of a steep gorge in the side of the rock a sort of sentry-box hollowed out of the rock, and apparently inaccessible. This, I was afterwards informed, was the station of a watchman, placed there to prevent smuggling between the two cantons of Berne and Valais, and to watch sheep-stealers, who, by a thorough knowledge of the track, contrived to make their way up the mountain by a narrow rough gorge on one side of the regular road. The watchman cannot be seen by those who descend the gorge, till it is too late to retreat, and the offenders are thus detected. When I reached the foot of the pass, and looked back, I could not perceive the least traces of the road by which I had descended, and it seemed quite astonishing to me that I ever got down at all."

THE STREETS OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

OUR engraving exhibits one or two of the peculiarities presented by the streets of Constantinople. Almost all the streets of this interesting metropolis are narrow and winding, and are destitute of those dazzling attractions which startle Orientals when they visit London. Instead of spacious thoroughfares, with the windows of shops set out with wares of all kinds, while passengers on foot and vehicles of every description are incessantly passing and repassing, the streets of Constantinople, with but little exception, are silent and almost deserted-looking during the day; and though towards evening they exhibit a more animated aspect, as the inhabitants come out to pass on to the coffee-houses, or to smoke their pipes in some favorite spot, there is but little of that kind of character which realizes to us the poet's description of the "sweet security of

STREET SCENE—CONSTANTINOPLE.

streets." The only sort of windows presented by the houses towards the streets are those projections represented in the engraving, containing little windows latticed and closed; and many of the houses have no windows at all towards the streets, but only a low, narrow, dingy door. Mr. McFarlane, who was in Constantinople in 1828 (when, however, political causes had rendered the city more than usually dull and deserted,) thus alludes to these windows in describing a walk through some of the streets:—"I walked up one street and down another; for wherever chance led me I was sure to find novelty and interest of some sort. Except what seems the most considerable street in the city—a street that traverses nearly its whole length, and, tolerably broad and airy, runs in a slightly diverging line from the north-western extremity of the Hippodrome to the gate of Adrianople—all seemed gloomy and depopulated. I passed through several large empty spaces in the very heart of the town, where houses had been burned down, and not rebuilt; and even in other quarters exempt from the devastation of fire, where the dark red-painted dwellings of the Turks stood close around me, so rarely was a human being seen, so uninterrupted the silence, that I could scarcely believe myself in the capital of a vast empire—in splendid Stamboul—of whose overflowing population I had so often read. Some half dozen of times, perhaps, in the course of my musing peregrination, my observations were enlivened by the sight of sundry black eyes that (wondering, no doubt, at what I could be doing in those unfrequented quarters) were seen peeping through their white *yas maks*, and the thick lattices (so appropriately denominated in French *jalousies*) that shut up every *shah nishin* of a Turk's house. Once or twice my ears were greeted with a titter from my concealed observers; pleasant sounds—as they showed, at least, that all gaiety had not fled from the place. Another refreshing relief, the charm of which I still recal with delight, was to catch through the gloomy avenue of one of the deserted streets at the back of the town a view of the broad blue basin of the Propontis, of the lovely Princes' Islands, of the distant mountains of Nicomedia, and of the still more remote and sublime heights of the Bithynian Olympus, all shining gay and bright in the beams of the glorious sun."

Though Mr. McFarlane saw Constantinople when it was under the influence of depressing circumstances, the silence of the streets is a general description. Our own engraving seems to contradict this, for it exhibits a crowd of figures, as if the narrow street was thronged; but the *time* is evening, when the middling and poorer classes have a strong inducement to do what all classes avoid as much as possible—to *walk* the streets; and the door exhibited in the fore-ground of the engraving is the door of a coffee-house. "All the life and activity of the interior of the city is concentrated in the bazaars, or bezestines. These are long, wide corridors, communicating with each other mostly in an irregular and striking manner. Their side walls are built of stone, and they are covered in with stone arches, or successions of domes, through which a subdued light is admitted. The dealers are separated by nations, or religions, or by trades."

Another of the peculiarities of the streets of Constantinople, represented in our engraving, is the dogs—those pests of all Mohammedan towns. Mohammedanism proscribes dogs as unclean. Hence, although they are exceedingly numerous in towns, they are not attached to particular houses, or belong to particular persons. They live in the streets and open places,

and subsist upon offal, with some uncertain assistance from the charity of individuals. "In large towns," says a note in the Pictorial Bible, "where there is much activity and intercourse, the dogs do not generally offer any molestation to any person in the day time, or only to persons whom they detect by the scent or costume to be decided foreigners; but at night it is very hazardous to pass the streets, and few like to do so alone, and never without being properly armed. When two persons go together, both armed with strong sticks, they are seldom molested. One person alone, and particularly if unarmed, would be in danger of being seriously injured, if not torn to pieces, unless assistance came, as the attack of one dog would serve as a signal to bring others in great numbers to the assault. In small towns and villages seldom visited by strangers, the dogs know the inhabitants, and do not molest them, unless perhaps when any one of them should happen to stir abroad at night; but a stranger of any description often dares not approach such places even by day, unless under the conduct of an inhabitant."

The dogs of Constantinople are somewhat more under control, and are not at all dangerous to strangers, owing to the perpetual influx of foreigners of all descriptions, and the constant intercourse. Still they are hungry and savage enough to annoy a European, if not by their attack, at least by their presence. "We hardly met a soul on our way up," says Mr. McFarlane, describing the landing in Constantinople, "but swarms of starving, mangy dogs perambulated the silent streets, giving me an opportunity, on my first arrival, to make the acquaintance of this pest of the Ottoman capital." Even when dogs are without individual masters they will frequent the abodes of man. They are found in this half-wild state at Lisbon and Constantinople, and other cities of the East. They are driven as unclean from the houses of the Mohammedans, and yet the same people protect them when they are roaming about their dwellings. The dog of the Seven Sleepers, according to a tale of the Koran, is the only quadruped admitted into heaven, but the people of the East have more substantial reasons for patronizing those half-wild dogs than they find in the legends of their faith. Volney, in his Travels, describes the dogs of Turkey and its dependencies as particularly useful in clearing the streets of the garbage and carrion which would otherwise become the cause of pestilence and death. It is to this circumstance that the powerful but somewhat revolting description of Lord Byron refers in the poem of the Siege of Corinth:—

> "I saw the lean dogs beneath the wall
> Hold o'er the dead their carnival,
> Gorging and growling o'er carcass and limb,
> They were too busy to bark at him."

PILGRIMAGE TO MARIAZELL.

MARIAZELL is a small town in the Austrian Province of Styria, and situated in the most romantic part of that mountainous country. A shrine and an ancient picture of the Virgin Mary, which is believed to be endowed with miraculous qualities, have given importance to the place, and annually attracted many thousands of pilgrims

ever since the finding of the picture in the eighth or ninth century down to our own days. These devotees wend over moor and mountain, not merely from all corners of Upper and Lower Styria, but from Carinthia; from Moravia and Silesia; from the Tyrol; from Bohemia; from Vienna, the capital; and from many other distant points of the Austrian empire.

The annual pilgrimage from Vienna is regulated by the government itself, which fixes the day of its departure always in the hot months of July or August. An Imperial proclamation to this effect, and enjoining the pilgrims to pray before the shrine of the Virgin for the prosperity of the House of Hapsburg, is stuck up on the great gate of St. Stephen's. On the appointed day the devotees assemble in that Gothic cathedral at earliest dawn; at four o'clock in the morning high mass is performed, and then the long, picturesque line, consisting of all ages and of both sexes, separated into divisions by religious banners and crucifixes, begins its toilsome march towards the rugged mountains of Styria; the pilgrims chanting hymns as they go, and having their weary steps cheered from time to time by the music of trumpets and kettle-drums that are scattered along the line, at the head of the several divisions.

A traveler, who witnessed the scene in the year 1822, says, that the procession which he saw leave Vienna consisted of nearly 3,000 persons, who were all of the poorer classes. Females predominated, and among the young women, who were numerous, he observed many who were exceedingly pretty, and looked very graceful in their pilgrim-weeds. Almost all of them were barefooted; they carried long staves entwined with flowers, and wore, for the most part, straw bonnets with enormous brims, to protect their faces from the scorching rays of the sun. This female equipment varies very much in the different provinces, each of which has its distinctive costume; and this circumstance adds to the picturesqueness of the scene when pilgrimages from different parts meet at their common centre —the shrine of Mariazell.

The Vienna pilgrims generally return home on the fourth day after their departure. From whatever place they may come the pilgrims always ascend the rough mountain of Mariazell singing hymns to the Virgin; here the young women, taking off their straw hats or white linen caps, let their hair flow in loose disorder over their shoulders; and the sturdier pilgrims, to increase their penance, and the natural difficulties of the way, drag huge heavy wooden crosses after them up the steep ascent. On gaining the summit of the mountain, and the sight of the gloomy, antique church, the pilgrims all fall prostrate, and raise a universal and long-continued shout; after which they cross themselves, rise, and approach the shrine slowly and reverentially, singing as if with one voice, and making the mountains reëcho with their solemn and harmonious notes. The shrine is in a small and dark chapel in the very centre of the gloomy church; the chapel is dimly lighted by a single lamp, the ray of which is eclipsed by the glare of precious stones and metals that have been lavished there by the devotion or superstition of many succeeding generations. A massy silver railing guards the entrance to the shrine, and in front of this costly fence the crowded votaries kneel, and pray to a picture which they can scarcely see. In the rear of the chapel there is a stone image of the Virgin Mary, supported on a detached stone pillar. At most seasons this pillar is surrounded by a double circle of pilgrims; the inner one consisting of females, all on

PILGRIMAGE TO MARIAZELL.

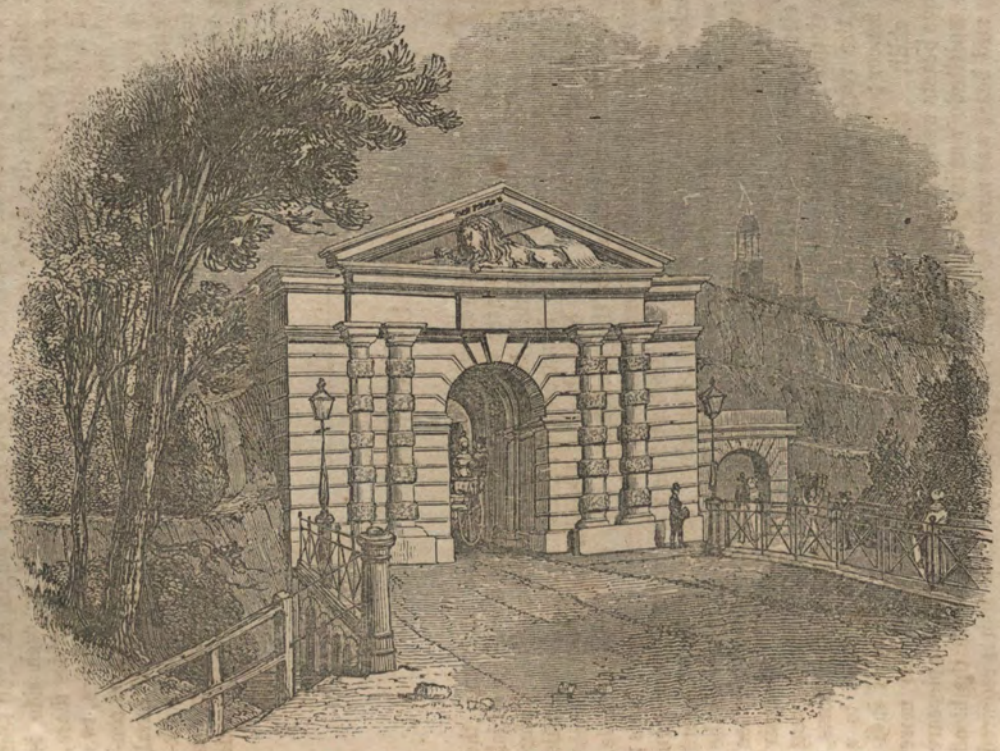
their knees—the outer circle only of men, leaning on their long staves. At the evening hour, which in Catholic countries is sacred to the Virgin—at the pensive, twilight *Ave Maria*, the scenes in the church are romantic and picturesque.

As Mr. Russel entered the church, "the sun was just going down behind the bare precipices of the neighboring mountains, and the pilgrims were arranged to await the signal to chant the Ave Maria. The isle in which they were assembled was cold and sombre; the weak rays of light passing through the stained glass of a large Gothic window, covered them with a hundred soft and varied tints, and not a whisper disturbed the solemn silence, except the indistinct murmur of prayer from the holy chapel. At length the sun disappeared, and the bells gave the signal for the evening service. The young women in the inner part of the circle immediately began to move slowly round the pillar on their knees, singing, with voices in which there was much natural harmony, a hymn to the Virgin; while the men stood still, taking up the burden at the end of every stanza, and bending to the earth before the sacred image."

When the church service terminates, other scenes not less romantic take place in the neighboring woods. Although the town of Mariazell, which owes its existence to the favorite shrine, is composed almost entirely of inns and ale-houses for the accommodation of pilgrims, who come in larger or smaller bodies from all parts, and at all seasons of the year, except when the deep snows render the mountains impassable; and although they make use of beds somewhat similar in dimensions to the famed bed of Ware, and capable of holding a dozen persons, there is not in-door room enough for all at the periods of great pilgrimages. Motives of economy also, and even of enjoyment in the fine warm nights of summer, may induce some to prefer the open air to the crowded hostels of the town: but, at all events, at that season hundreds, and often thousands, of the pilgrims bivouac in separate parties in the woods, where, after eating their suppers, they pass the greater part of the night in singing, one party replying to the chorus of another, and then another and another succeeding in distant and soft harmony. Among a people who almost universally cultivate music, and sing in parts or in chorus with taste and precision, the effect of this nocturnal concert of many voices may be easily imagined. At the earliest dawn of day, parties drawn out in long file, and marching two by two, begin to emerge from the woods and from the town; and at times go on increasing, until the mountain sides and the valley beneath seem dotted all over with the white caps and the white dresses of the female pilgrims, who, come whence they may, always greatly exceed the men in number.

PORTSEA.

PORTSMOUTH and Portsea are inclosed by strong fortifications, and the sea coast on each side of the mouth of the harbor is lined with batteries. The fortifications extend in a semicircle round the town on the land side, forming a fine terrace, in some parts shaded with trees, and affording a variety of extensive and beautiful views. There are



LION GATE—PORTSEA.

several grand entrance gateways. The dockyard is in Portsea: it is the largest in the kingdom. It has a sea wharf wall, which extends along the shore of the harbor 3,500 feet; the mean breadth of the dockyard is about 2,000 feet, and it covers upwards of 100 acres. It is entered from the town by a gateway, and may be visited by strangers without any formal introduction. The great basin has its entrance in the centre of the wharf wall; it is two acres and a half in area, 380 feet in length, and 260 feet in breadth; four dry docks open into this basin, and on each side is another dry dock, all capable of receiving first-class ships. Besides these, there is a double dock for frigates. There are also six building slips, two of which are capable of receiving the largest vessels. The dockyard contains a royal naval college, a handsome building for a school of naval architecture, the Port Admiral's house, ranges of storehouses and workshops for almost every article required in ship-building, a smithy, an iron and a copper mill, a copper refinery, and wood mills, where every article of turnery requisite for naval purposes is made.

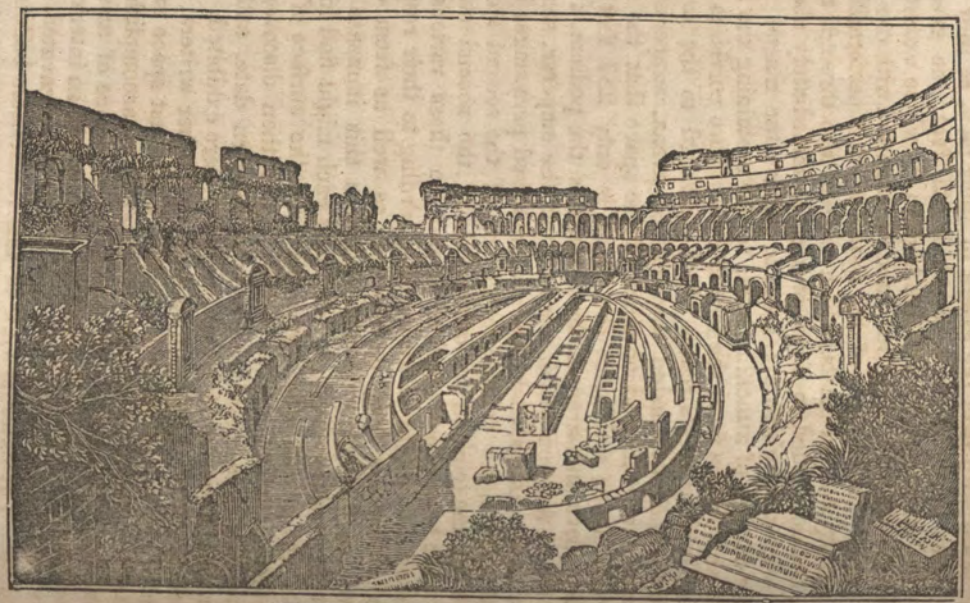
THE COLOSSEUM.

WHEN the imperial power was firmly established at Rome, the sports of the amphitheatre were conducted upon a scale to which the Consuls of the republic had scarcely dared to aspire. Caligula, on his birth-day, gave four hundred bears, and as many other wild beasts, to be slain; and on the birth-day of Drusilla he exhibited these brutal spectacles, continued to the succeeding day, on a similar scale. Claudius instituted combats between Thessalian horsemen and wild bulls; and he also caused camels to fight for the first time with horses. Invention was racked to devise new combinations of cruelty. Many of the emperors abandoned themselves to these sports with as passionate an ardor as the uncultivated multitude. Sensuality debases as much as ignorance, because it is ignorance under another name. Claudius rose at daylight to repair to the circus, and frequently remained, that he might not lose a single pang of the victims, while the people went to their afternoon meal. Sometimes, during the reigns of Claudius and Nero, an elephant was opposed to a single fencer; and the spectators were delighted by the display of individual skill. Sometimes hundreds, and even thousands, of the more ferocious beasts were slaughtered by guards on horseback; and the pleasure of the multitude was in proportion to the lavishness with which the blood of man and beast was made to flow. The passion for these sports required a more convenient theatre for its gratification than the old circus. The Colosseum was commenced by Vespasian, and completed by Titus (A. D. 79.) This enormous building occupied only three years in its erection. Cassiodorus affirms that this magnificent monument of folly cost as much as would have been required for the building of a capital city. We have the means of distinctly ascertaining its dimensions and accommodations from the great mass of wall that still remains entire; and, although the very clamps of iron and brass that held together the ponderous stones of

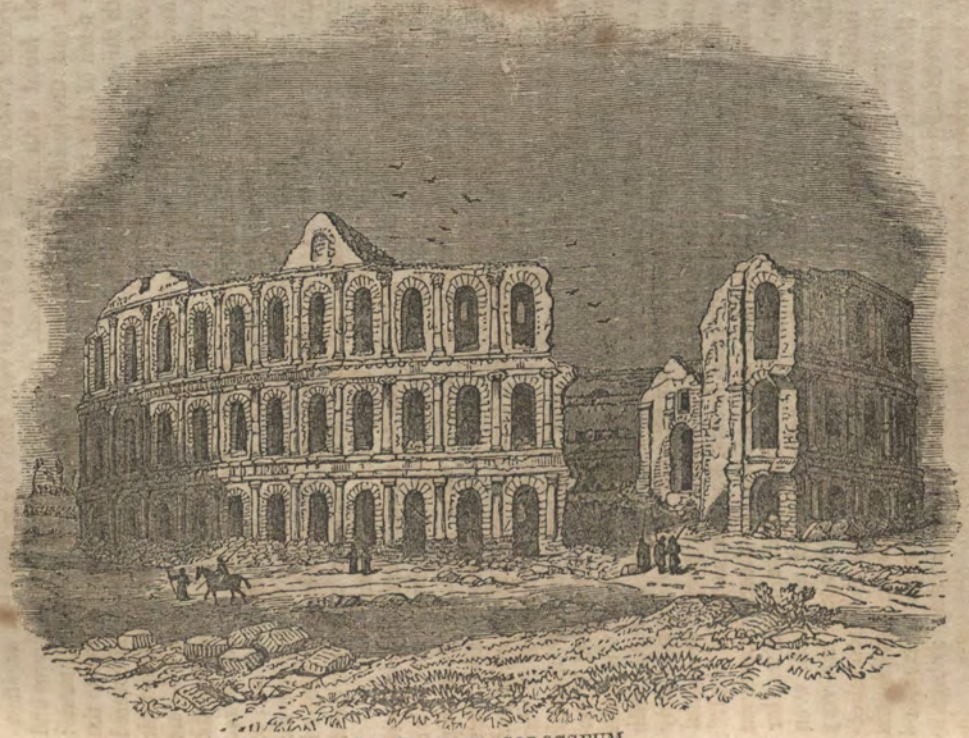
that wonderful edifice were removed by Gothic plunderers, and succeeding generations have resorted to it as to a quarry for their temples and their palaces, yet the "enormous skeleton" still stands, to show what prodigious works may be raised by the skill and perseverance of man, and how vain are the mightiest displays of his power when compared with those intellectual efforts which have extended the empire of virtue and of science.

The Colosseum, which is of an oval form, occupies the space of nearly six acres. It may justly be said to have been the most imposing building, from its apparent magnitude, in the world; the pyramids of Egypt can only be compared with it in the extent of their plan, as they cover nearly the same surface. The greatest length is 620 feet, the greatest breadth 513 feet. The outer wall is 157 feet high in its whole extent. The exterior wall is divided into four stories, each ornamented with one of the orders of architecture. The cornice of the upper story is perforated for the purpose of inserting wooden masts, which passed also through the architrave and frieze, and descended to a row of corbels immediately above the upper range of windows, on which are holes to receive the masts. These masts were for the purpose of attaching cords to, for sustaining the awning which defended the spectators from the sun or rain. Two corridors ran all round the building, leading to staircases which ascended to the several stories; and the seats which descended towards the arena, supported throughout upon eighty arches, occupied so much of the space that the clear opening of the present inner wall next the arena is only 287 feet by 180 feet. Immediately above and around the arena was the podium, elevated about twelve or fifteen feet, on which were seated the emperor, senators, ambassadors of foreign nations, and other distinguished personages in that city of distinctions. From the podium to the top of the second story were seats of marble for the equestrian order; above the second story the seats appear to have been constructed of wood. In these various seats eighty thousand spectators might be arranged according to their respective ranks; and indeed it appears from inscriptions, as well as from expressions in Roman writers, that many of the places in this immense theatre were assigned to particular individuals, and that each might find his seat without confusion. The ground was excavated over the surface of the arena in 1813; a great number of substructions were then discovered, which by some antiquarians are considered to be of modern date, and by others to have formed dens for the various beasts that were exhibited. The descriptions which have been left by historians and other writers, of the variety and extent of the shows, would indicate that a vast space and ample conveniences were required beneath the stage, to accomplish the wonders which were doubtless there realized in the presence of assembled Rome. We subjoin, from Messrs. Cresy and Taylor's work, an interior view looking west, taken at the time when the arena was so excavated. It has since been filled up. The external view of this remarkable building is given as it existed in the time of Piranesi, in the last century.

Gibbon, the historian, has given a splendid description, in his twelfth book, of the exhibitions of the Colosseum; but he acknowledges his obligations to Montaigne, who, says the historian, "gives a very just and lively view of Roman magnificence in these spectacles." Our readers, will, we doubt not, be gratified by the quaint but most appropriate sketch of the old philosopher of France:



INTERIOR VIEW OF THE COLOSSEUM.



ROME—THE COLOSSEUM.

"It was doubtless a fine thing to bring and plant within the theatre a great number of vast trees, with all their branches in their full verdure, representing a great shady forest, disposed in excellent order, and the first day to throw into it a thousand ostriches, a thousand stags, a thousand boars, and a thousand fallow deer, to be killed and disposed of by the people: the next day to cause an hundred great lions, an hundred leopards and three hundred bears to be killed in his presence: and for the third day, to make three hundred pair of fencers to fight it out to the last, as the emperor Probus did. It was also very fine to see those vast ampitheatres, all faced with marble without, curiously wrought with figures and statues, and the inside sparkling with rare decorations and enrichments; all the sides of this vast space filled and environed from the bottom to the top with three or four score ranks of seats—all of marble also—and covered with cushions, where an hundred thousand men might sit placed at their ease; and the place below, where the plays were played, to make it by art first open and cleft into chinks, representing caves that vomited out the beasts designed for the spectacle; and then, secondly, to be overflowed with a profound sea, full of sea-monsters, and loaded with ships of war, to represent a naval battle; and, thirdly, to make it dry and even again for the combats of the gladiators; and for the fourth scene, to have it strewed with vermillion and storax, instead of sand, there to make a solemn feast for all that infinite number of people—the last act of one only day.

"Sometimes they have made a high mountain advance itself, full of fruit trees and other flourishing sorts of woods, sending down rivulets of water from the top, as from the mouth of a fountain: other whiles, a great ship was seen to come rolling in, which opened and divided of itself; and after having disgorged from the hold four or five hundred beasts for fight, closed again and vanished without help. At other times, from the floor of this place, they made spouts of perfumed waters dart their streams upward, and so high as to besprinkle all that infinite multitude. To defend themselves from the injuries of the weather, they had that vast place one while covered over with purple curtains of needlework, and bye and bye with silk of another color, which they could draw off or on in a moment, as they had a mind. The net-work also, that was set before the people to defend them from the violence of these turned-out beasts, was also woven of gold."

"If there be anything excusable in such excesses as these," continues Montaigne, "it is where the novelty and invention create more wonder than expense." Fortunately for the real enjoyments of mankind, even under the sway of a Roman despot, "the novelty and invention" had very narrow limits when applied to matters so utterly unworthy and unintellectual as the cruel sports of the ampitheatre. Probus, indeed, transplanted trees to the arena, so that it had the appearance of a verdant grove; and Severus introduced four hundred ferocious animals in one ship sailing in the little lake which the arena formed. But on ordinary occasions, profusion — tasteless, haughty and uninventive profusion — the gorgeousness of brute power, the pomp of satiated luxury — these constituted the only claim to the popular admiration. If Titus exhibited five thousand wild beasts at the dedication of the amphitheatre, Trajan bestowed ten thousand on the people at the conclusion of the Dacian war. If the younger Gordian collected together bears, elks, zebras, ostriches, boars, and wild horses, he was an imitator only of the spectacles of Carinus, in which the rarity of

the animals was as much considered as their fierceness. Gibbon has well remarked, "While the populace gazed with stupid wonder on the splendid show, the naturalist might indeed observe the figure and properties of so many different species, transported from every part of the ancient world into the ampitheatre of Rome. But this accidental benefit, which science might derive from folly, is surely insufficient to justify such a wanton abuse of the public riches." The prodigal waste of the public riches, however, was not the weightiest evil of the sports of the circus. The public morality was sacrificed upon the same shrine as its wealth. The destruction of beasts became a fit preparation for the destruction of men. A small number of those unhappy persons who engaged in fight with the wild animals of the arena, were trained to these dangerous exercises, as are the matadors of Spain at the present day. These men were accustomed to exhaust the courage of the beast by false attacks; to spring on a sudden past him, striking him behind before he could recover his guard; to cast a cloak over his eyes, and then despatch or bind him at this critical moment of his terror; or to throw a cup full of some chemical preparation into his gaping mouth, so as to produce the stupefaction of intense agony. But the greater part of the human beings who were exposed to these combats, perilous even to the most skillful, were disobedient slaves and convicted malefactors. The Christians, during their persecutions, constituted a very large number of the latter class. The Roman power was necessarily intolerant; the assemblies of the new religion became objects of dislike and suspicion; the patience and constancy of the victims increased the fury of their oppressors; and even such a man as the younger Pliny held that their obstinacy alone was deserving of punishment. Thus, then, the imperial edicts against the early Christians furnished more stimulating exhibitions to the popular appetite for blood than the combat of lion with lion, or gladiator with gladiator. The people were taught to believe that they were assisting at a solemn act of justice; and they came therefore to behold the tiger and the leopard tear the quivering limb of the aged and the young, of the strong and the feeble, without a desire to rescue the helpless, or to succor the brave.

BATTLE ABBEY.

THIS famous and once splendid ecclesiastical foundation owes its origin to the great battle between King Harold and William of Normandy, which deprived the former of his crown, and decided, at one of the most critical stages of her history, the fate of England.

The town of Battle, which, with the parish, contains about three thousand inhabitants, stands on rising ground about eight miles north-west from Hastings. It commands a rich and extensive prospect, comprehending the expanse of the ocean to the south, and a sweep of highly cultivated country in all other directions. The village itself consists principally of a single street, which runs up the declivity, and at a little distance from the termination of which, on the top, stands the abbey.

It was on the 28th of September, 1066, that William of Normandy landed at Pevensey, or Pemsey, as it is commonly called, on the Sussex coast, about nine miles to the west of Hastings, at the head of the powerful armament with which he intended to win a kingdom. Harold was at the time in the north, where he had just achieved a great victory over another band of foreign invaders, the Norwegians, headed by their king, who fell in the fight. Owing probably to this circumstance no attempt was made to oppose the landing of William. That leader, as soon as he had got his troops on shore, commenced the erection of a fort on the spot, and sunk, or as some authorities assert, burnt his ships, which are said to have been above nine hundred in number, without reckoning small craft. They must have been vessels of such size as to carry fifty or sixty men each. It was some time before Harold made his appearance to repel this aggression upon his dominions. But the two armies met at last on the fourteenth of October, the birth-day of the English king. Harold on that morning was posted on the eminence now occupied by the village of Battle, and his adversary on another rising ground a short distance to the south.

About nine in the morning, the Norman army began to move, crossed the interval between the two hills, and slowly ascended the eminence on which the English were posted. The banner of St. Peter, as a presage of victory, was borne in the van by Tonstain the Fair—a dangerous honor, which two of the barons had successively declined. Harold beheld them gradually advance, and as the third division appeared, he broke out into violent exclamations of anger and dismay. He had the advantage of the ground, and having secured his flank by trenches, he resolved to stand upon the defensive, and to avoid all action with the cavalry, in which he was inferior. The men of Kent were placed in front, a privilege which they always claimed as their due. The Londoners had the honor of being the royal body guard, and were posted around the standard. The King, himself, on foot, took his station at the head of the infantry, determined to conquer or perish in the action. The Normans rushed to the onset, shouting their national tocsin, "God is our help!" which was loudly answered by the adverse cry of "Christ's cross! the Holy cross!" The battle soon became general, and raged with great fury. The Norman archers advancing, discharged their weapons with effect; but they were received with equal valor by the English, who firmly kept their ground. After the first shower of arrows, they returned to the attack with spears and lances; and again they were obliged to retire, unable to make any impression on their opponents. The battle had continued with desperate obstinacy; and from nine till three in the afternoon, the success on either side was nearly balanced. Disappointed and perplexed at seeing his troops everywhere repulsed by an unbroken wall of courageous soldiers, the Norman general had recourse to a stratagem. He resolved to hazard a feigned retreat; and a body of a thousand horse were ordered to take flight. The artifice was successful. The credulous English, in the heat of action, followed; but their temerity was speedily punished with terrible slaughter. Still the great body of the army maintained its position; for so long as Harold lived and fought, they seemed to be invincible. A little before sunset, an arrow, shot at random, pierced his eye; he dropped from his steed in agony; and the knowledge of his fall relaxed the efforts of his followers. A furious charge of the Norman horse increased the confusion which the

RUINS OF BATTLE ABBEY.

King's wound must have occasioned. For a time, the Kentish men and East Saxons seemed to retrieve the fortune of the day. At length the English banner was cut down, and the papal colors erected in its place, announced that William of Normandy was the conqueror. It was now late in the evening, but such was the obstinacy of the vanquished, that they continued the struggle in many parts of the bloody field long after dark. The carnage was great. On the part of the conquerors, nearly sixty thousand men had been engaged, and of these more than one fourth were left dead on the field. The number of the English and the amount of their loss are unknown. The vanity of the Normans has exaggerated the army of the enemy beyond the bounds of credibility; but the native writers reduce it to a handful of resolute warriors. The historians of both countries agree, that with Harold and his brothers perished all the nobility of the south of England.

The erection of Battle Abbey (the Abbatia de Bello, as it was called in Latin) was commenced by the conqueror in the course of the following year, in conformity, it is said, with a vow which he had made before the fight, but was not completed till 1094, in the reign of Rufus. The high altar is asserted to have been placed on the spot where the dead body of Harold was found. It is more probable, however, as other authorities record, that the spot was that on which the royal standard was raised at the commencement of the battle. The house was originally intended to contain one hundred and forty monks, but only sixty were placed in it, who were brought from the monastery of Marmoustier in Normandy. Many manors, chiefly in the counties of Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Oxford and Berks, were bestowed upon it, along with the most ample privileges,—exemption from all taxation, the rights of free warren, treasure trove and sanctuary; independence of episcopal jurisdiction; and to the abbot, the singular prerogative of pardoning any condemned thief or robber whom he should meet on his way to execution. Numerous charters granted by the Conqueror, by William Rufus, by Henry I., and by other kings, down to Henry IV., in favor of this establishment, are still preserved.

BEDFORD.

AMONG the social phenomena of England, its charitable institutions are deservedly famous, not only for their numbers, which are almost incalculable, but for the individual magnificence they so frequently exhibit. We do not, however, consider them a subject for unmingled congratulation. Charities are the outpourings of the very rich to the very poor, honorable to the giver and not necessarily degrading to the receiver, but revealing by their very existence the necessities they so imperfectly remove, the fearful inequalities of our social condition. But these necessities do exist: therefore, when we look around on our schools, colleges, infirmaries, and asylums, our foundling hospitals for deserted infancy, our almshouses for friendless old age, and our houses of refuge for those who are destitute, we must at least feel grateful to their founders.

BEDFORD SCHOOL.

The great benefactor of Bedford was Sir William Harpur, an alderman of London in the reign of Edward the Sixth, who, after establishing a free-school for the instruction of the children of the town in "grammar and good manners," conveyed to the corporation thirteen acres of land, situated in the parish of St. Andrew, Holborn (London), for its support, and for the unusual purpose of portioning poor maidens of the town, the overplus to be given in alms to the poor. The land was let on building leases; and considering that it now comprises Lamb's Conduit-street, Bedford-row, and the streets in the immediate neighborhood, we need not be surprised to find the value of the property raised from 150*l.* a year to 13,500*l.*, its amount in 1833. So great an increase of income has required, at different periods, the interference of Parliament to regulate its distribution. The best illustration we can give of the modes in which this large sum is spent, is the abstract of the accounts for 1833–4, from which we extract the following items, omitting the fractional sums:—Expended on the different schools, 2630*l.*: exhibitions, 640*l.*; marriage-portions, 500*l.*; hospital for poor children, 670*l.*; donations on going out to service, 80*l.*; payments with apprentices, 1335*l.*: donations to apprentices after service, 290*l.*; almshouses (58 in number,) 2200*l.*; distributed to the poor, 800*l.*; buildings and furniture, 4711*l.*; expenses of various kinds, about 2807*l.*: making the entire expenditure for that year 16,363*l.* The different schools alluded to are the grammar-school, containing, besides the private boarders, about 80 boys, a commercial school with 100 to 150 boys, and a national school containing 350 boys, in which on half-holydays 170 girls are taught. In addition to these a building is now in course of erection for a regular girls' school and an infant school. Gratuitous instruction, including books and every necessary, is thus afforded to the children of all resident parishioners in the five parishes that constitute the town. The girls in the hospital for poor children are taught household duties and needlework, as well as reading and writing. The exhibitions, eight in number, and worth 80*l.* each, are given to the ablest boys in the school (six to those on the foundation, and two to the private boarders,) for their support at college. We have therefore the entire education of a town, present and future, provided for by the gift of one individual! Our engraving presents a view of the range of buildings recently erected by the trustees, in the Tudor style of architecture; the building on the left is the preparatory school, that on the right the commercial; the centre range comprising the clerk's dwelling-house, board-room, and blue-coat hospital.

FOTHERINGAY.

THE midland counties of England are rich in scenes of historical interest. The events of which the ancient towns of Leicester, Warwick, Coventry, Northampton, Stamford, or Peterboro' have each been the theatre, cannot be touched upon without becoming involved in some of the most important passages of English history. In these towns Parliaments have assembled, at which mailed barons and their armed retainers met in jealousy of the sovereign and often of each other; and before the fusion

FOTHERINGAY CHURCH

of all parts into one common body, each possessing similar interests—when the question, "What do they in the north?" was one on which depended the arming of partisans and friends in the south, east, or west—opposing factions advanced and met here in the heart of old England, disturbing the labors of its rural population, awing the towns, if their numbers were sufficiently formidable, and exciting the burghers to join their ranks, if the cause were inspiriting and calculated to strike the popular feeling. Of all these by-gone events it is interesting to have some memorial.

The village of Fotheringay, near Oundle, in the north-eastern part of Northamptonshire, is chiefly known as the place where Mary Queen of Scots was executed, after having been a prisoner for the space of eighteen years in a country where she expected to have been received hospitably, at least, if not with the kindly feelings of kinship.

At the period of the Domesday Survey, the Countess Judith held land at "Fodringeia." By the second marriage of her daughter with David, king of Scotland, the manor of Fotheringay came into the possession of the Scottish king, and it was subsequently in the possession of his sons Malcolm and William, who were successively kings of Scotland. The castle had been built about the year 1084, by Simon de St. Liz, a Norman, second Earl of Northampton. In 1212, being then held by David of Scotland, he was required by King John to give it up to the English crown, and refusing to accede to this demand, the sheriff was directed to raise the civil force of the county, and, with the assistance of the townsmen of Northampton, to obtain possession. This object they effected. In 1307 Edward II. granted the castle to the Earl of Richmond. In this reign, a weekly market on Wednesday, and a yearly fair on the eve, day and morrow of St. Michael, were instituted. The state of the castle in 1340, as ascertained under an inquisition held in that year, is thus described:—It was well built of stone, walled in, embattled, and encompassed with a good moat. Within the castle was one large hall, two chapels, two chambers, a kitchen, and bakehouse, all of stone, with a porter's lodge, having a chamber over it and a drawbridge beneath. The apartments were thus few and inconvenient; but within the castle walls was another place, called the manor, which contained houses and offices, and an outward gate with a room over it. The area enclosed was altogether about ten acres. The castle, being bounded on the east and south by the Nene, would appear to have been tolerably inaccessible when the wretched state of the roads at that period is taken into account. At this inquisition it was shown that a neighboring abbey enjoyed a messuage in the village, with some land, on condition of performing service thrice a week for the souls of John Baliol and his ancestors, kings of Scotland, once lords of the castle and manor. About the end of the fourteenth century, the castle, being in a ruinous condition, was repaired and its strength increased by a keep.

During the fifteenth century, Fotheringay Castle belonged to several members of the Plantagenet family. Edward Plantagenet, who died on the field of Agincourt, was buried in the church of Fotheringay. Near him was interred his kinsman, Richard, Duke of York, who in an attempt to raise himself to the throne was killed at the fight at Wakefield, in 1460, along with his third son, Edmund, Earl of Rutland. The funeral ceremonies were conducted with great pomp, and the king and many of the nobility were present. The wife of Richard, a woman of great ambition, survived

him thirty-six years, most of which she spent at Fotheringay. She had married in the hope of becoming queen. The death of her husband and son at Wakefield, and of Richard III., also her son (who was born at Fotheringay), at Bosworth, were severe blows to the party of her family. The murders of her grandsons, Edward V. and his brother, were still more appalling instances of the perils with which faction surrounded the claims of royalty. But though not a queen herself, one of her sons, Edward IV., sat upon the throne. It was during the reign of the latter that she gave up to the crown her rights in the manor of Fotheringay; and here Alexander of Scotland promised Edward fealty when he should come to the Scottish throne. Henry VII. gave the manor to his wife, and Henry VIII. settled it upon his first queen. It was held by the crown down to the reign of James I.

In the reign of Henry VIII. the castle was decribed by Leland as "fair and metely strong, with double ditches, and with a keep very ancient and strong. There be very fair lodgyns in the castell, and, as I heard, Catarine of Spain did great costs of late tymes in refreshing of it." The road towards Oundle, a distance of two miles, he describes as "by mervelus fair corn-ground and pasture, but little wooded."

In the reign of James I., a few years after the execution of the Queen of Scots, his mother, the condition of the castle, ascertained by proper inquisition, was as follows:—The castle was built of stone, and surrounded a fair court, being itself encompassed by a double moat. The great dining-room was well garnished with pictures, the hall large and spacious, the lodgings were goodly; there was a convenient yard for wood, large brew-houses, and a capacious barn. On the south side the Nene formed the moat, and the inner moat was formed by the mill-brook. The demolition of the castle by James was intended to mark his indignation at the execution of his mother.

In 1787, when Mr. Nicholls visited the site, he remarked that "almost all the materials have been carried away, and even the foundations dug up, for the purposes of building, and for repairing the roads, causeways, and banks of the river. The palace was situated on the south-east side of the castle-hill, fronting the river that runs below, commanding a most beautiful prospect over the extensive meadows into the south. The porch, or entrance, except a small fragment, has been taken down within these few years. A farm-house has been built on the spot occupied by the old stables." Mr. Nicholls says that the hall where Mary was beheaded was on the first ascent, and the keep on the second. There was an excellent specimen of an old hostelry existing in 1787, which was then still used as an inn.

The village has not a population of three hundred souls. The fair and market which it once possessed have long ceased to attract sellers and buyers. A nunnery which existed here was transferred at an early period to another place. In 1411 a college was begun for a master, twelve chaplains, or fellows, eight clerks, and thirteen choristers. Henry IV., and Edward, Duke of York, who was buried at Fotheringay, were the co-founders of this institution, which was not dissolved until the reign of Edward VI. As Leland remarks of the village—"The glorie of it standeth by the paroch church of a fair buildid and collegiated." It contains an ancient stone pulpit and a fine font. If the remains of the castle had been

on an extensive scale, and well preserved, the village would be more familiarly known than it is; but its celebrity and consequence are solely the reflection of past times, the monuments of which do not exist to attract the visitor to the spot.

FARNHAM CASTLE.

FARNHAM PARISH, in Surrey, England, possesses several points of interest. Its name is perhaps the most generally known from the celebrity of the hops produced within its limits; while another class of people know it best as containing the principal official residence of the bishops of Winchester; and antiquarians feel some interest in it on account of the remains of the castle built by the ancient bishops. The engraving directs our attention to the castle and palace principally.

The manor of Farnham was given to the see of Winchester by Ethelbald, king of the West Saxons, and it has ever since remained the property of the bishops. The castle, which stands upon a hill on the north side of the town of Farnham, is said to have been built by Bishop Henry de Blois, the brother of king Stephen, in the year 1129. In that age bishops were nearly as much soldiers as ecclesiastics, and, in the spirit of the times, found or thought it necessary to erect fortresses after the manner of the temporal peers; often, however, deeming it also necessary to counterpoise an act so exclusively secular by founding a number of ecclesiastical or learned establishments equal to that of their military structures. There are few points of interest in the history of Farnham Castle. It was one of the fortresses which, in the unhappy reign of King John, fell into the hands of Louis, the Dauphin of France, who possessed himself of it in June, 1216; but it was, not long afterwards, recovered for Henry III. In the course of the wars between that monarch and his barons, this castle was held by the latter, but being taken by the king, was in a great measure destroyed by his directions. It was afterwards rebuilt in a style of considerable magnificence, with a deep moat, strong walls, and towers. No notice of it, however, occurs in history until the civil war in the time of Charles I. Sir John Denham, who was nominated sheriff of the county in 1642, took possession of it for the king, and was appointed its governor; but he soon after withdrew to join the king at Oxford, leaving the castle to the mercy of Waller, the Parliament's General, who after making the small garrison prisoners, blew up the fortress on the 29th of December, the same year. About a year afterwards, Sir William Waller is mentioned as having drawn up his forces in Farnham Park, and as marching from thence to Alton (nine miles distant), where he put Lord Craford to flight, and returned to Farnham with seven hundred prisoners, whom he secured in the castle and parish church. The next notice of the castle occurs in July, 1648, when it was referred to the committee at Derby House, to take "such effectual course with Farnham Castle as to put it in that condition of indefensibleness as it may be no occasion for endangering the peace of

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the county." A rate was made in the county to defray the expense of this service. From this and the preceding statement it would seem that the injuries it sustained during the siege and from the subsequent blowing up, had not completely reduced it to a ruined condition.

After the restoration, Bishop Morley expended £8,000 in rebuilding and repairing the palace which his predecessors had erected within the precincts of the castle, and which had generally formed their principal residence. It is neither very handsome nor very convenient, and appears to have been patched up out of the building dismantled by order of Parliament. It is quadrangular, embattled, and built of brick, covered with stucco. The most impressive part is the great entrance tower at the west end, which retains the most of an ancient appearance, and confers some dignity on this front of the edifice. It is in that style of brick building which was brought into use in the reign of Edward IV.

THE LIFE BOAT.

THE heavy seas which break upon the rugged coasts of Northumberland and Durham, render that part of Britain the frequent scene of disastrous shipwrecks. In the year 1789, the ship Adventure, of Newcastle, was stranded on the south side of Tynemouth Haven, in the midst of tremendous breakers. The crew climbed up into the shrouds for safety, from whence they dropped into the sea in the presence of thousands of spectators, not one of whom dared to venture out to their assistance in the common description of boats, although stimulated by the prospect of a high reward. The inhabitants of South Shields were so strongly affected by this melancholy occurrence that a public meeting was called, at which a committee was formed, and empowered to offer premiums for plans of a boat on a principle which should render it impossible to sink in the heaviest sea. Among many which were laid before the committee, that of Mr. Henry Greatheed obtained the most general approbation; and, in pursuance of their orders, the first life-boat was constructed by him, and launched on the 30th of January, 1790. The value of this invention was soon fully proved, and its importance to the mercantile navy acknowledged. Mr. Greatheed had made his models public, and therefore did not himself receive those advantages which, in justice, he ought to have derived from his ingenuity. In 1802 he accordingly petitioned the House of Commons, for the purpose of obtaining from the nation such reward as, in consideration of these circumstances, he might be thought to deserve. The petition was referred to a committee, which particularly directed its inquiries as to the utility of the life-boat, and the originality of the invention claimed by Mr. Greatheed. On the first point several old seamen and persons employed in shipping were examined. One of the former stated that he had himself been in the life-boat, and had seen her go off scores of times, and never saw her fail in bringing away the crew from wrecks or vessels in distress. No other boat could have gone from the shore at the time the life-boat went. He also stated that, in the event of the life-boat filling

LAUNCHING THE LIFE BOAT.

with water, she would still continue upright, and not founder as boats of the common construction did. He had seen her come ashore so full of water that it ran over each side. Another individual had been witness to the wreck of several ships at the same time. Out of one vessel the life-boat took fifteen men, who would otherwise inevitably have perished, as the ship went to pieces immediately after, and the wreck came on shore almost as soon as the boat. The crew of one of these vessels took to their own boat, which sunk, and all but two were lost. It was stated that, on one occasion, when the boat was full of water, the crew all went to one side, in order to try the possibility of upsetting her, which they were unable to accomplish. At the time when this committee was appointed, twelve years had elapsed since Mr. Greatheed's invention, during which period at least three hundred persons had been brought on shore from wrecks and ships in distress off Shields alone. It was fully established that no sea, however high, could upset or sink the life-boat. The originality of the invention being also clearly due to Mr. Greatheed, Parliament voted him the sum of £1200, "as a reward for his invention of the life-boat, whereby many lives have already been saved, and great security is afforded to seamen and property in cases of shipwreck." The subscribers to Lloyd's presented Mr. Greatheed with 100 guineas, and voted £2000 for the purpose of encouraging the building of life-boats in different ports of the kingdom. Two years afterwards, the Emperor Alexander presented Mr. Greatheed with a valuable diamond ring.

Owing to the dangerous character of the Durham and Northumberland coast, and the quantity of shipping belonging to the north-eastern ports, the life-boat is oftener launched there than from any other part of the kingdom; and, under the guidance of its crew, more frequently snatches the mariner from destruction.

The great characteristic of the life-boat is its buoyancy. It possesses this requisite quality in consequence of the bottom being hollow and perfectly air-tight; and the sides are also surrounded by several boxes, or compartments, which are also air-tight. We believe that boats are coming into use provided with a set of copper tubes. One upon this plan has been constructed at Sunderland. The division of the sides into several parts prevents the boat being endangered in case of its being struck by a cross wave. This, however, can seldom occur, because both ends being formed alike, the direction of the boat can be changed without exposing it to the rude shocks to which it would be subjected by turning from one point to another in a tempestuous sea. It is also contrived that when the boat ascends the waves, any water which it may have shipped passes out at the lower end; and there are also a number of holes at the bottom, through which whatever remains is immediately discharged. The Sunderland boat was built in the year 1800, ten years after Mr. Greatheed's invention had become known. It is twenty-six feet in length, and the width is nine and a-half feet. This boat, on one occasion, would have been knocked to pieces by a cross sea but for the division of the side into various parts. In the bottom are six air-holes, which are so proportioned to the size and gravity of the vessel that, when full of water, it is discharged in forty seconds. She is managed by six or ten men, as the urgency of the case may require, two of whom steer with seventeen-feet oars. The oars are secured in their places by a coiled rope. The boat is preserved in repair, and its crew paid

by a small impost on ships entering the harbor. When out of service, it is kept under a substantial shed near the beach, mounted upon a four-wheeled carriage. As soon as the thrilling cry "A wreck!" is heard, the lieutenant of the boat assembles his men; and after a survey of the ill-fated ship, each proceeds to his place in the boat. When all their arrangements are completed, two or more horses are harnessed to the carriage, and the boat is drawn to the water's edge. By a mechanical contrivance, the frame of the carriage is then brought into a sloping position, and the boat is launched amid the breakers to pursue its benevolent enterprise.

The men who compose the crew of the life-boat often acquire a sort of moral dignity, occasioned by the exercise of the manly virtues which a faithful discharge of their duties demands, and the sympathetic feelings to which they are habituated by the nature of their vocation. A fine fellow at Tynemouth said to the artist who made the sketches which accompany this description, patting the sides of his boat as if it were a favorite animal, "Have you made a picture of my boat, sir? She's a good one, and has been with me at the saving of twenty-seven lives in one morning."

The boats in general of this description, are painted white on the outside; this color more immediately engaging the eye of the spectator when rising from the hollow of the sea. The person who steers her should be well acquainted with the course of the tides, in order to take every possible advantage; the best method, if the direction will admit of it, is to head the sea. The steersman should keep his eye fixed upon the wave, or breaker, and encourage the rowers to give way as the boat rises to it; being then aided by the force of the oars, she launches over it with vast rapidity, without shipping any water. It is necessary to observe that there is a often a strong reflux of the sea occasioned by the stranded wrecks, which requires both dispatch and care in the people employed, that the boat be not damaged. When the wreck is reached, if the wind blows to the land, the boat will come inshore without any other effort than steering.

In the case of a ship being stranded on a part of the coast where the services of the life-boat are inaccessible, it has been recommended to fasten a boom to the boat's bow, by which means the violence of the waves are broken. In a treatise on 'Practical Seamanship,' by Mr. Hutchinson, an instance is mentioned of the preservation of ten men in a small boat only twelve feet long, by means of a log of wood tied to the boat's bow, which kept her end on to the waves, and preserved her from filling with water.

POPE'S TREE.

BINFIELD, a village in Berkshire, situated about seven miles west of Windsor, and within the precinct of the forest, is remarkable from having been the residence of Alexander Pope, during his early years. The father of the poet, having accumulated a considerable fortune in business in London, retired to this place during the infancy of his son, and here purchased a house and estate.

POPE'S TREE.

INDIAN PROAS.

Speaking of this house, which although probably much altered from its original state, is still standing, Pope calls it

——"my paternal cell,
A little house, with trees a-row,
And, like its master, very low.'

About half-a-mile from the house, an interesting memorial of the poet still remains, or at least did so a few years since, when the writer last visited the spot. There is here a fine grove of beeches, pleasantly situated on the gentle slope of a hill, which commands an agreeable, though not extensive view of the surrounding country. This grove was a favorite resort of Pope's, who is said to have composed many of his earlier pieces sitting under the shade of one of the trees, below which a seat was then placed. The recollection of this circumstance was preserved by Lady Gower, an admirer of the poet, who caused the words "HERE POPE SUNG" to be cut in large letters in the bark, at some height from the ground; and as this inscription, at the time we mention, was distinctly legible, it was no doubt, at one period, occasionally renewed.

INDIAN PROAS.

VESSELS like that represented in the engraving belong to a class peculiar to East Indian seas, more especially to the cluster called the Ladrones, and other adjacent islands. As the term *proa* in Spanish is equivalent to the English *prow*, both signifying the head or fore part of a ship, the primary expression from which they are derived conveying the idea of "that which projects or stretches forward," it is probable that the Spaniards bestowed the name *proa* on these vessels from their singular construction. Both bow and stern are alike, so that by only shifting the sail, the vessel can sail backward or forward, without putting about.

Magellan, who discovered the archipelago, to which he gave the name *Islas de los Ladrones*, or islands of the thieves, because the natives evinced a pilfering propensity in their intercourse with his people, simply remarks concerning the boats of the islanders, that their canoes are oddly contrived and patched up, *yet sail with wonderful rapidity*. As the name *proa* was applied of course subsequently to the discovery of the islands, the inference is natural enough that it was so applied during the early intercourse of the Spaniards with the natives.

A particular description of the proa is given by the writer or writers of "Anson's Voyage round the World." Speaking of the Indians who inhabit the Ladrones, it is said, "that they are no ways defective in understanding, for their flying proa, in particular, which has been for ages the only vessel used by them, is so singular and extraordinary an invention, that it would do honor to any nation, however dexterous and acute. Whether we consider its aptitude to the particular navigation of these islands, or the uncommon simplicity and ingenuity of its fabric and contrivance, or the extraordinary velocity with which it moves, we shall find it worthy of our admiration, and meriting a place amongst the mechanical productions of the most civilized nations, where arts and sciences have most eminently flourished.

"The name of *flying proa* given to these vessels is owing to the swiftness with which they sail. Of this the Spaniards assert such stories as appear altogether incredible to those who have never seen these vessels move. However, from some rude estimates made by our people, of the velocity with which they crossed the horizon at a distance whilst we lay at Tinian, I cannot help believing that with a brisk trade wind they will run near twenty miles an hour; which, though greatly short of what the Spaniards report of them, is yet a prodigious degree of swiftness.

"The construction of the proa is a direct contradiction to the practice of the rest of mankind. For as the rest of the world make the head of their vessels different from the stern, but the two sides alike, the proa, on the contrary, has her head and stern exactly alike, but her two sides very different; the side intended to be always the lee-side, being flat; and the windward-side made rounding, in the manner of other vessels. And to prevent her oversetting, which, from her small breadth and the straight run of her leeward-side, would, without this precaution, infallibly happen, there is a frame laid out from her to windward, to the end of which is fastened a log, fashioned into the shape of a small boat, and made hollow. The weight of the frame is intended to balance the proa, and the small boat is by its buoyancy (as it is always in the water) to prevent her oversetting to windward; and this frame is usually called an outrigger. The body of the proa (at least of that we took) is made of two pieces joined endwise, and sewed together with bark, for there is no iron used about her. She is about two inches thick at the bottom, which at the gunwale is reduced to less than one.

"The proa generally carries six or seven Indians; two of which are placed in the head and stern, who steer the vessel alternately with a paddle, according to the tack she goes on, he in the stern being the steersman; the other Indians are employed either in bailing out the water which she accidentally ships, or in setting and trimming the sail." From this description of these vessels it is sufficiently obvious how dexterously they are fitted for ranging the collection of islands called the Ladrones. For as these islands lie nearly north and south of each other, and are all within the limits of the trade-wind, the proas by sailing most excellently on a wind, and with either end foremost, can run from one of these islands to the other and back again only by shifting the sail, without ever putting about; and by the flatness of their lee-side, and their small breadth, they are capable of lying much nearer the wind than any other vessel hitherto known.

SUSPENSION BRIDGES.

THE most obvious and simple bridge is that formed by single trees thrown across small streams, or, in case of broader streams, by fastening the roots of a tree on each bank, and twisting together their branches in the middle. The next step is not much more complex; for in a space too great for the before-mentioned operations, a few manual

arts were required to form ropes of rushes, or leathern thongs, to stretch as many of them as were necessary between trees, or posts, on the opposite banks, and connect and cover them so as to form a slight bridge. The following accounts, given by Don Antonio de Ulloa, will afford a notion how these sorts of bridges were constructed and used in the mountainous parts of South America:—"Several bujucos were twisted together, so as to form a large cable of the length required. Six of these are carried from one side of the river to the other, two of which are considerably higher than the other four. On the latter are laid sticks in a transverse direction, and, over these, branches of trees as a flooring; the former are fastened to the four which form the bridge, and by that means serve as rails for the security of the passenger, who would otherwise be in no small danger from the continual oscillation."

"Some of the rivers," says the same author, "are crossed by means of a tartabita. The tartabita is only a single rope, made of bujuco, or thongs of an ox hide, and consisting of several strands, and about six or eight inches in thickness. This rope is extended from one side of the river to the other, and fastened on each bank to strong posts. From the tartabita hangs a kind of leathern hammock, capable of holding a man; and a clue is attached at each end. A rope is fastened to either clue, and extended to each side of the river, for drawing the hammock to the side intended. On one of the banks is a kind of wheel, or winch, to slacken the tartabita to the degree required; and the hammock being pushed on first setting off, is quickly landed on the other side. For carrying over the mules two tartabitas are required, one for each side of the river, and the ropes are much thicker and slacker. The animal being secured with girths round the belly, neck, and legs, is launched in mid-air, and immediately landed on the opposite bank. In this manner rivers are crossed between thirty and forty fathoms from shore to shore, at a height above the water of twenty-five fathoms." In China and Thibet there were, at an early period, suspension-bridges formed by cables of vegetable substances; but the nations of the East, after having, in the earliest times, made astonishing progress, stopped all at once in their march.

Suspension-bridges were not considered applicable to the purposes of a commercial country until within a comparatively recent period. They had been superseded by substantial structures, in which utility was joined to magnificence; but these, as they could not always be carried over turbulent streams, did not satisfy the ever-active wants of an industrious people. About a century ago, a bridge of iron wire was suspended over the Tees, at Winch, near Durham, which served for foot-passengers.

The Menai Bridge was a most magnificent specimen of engineering talent. It was constructed under the directions of Mr. Telford. In 1818 this gentleman was surveying the improvements which could be effected on the extensive line of roads from London to Holyhead,—the point of the Welsh coast nearest to Ireland. Holyhead is situated in the island of Anglesea, which is separated from Caernarvonshire by a celebrated strait, or arm of the sea, named the Menai, through which the tide flows with great velocity, and, from local circumstances, in a very peculiar manner. The intercourse of the inhabitants with the opposite portion of Wales was thus circumscribed. There were five or six ferries, but the navigation was often difficult, and sometimes dangerous. One of the staple productions of the

SUSPENSION BRIDGE.

island is cattle, and they were generally compelled to swim across the Strait. The importance of obtaining more rapid means of intercourse with Ireland occasioned Mr. Telford strongly to direct his attention to the possibility of throwing a bridge across the Menai. The obstacle was a rapid stream with high banks. To have erected a bridge of the usual construction would have obstructed the navigation; besides, the erection of piers in the bed of the sea was impracticable. Mr. Telford therefore recommended the construction of a suspension-bridge, which was completed in 1826.

The top-masts of the first three-masted vessel which passed under the bridge were nearly as high as those of a frigate, but they cleared twelve feet and a half below the level of the roadway.

This bridge occasioned Mr. Telford more intense thought than any other of his works. To a friend, a few months before his death, he stated that his anxiety for a short time previous to the opening was so extreme that he had but little sound sleep; and that a much longer continuance of that condition of mind must have undermined his health. Not that he had any reason to doubt the strength and stability of any part of the structure, for he had employed all the precautions that he could imagine useful, as suggested by his own experience and consideration, or by the zeal and talents of his able assistants, yet the bare possibility that some weak point might have escaped his and their vigilance in a work so new, kept the whole structure constantly passing in review before his mind's eye, to examine if he could discover a point that did not contribute its share to the perfection of the whole."

NEWARK CASTLE.

THIS celebrated structure is understood to have been built in the reign of King Stephen, by Alexander, Bishop of Lincoln, who also erected the castles of Banbury, in Oxfordshire, and Sleaford, in Lincolnshire. Henry of Huntingdon says that this castle, emphatically called the *New-work*, gave name to the town. It seems, at that time, to have been considered somewhat improper for an ecclesiastic to busy himself in the erection of fortresses; and we are informed that Alexander founded two monasteries in the way of expiation. If the old writers are to be literally understood, the bishop was certainly the founder of the castle; but Dr. Stukely and Mr. Dickinson are disposed to contend that they are not to be understood as saying more than that Alexander enlarged, ornamented and fortified a castle which previously existed. One of the principal reasons for this conclusion is, that even in its ruins, this castle exhibits at least two different styles of architecture—one much anterior to the other, which was not likely to have been the case had the bishop built the structure from the foundation.

Be this as it may, the king did not at all approve of the taste which Alexander and other bishops displayed for building and strengthening castles; and when ultimately roused to act with vigor against the turbulent barons and factious ecclesiastics, he commenced with the latter, and either

RUINS OF NEWARK CASTLE.

cajoled or forced them into submission, until he obtained possession, successively, of all their strongholds. Alexander was found to be very intractable, and was therefore, with his uncle, seized by the king, and detained in prison till all the fortresses of both were surrendered. The governor of Newark Castle refused to surrender it unless ordered to do so by the bishop in person; but he did not persist in this determination when he received notice from the prelate that the king had made a vow that he (the bishop) should have neither meat nor drink till that fortress was surrendered.

During the troubles in the latter end of King John's reign, the castle was in the hands of the royal party; and it was not only gallantly defended, but the garrison frequently sallied out and wasted the lands of such of the insurgent barons as had estates in that neighborhood. The Dauphin of France therefore thought it necessary to send a considerable force, under the command of Gilbert de Gaunt, whom he had created Earl of Lincoln, to take the castle. This was found to be no easy matter; and when Gilbert heard of the approach of the king at the head of a powerful army, he raised the siege and retired to London. Not long afterwards, the king actually arrived, but in no condition to fight the barons had they been there; for on his march from Lynn through Lincolnshire, a great part of his men, together with all his treasure, carriages, baggage, and regalia,

> "Were in the washes all unwarily
> Devoured by the unexpected flood."

When he reached the castle he was no less indisposed in body than distressed in mind, and died there on the 19th of October, 1216. Stowe adds:— "Immediately on the king's death, his servants, taking all that was about him, fled, not leaving so much of anything (worth the carriage) as would cover his dead carcass."

When the French prince made terms with John's successor, the barons who had assisted the former being left in an unpleasant predicament, seized and fortified this castle with the view of making terms for themselves with the king. The Protector, the Earl of Pembroke, marched against them, and, after a siege of eight days, the fortress was surrendered to him, the besieged throwing themselves upon the king's mercy. Henry restored the castle to the see of Lincoln, which was then filled by Hugh de Wells, Chancellor of England.

After this nothing of historical interest occurs for several centuries in connection with Newark Castle. It deserves to be mentioned, however, that Peter de la Mare, the Speaker of the House of Commons, was sent prisoner to this castle in the year 1376, at the instance of the Duke of Lancaster, who, after the death of the Black Prince, influenced the royal councils. De la Mare is said to have seen through and opposed a design of the Duke to secure the succession of the crown to himself and descendants, to the prejudice of the issue of his elder brother.

In the year 1530, Cardinal Wolsey lodged in the castle with a large retinue, while on his way to Southwell, where he spent great part of that summer. In Peck's 'Desiderata Curiosa,' this castle is mentioned among the other castles and royal mansions belonging to Queen Elizabeth. King James I. lodged in the castle in the year 1602, on his way from Scotland to London. He was entertained by the corporation of the town, who, among other demonstrations of loyalty, presented him with a gilt cup. Here it was that he afforded to the English the first demonstration of those

exalted notions of prerogative and kingly power which he had afterwards such unfortunate success in inculcating into the mind of his ill-fated son Charles. During Charles' reign, the castle again became of historical importance. The garrison of the castle and the inhabitants of the town adhered firmly to the royal interest throughout the protracted struggle between the King and the Parliament. It formed to the royal party a strong and most useful post, from whence many successful excursions were made; and it became an occasional place of retreat for the king himself. It was twice besieged without success by the Parliamentary forces under Sir John Meldrum; and when it surrendered, in May, 1646, it was by the king's special command; and the governor, Lord Bellasis, obtained very advantageous and honorable conditions for himself and the garrison. After the surrender of the king, most of the royal garrisons were ordered by the Parliament to be dismantled, and this of Newark among the rest. Since that time it has been a ruin.

STATE OF THE WORLD BEFORE ADAM.

AMONG the millions of human beings that dwell on the earth, how few are those who think of inquiring into its past history. The annals of Greece and Rome are imparted to our children as a necessary and important branch of education, while the history of the world itself is neglected, or at the most is confined to those who are destined for a scientific profession; even adults are content to receive on hearsay a vague idea that the globe was in being for some undefined period preceding the era of human history, but few seek to know in what state it existed or what appearance it presented.

This is owing, partly, to the hard names and scientific language in which geologists have clothed their science, and partly to ignorance of the beauty and attractive nature of the study; we dread the long, abstruse-sounding titles of Ichthyosaurus and Plesiosaurus, and are repelled by the dry disquisitions on mineralogy into which professors of the science are apt to stray. The truth is, however, that geology properly is divided into two distinct branches; one of these consists of the less attractive, though equally useful, investigation of the chemical constituents of the strata, and the classification of the fossil flora and fauna which belong to the various formations; this, which may be styled geology proper, is the department which belongs almost exclusively to men of science, and, inasmuch as it involves the necessity of acquaintance with the sister sciences of chemistry, mineralogy, zoology, and botany, is least adapted to the understanding of the uninitiated. The other branch, which may be called the history of geology, presents none of these difficulties; it is as easy of comprehension, and as suitable to the popular mind, as any other historical account; while it presents a variety of interest, and a revolution of events, before which the puny annals of modern history sink into insignificance.

Such of our readers as are unacquainted with the science, will probably be inclined to doubt the possibility of our being aware of events which took

place ages before Adam was created; here, however, nature herself steps in, and, becoming her own historian, writes "in the living rock" the chronicles of past ages, and so accurately and circumstantially, that we can say positively, "Here existed the sea at such a period, and here the tide ebbed and flowed for centuries;" nay, she shows us the footmarks of extinct animals, and tells us the size, nature, habits, and food of creatures which have for unnumbered ages been buried in the grave of time. She informs us that here the ocean was calm, and that there a river flowed into it; here forests grew and flourished, and there volcanoes vomited forth lava, while mighty earthquakes heaved up mountains with convulsive throes. Such are the events that mark the world's history, and we now propose giving a short sketch of the various eras in its existence.

Hundreds of thousands of years ago, the earth, now so busy and full of life, rolled on its ceaseless course, a vast, desolate, and sterile globe. Day and night succeeded one another, and season followed season, while yet no living form existed, and still the sun rose upon arid, verdureless continents, and hot, caldron-like seas, on which the steaming vapor and heavy fogs sat like an incubus. This is the earliest period of which we gleam any positive record, and it is probable that, previous to this era, the universe was in a state of incandescence, or intense heat, and that by the gradual cooling of the globe, the external surface became hard, and formed a firm crust, in the same manner that molten lead, when exposed to the cold air, hardens on the surface. The vapors which previously floated around this heated mass, in like manner became partially condensed, and gradually accumulating in the hollows, formed the boiling seas which in after ages were destined to be vast receptacles teeming with life.

How long such a period continued it is impossible to say, and were we even able to number its years, we should in all probability obtain a total of such magnitude as would render us unable to form any accurate idea of its extent. Our ideas of time, like those of space, are comparative, and so immense was this single period in geological history, that any interval taken from human records would fail to present an adequate idea of it.

As might be expected, this era was marked by vast and violent convulsions; volcanoes raged and threw up molten granite, earthquakes heaved and uplifted continents, seas were displaced and inundated the land, and still the earth was enveloped in vapor and mist, arising from the high temperature, and the light most probably penetrated only sufficiently to produce a sickly twilight, while the sun shot lurid rays through the dense and foggy atmosphere. Such a world must have been incompatible with either animal or vegetable life, and we accordingly find no remains of either in the rocks which belong to this early period; their principal characteristic is a highly crystalline appearance, giving strong presumptive evidence of the presence of great heat.

After this era of desolation and gloom, we enter upon what is technically termed the "Transition period," and here we begin to mark the gradual preparation of the globe for the reception of its destined inhabitants. The change is, however, at first very slight, and there is evidence of frequent convulsions and of a high degree of temperature; but the action of fire appears to have declined in force, and aqueous agencies are exerting themselves. The earlier portion of this formation is rendered peculiarly interesting by the fact, that during it the most ancient forms of life sprang

into existence. It is true that merely a few species of shell-fish, with some corals, inhabited the depths of the ocean, while the dry land still remained untenanted; nevertheless, humble and scanty as they were, we cannot fail to look with interest on the earliest types of that existence, which has subsequently reached such perfection in ourselves.

The presence of corals shows, that although the transition seas had lost their high temperature, yet they retained a sufficient degree of heat to encourage the development of animals requiring warmth. These minute animals possess the remarkable property of extracting from the elementary bodies, held in solution in the waters, the materials for forming new rocks. To the coral animalcule or polype we owe much of the vast limestone beds which are found in every part of the world, and many a vessel laden with the riches and productions of the earth finds a grave on the sunken reefs that are the fruit of its labors.

As ages elapsed, and the universe became better adapted for the reception of life, the waters swarmed with zoophytes and corals, and in the silurian strata, we find organic remains abundant; shell-fish are numerous and distinct in form, and in some instances display a very interesting anatomical construction. As an instance, we may mention the Trilobite, an animal of the crustacean order; the front part of its body formed a large crescent-shaped shield, while the hinder portion consisted of a broad triangular tail, composed of segments folding over each other like the tail of a lobster; its most peculiar organ, however, was the eye, which was composed of four hundred minute spherical lenses placed in separate compartments, and so situated, that in the animal's usual place at the bottom of the ocean it could see every thing around. This kind of eye is also common to the existing butterfly and dragon-fly, the former of which has 35,000, and the latter 14,000 lenses.

Continuing to trace the history of this ancient period, we reach what is called among geologists the Old Red Sandstone age. The corals, and the shell-fish, and the crustacea of the former period have passed away, and in their place we find *fishes;* thus presenting to us the earliest trace of the highest order of the animal kingdom—vertebrata. The plants in this system are few, and it would seem as if the condition of the world was ill-adapted for their growth. Another peculiar characteristic of this era is the state of calm repose in which the ocean appears to have remained; in many rocks the *ripple mark* left by the tide on the shores of the ancient seas is clearly visible; nevertheless, considerable volcanic action must have taken place, if we are to believe geologists, who find themselves unable to account otherwise for the preponderance of mineral matter which seems to have been held in solution by the waters.

We now pass on to the Carboniferous period, and a marked change at once strikes us as having taken place. In the previous era few plants appear to have existed; now they flourished with unrivaled luxuriance. Ferns, cacti, gigantic equisetums, and many plants of which there are no existing types, grew, and lived and died, in vast impenetrable forests; while the bulrush and the cane, or genera nearly allied to them, occupied the swamps and lowlands. This is the period when the great coal beds and strata of iron-stone were deposited, which supply us with fuel for our fires, and materials for our machinery. The interminable forests that grew and died in the lapse of centuries were gradually borne down by the rivers and torrents to

the ocean, at whose bottom they ultimately found a resting place. A considerable portion of the land also seems to have been slowly submerged, as in some cases fossil trees and plants are found in an upright position, as they originally grew.

There is no period in geological history so justly deserving of examination as this. To the coal beds, then deposited, Great Britain, in a great measure, owes national and mercantile greatness. Dr. Buckland, in speaking of this remote age, remarks, in his Bridgewater Treatise, that "the important uses of coal and iron in administering to the supply of our daily wants, give to every individual among us, in almost every moment of our lives, a personal concern, of which but few are conscious, in the geological events of these very distant eras. We are all brought into immediate connection with the vegetation that clothed the ancient earth before one-half of its actual surface had yet been formed. The trees of the primeval forests have not, like modern trees, undergone decay, yielding back their elements to the soil and atmosphere, by which they have been nourished; but treasured up in subterranean store-houses, have been transformed into enduring beds of coal, which, in these latter ages, have been to man sources of heat, and light, and wealth. My fire now burns with fuel, and my lamp is shining with the light of gas, derived from coal, that has been buried for countless ages in the deep and dark recesses of the earth. We prepare our food, and maintain our forges and furnaces, and the power of our steam-engines, with the remains of plants of ancient forms and extinct species, which were swept from the earth ere the formation of the transition strata was completed. Our instruments of cutlery, the tools of our mechanics, and the countless machines which we construct by the infinitely varied applications of iron, are derived from ore, for the most part coëval with, or more ancient than the fuel, by the aid of which we reduce it to its metallic state, and apply it to innumerable uses in the economy of human life. Thus, from the wreck of forests that waved upon the surface of the primeval lands, and from ferruginous mud that was lodged at the bottom of the primeval waters, we derive our chief supplies of coal and iron, those two fundamental elements of art and industry, which contribute more than any other mineral production of the earth to increase the riches, and multiply the comforts, and ameliorate the condition of mankind.

This may justly be styled the golden age of the pre-adamite world; the globe having now cooled to a sufficient temperature to promote the growth of plants without being injurious to them, is for the first time clothed in all the rich verdure of a tropical climate. Doubtless the earth would have presented a lovely aspect, had it been possible to have beheld it; the mighty forests unawakened by a sound save that of the sighing of the wind; the silent seas, in which the new born denizens of the deep roamed at will; the vast inland lakes for ages unruffled but by the fitful breeze; all present to the mind's eye a picture of surpassing, solitary grandeur.

The creatures that existed, though differing from those of the previous age, were still confined to the waters; as yet the dry land remained untenanted. The fishes give evidence of a higher organization, and many of them appear to have been of gigantic dimensions. Some teeth which have been found of one kind, the Megalichthys, equal in size those of the largest living crocodiles.

There is one peculiarity respecting fossil fishes which is worthy of remark.

It is, that in the lapse of time from one era to another, their character does not change *insensibly*, as in the case of zoophytes and testacea; on the contrary, species seem to succeed species *abruptly*, and at certain definite intervals. A celebrated geologist, (Dr. Buckland), has observed, that not a single species of fossil fish has yet been found that is common to any two great geological formations, or that is living in our own seas.

Continuing our investigation, we next find the fruitful coal era passing away; scarcely a trace of vegetation remains; a few species of zoophytes, shells and fishes are to be found, and we observe the impression of footsteps, technically called *ichnites*, from the Greek *ichnon*, a footmark. These marks present a highly interesting memento of past ages. Persons living near the sea-shore must have frequently observed the distinctness with which the track of birds and other animals is imprinted in the sand. If this sand were to be hardened by remaining exposed to the action of the sun and air, it would form a perfect mould of the foot; this is exactly what occurred in these early ages, and the hollow becoming subsequently filled by the deposition of new sediment, the lower stone retained the impression, while the upper one presented a cast in relief. Many fossil footmarks have been found in the rocks belonging to this period.

It is evident from the fact of footmarks being found, that creatures capable of existing on dry land, were formed about this time, and we accordingly find the remains of a new order—Reptiles. These animals, which now constitute but a small family among existing quadrupeds, then flourished in great size and numbers. Crocodiles and lizards of various forms and gigantic stature roamed through the earth. Some of the most remarkable are those which belong to the genus Ichthyosaurus, or fish-lizard, so called from the resemblance of their vertebræ to those of fishes. This saurian Dr. Buckland describes as something similar in form to the modern porpoise; it had four broad feet, and a long and powerful tail; its jaws were so prodigious that it could probably expand them to a width of five or six feet, and its powers of destruction must have been enormous. The length of some of these reptiles exceeded thirty feet.

Another animal which lived at this period was the Plesiosaurus. It lived in shallow seas and estuaries, and would seem, from its organs of respiration, to have required frequent supplies of fresh air. Mr. Conybeare describes it as "swimming upon or near the surface, arching its long neck like the swan, and occasionally darting it down at the fish which happened to float within its reach."

This reptile, which was smaller than the Ichthyosaurus, has been found as long as from twelve to fifteen feet. Its appearance and habits differed from the latter materially. The Ichthyosaurus, with its short neck, powerful jaws, and lizard-like body, seems admirably suited to range through the deep waters, unrivaled in size or strength, and monarch of the then existing world; the Plesiosaurus, smaller in size and inferior in strength, shunned its powerful antagonist, and lurking in shallows and sheltered bays, remained secure from the assaults of its dangerous foe, its long neck and small head being well adapted to enable it to dart on its prey, as it lay concealed amid the tangled sea-weed.

This has been called by geologists the "age of reptiles;" their remains are found in great numbers in the lias, oolite and wealden strata. These creatures seem to form a connecting link between the fishes of the previous

era and the mammalia of the Tertiary age; the Ichthyosaurus differed little from a fish in shape, and its paddles or feet are not unlike fins; the Plesiosaurus, on the contrary, as its name denotes, partook more of the quadruped form. Dr. Buckland, in describing it, says: "To the head of a lizard it united the teeth of a crocodile; a neck of enormous length, resembling the body of a serpent; a trunk and tail having the proportions of an ordinary quadruped; the ribs of a camelion, and the paddles of a whale." Besides these animals we find the Pterodactyle, half-bird and half-reptile; the Megalosaurus, or gigantic lizard; the Hylæosaurus, or forest lizard; the Geosaurus, or land lizard, and many others, all partaking more or less of affinity to both the piscatory and saurian tribes.

Passing on now to the period when the great chalk rocks which prevail so much in the south-eastern counties of Great Britain were deposited, we find the land in many places submerged; the fossil remains are eminently marine in character, and the earth must literally have presented a "world of waters" to the view. Sponges, corals, star-fish, and marine reptiles inhabited the globe, and plants, chiefly of marine types, grew on its surface. Although, however, a great portion of the earth was under water, it must not therefore be supposed that it was returning to its ancient desolation and solitude. The author whom we last quoted, in speaking of this subject, says: "The sterility and solitude which have sometimes been attributed to the depths of the ocean, exist only in the fictions of poetic fancy. The great mass of water that covers nearly three-fourths of the globe is crowded with life, perhaps more abundantly than the air and the surface of the earth; and the bottom of the sea, within a certain depth accessible to light, swarms with countless hosts of worms and creeping things, which represent the kindred families of low degree which crawl upon the land."

This era seems to have been one of peculiar tranquillity, for the most part undisturbed by earthquakes or other igneous forces. The prevailing characteristic of the scenery was flatness, and low continents were surrounded by shallow seas. The earth is now approaching the state when it will be fit for the reception of man, and in the next age we find some of the existing species of animals.

It is worthy of observation, that at the different periods, when the world had attained a state suitable for their existence, the various orders of animal and vegetable life were created. In the "dark ages" of geological history, when the globe had comparatively lately subsided from a state of fusion, it was barren, sterile, and uninhabited; next, the waters having become cool enough, some of the lowest orders of shell-fish and zoophytes peopled them; subsequently, fishes were formed, and for ages constituted the highest order of animal life; after this, we enter on the age of reptiles, when gigantic crocodiles and lizard-like forms dwelt in fenny marshes, or reposed in the black mud of slow-moving rivers, as they crept along toward the ocean betwixt their oozy banks; and we now reach the period when the noblest order of animal life, the class to which man himself belongs, Mammalia, began to people the earth.

The world now probably presented an appearance nearly similar to what it does at present. The land, which in the chalk formation was under water, has again emerged, and swarms with life; vast savannahs rich in verdure, and decked in a luxuriant garb with trees, plants, grasses, and shrubs, and inland lakes, to which the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the

hippopotamus, with many extinct races of animals, came to slake their thirst, form the principal characteristics of this period.

There is something peculiarly interesting in looking back to this early age, while Adam was yet dust. We picture to the mind's eye the gigantic Deinotherium, the largest creature of terrestrial life, raking and grubbing with its huge tusks the aquatic plants that grew in the pools and shallow lakes, or, as Dr. Buckland describes it, sleeping with its head hooked on to the bank, its nostrils sustained above water, so as merely to breathe, while the body remained floating at ease beneath the surface. We see its twin-brother in greatness, the Megatherium, as it comes slowly stalking through the thick underwood; its foot, of a yard in length, crushing where it treads, and its impenetrable hide defying the attacks of rhinoceros or crocodile. In the waters we behold the mighty whale, monarch of the deep, sporting in the pre-adamite seas as he now does amid the icebergs of the Arctic ocean; the walrus and the seal, now denizens of the colder climes, mingling with the tropical manati; while, in the forests, the owl, the buzzard, and the woodcock, dwelt undisturbed, and the squirrel and monkey leaped from bough to bough.

Arrived at the close of the pre-adamite history, after having traced it from the earliest ages of which we possess any evidence, down to the eve of human existence, the reflection that naturally presents itself to the mind is the strangeness of the fact, that myriads of creatures should have existed, and that generation after generation should have lived and died and passed away, ere yet man saw the light. We are so accustomed to view all creatures as created solely for human use, rather than for the pleasure of the Divine Creator, that we can at first scarcely credit the history, though written by the hand of nature herself; and the human race sinks into insignificance when it is shown to be but the last link in a long chain of creations. Nevertheless, that such, however humbling it may be, is the fact, we possess indubitable evidence; and when we consider, as Mr. Bakewell observes, "that more than three-fifths of the earth's present surface are covered by the ocean, and that if from the remainder we deduct the space occupied by polar ice and eternal snows, by sandy deserts, sterile mountains, marshes, rivers and lakes, that the habitable portion will scarcely exceed one-fifth of the whole globe; that the remaining four-fifths, though untenanted by mankind, are, for the most part, abundantly stocked with animated beings, that exult in the pleasure of existence, independent of human control, and in no way subservient to the necessities or caprices of men; that such is, and has been for several thousand years the actual condition of our planet; we may feel less reluctance in admitting the prolonged ages of creation, and the numerous tribes that lived and flourished, and left their remains imbedded in the strata which compose the outer crust of the earth."

THE REIGN OF TERROR.

THE Reign of Terror! how many recollections of horror are associated with these words! Even at the distance of more than half a century, the imagination shrinks, the blood curdles at their sound; and centuries hence, that era will probably be regarded as exhibiting the "bloodiest picture in the book of time."

This name was applied to express that period in French history which intervened between the execution of Louis XVI, and the overthrow of Robespierre, to whom mainly it is supposed to have owed its origin. Some terrible scenes had previously been witnessed. In September, 1792, shortly after the overthrow of the monarchy, when the passions of the populace were excited to the highest pitch by the intelligence of the approach of the allied army, a band of assassins had at midday, while the assembly were sitting, proceeded to the various prisons of the metropolis, and there commenced the work of destruction upon the inmates. These receptacles had previously been filled with hosts of the highest society in the capital, who had been collected, in terms of a law named that of "suspicion," after a search of three days, during which no one was allowed to leave his residence, but a body of delegated municipal authorities proceeded from house to house and seized all who fell within its sweeping denunciation. Eighty monks, incarcerated in a temple, were first assailed, and most of them either struck down to the ground, or shot in the trees of an adjoining garden to which they fled for refuge. The great prisons of L'Abbaye, La Force, and the Conciergie, were the next objects of the assassins' fury, and in each the prisoners had their throats cut in hundreds. A sort of mock tribunal was established, and these homicides constituted themselves as judges. The wretched prisoner was brought out alone, and after a few questions from his accusers at one end of the court-yard, he was consigned to the knives of the assassins, who quickly despatched him at the other. Some telegraph or cant phrase was generally employed as the signal. At the prison of L'Abbaye, for instance, the fatal sentence was the "*a la Force!*" and while the unsuspecting prisoner went on in the supposition that he was to be transferred to that stronghold of incarceration, he was suddenly assailed and put to death amid the laughter of the assassins, who amused themselves with his fearful misapprehension. During three days these terrible scenes proceeded; neither the legislature nor the civic authorities, in the meantime, offering the slightest interruption. The assassins, who did not exceed two hundred in number, throughout the whole period coolly went and returned to their meals, as if they had been engaged in their usual avocations. The women were worse than the men, and either joined actually in the massacre, or stayed at home to discharge the others' duties, that their husbands might, as they said with horrid coolness, "work in the Abbey." Nay, more, when the horrid "work" was completed, they actually had the audacity to proceed to the city hall and demand payment for their deeds—a demand with which the approving or terrified municipality were forced to comply; and the sums paid to these murderous

"laborers" for a long time remained a disgrace duly recorded in the civic records of Paris. It is impossible to calculate the number struck down on this occasion in Paris and Versailles, which, with one or two of the smaller towns in the neighborhood, followed the capital's example. By the most moderate calculation they have been reckoned a thousand or twelve hundred, though the list has been swelled to thrice the amount. Many persons of distinction fell during the massacre; among whom were the famous Madame de Barri, mistress of Louis XV., who died uttering the most piercing cries, and exhibiting the most abject, yet natural timidity, and the still more celebrated Princess de Lamballe, whose beauties and virtues had not been able to save her, as the friend of Maria Antoinette, from the fury of the mob. She was put to death under circumstances of peculiar atrocity, and her head was carried aloft on a pike, to be exhibited before the window of the queen in the Temple, attachment to whom seems to have been the least of her merits and the chief of her crimes.

But terrible as these scenes in 1792 were, far greater horrors were perpetrated—and in the name of justice, too—in the following year and the first half of 1794, by the sanguinary revolutionary tribunal which had been established by Danton. This dread triumvir himself perished by its agency in the early part of the last-named year, and while bewailing his fate, and that of an amiable woman, who a short time before had been united to him in marriage, he then deeply deplored his instrumentality in its erection, call ing the Almighty to witness that he had never contemplated the crimes it had achieved: but his regret (as regret generally is) was unavailing. Shortly after its creation, the revolutionary tribunal commenced its proceedings with the most fearful rapidity, and under the direction of Fouquier Tinville—a sort of fiend in human shape, who laughed and jested with his victims while he sent them to the scaffold—whole hecatombs were soon destroyed. The slightest suspicion was fatal in the eyes of this atrocious wretch, and those who appeared in court as witnesses were frequently sent to the guillotine as criminals. Almost every one tried before him was at length condemned. The Girondists were struck down in a body, on the denunciation of Robespierre; the venerable Malesherbes, for defending the late king, was, with the whole of his family, consigned to the scaffold, to which he proceeded with a gay aspect, and an air so careless, that, chancing to stumble, he said, "it was a bad omen, and a Roman would have turned back." Danton and the whole of his associates were condemned, by the instigation of the same gloomy tyrant, who felt that that bold demagogue formed the chief obstacle to the dictatorship to which he now aspired. He exhibited less courage, and for a moment his feelings seemed about to give way, when he thought of his young wife, of whom he plaintively exclaimed, "I shall never see thee more!" but immediately recovering himself, and uttering the words "Courage, Danton!" he died with fortitude. Others of a less daring temperament showed still more tranquillity; and death at last became so common that it lost its terrors. Numbers proceeded to the guillotine uttering jibes and witticisms, often extemporaneous, but in other instances studiously prepared for the occasion; and the victims at last vied almost in coolness with the crowds, who daily held processions to the guillotine with as much indifference, or rather as much zest, as they would have regarded any exhibition at the theatres, which were never more crowded in Paris than during this dismal period.

While such was the state of affairs in the capital, matters were still worse in the provinces. In Paris, condemnation was made a jest, and the names of those who had received sentence were bawled out in a street list, named, with disgusting levity, "the evening paper," from which they frequently, for the first time, received intelligence of their approaching death on the morrow, or were said to have "drawn prizes in the holy lottery of the guillotine:" but in the rural districts, execution itself was made a theme of merriment. In the north, one Lebas, an apostate monk, the revolutionary judge, generally presided at the guillotine with the whole of his friends; and in the south, another, Le Bon (literally, "the good," and probably a name bestowed in jest), publicly entertained the executioner, as a distinguished functionary, at his table. Horrors scarcely inferior were perpetrated in the other districts of the republic, to which these sanguinary wretches were sent by the revolutionary tribunal in Paris, delegated with all its powers; and the guillotine at length became so much in demand, that it was proposed to have a set of what were termed "perambulating" machines of death constructed, to move from one part of the province to another, on wheels. Every being, who, by his opposition or wealth, had excited the indignation or cupidity of these emissaries, was guillotined. Were an old public functionary incorrect in his accounts, or a general unsuccessful with the enemy, he experienced the same fate. Westermann, a fierce republican general; Biron, a better soldier; Beauharnois, the husband of the amiable Josephine, Napoleon's future empress, and others of the same rank, were struck down; and the dreadful instrument was at last so familiarized, under the auspices of Fouquier Tinville, that Robespierre himself had to interfere, and declare "it was desecrated."

But even these scenes yielded in horror to the enormities committed in the western part of the kingdom on the unhappy peasantry of La Vendée. Shortly after the revolution broke out, resistance arose to it there. The inhabitants of that sequestered district, where the proprietors, generally inconsiderable, lived chiefly on their own domains, had escaped the severity of the ancient government. Instead of being ground down by the nobles, they lived on a footing of comparative equality, joining in their hunting parties, and participating in their hospitality; most of the proprietors cultivated their own grounds, or were but little removed in rank above their tenants. Here, accordingly, the new principles met with a steady opposition. Encouraged by their landlords, who were attached to the ancient *regime*, and instigated by their priests, who were averse to the modern oath, the peasants took the field in bodies, and resisted all who attempted to introduce revolutionary doctrines into their district. Success at first attended their arms. Their habits as hunters having made them experienced marksmen, and their knowledge of the country giving them great advantage over their opponents, they in the outset bore down the republican troops, who, while marching unsuspiciously through the forest ravines with which the district teemed, were frequently fired on by unseen foes, and while in confusion, struck down by the peasants, who then rushed from their ambuscade. Whole bodies of men were thus cut off; and the insurgents, becoming bolder by success, and assembling in larger numbers, at last defeated not only several republican generals, but captured Nantes and some adjacent towns. Under the direction of Larochejacquelein, a young and enthusiastic nobleman; Charrette, a wagoner; Stofflet, a barber;

Lescure, a pious gentleman; and D'Elbée, an old naval officer, they at last attempted higher aims, and in a body a hundred thousand strong, crossed the Loire with the design of marching upon Paris. But all their habits and tactics unfitted them for this purpose. They generally took the field for fighting in the same form as they had been accustomed to equip themselves for hunting; seldom carried above three days' provisions with them; and, whether successful or defeated, could rarely be retained for a longer period from home. In conflict, too, they were more successful in sudden attacks, than qualified to endure the steady and sustained action of regular troops. Hence, in this great excursion, they wholly failed in their object. In several engagements with the republican troops, after varied success, they were finally defeated; Larochejacquelein, their favorite, though not ablest leader, was struck down, and his followers fled, notwithstanding his inspiring war-whoop, "If I fly, shoot me; if I advance, follow me; if I fall, avenge me!" Most of their other generals, being accustomed to charge with their men, were either killed or disabled; and their wives and children having followed them in this excursion, a crowd of a hundred thousand wretched beings were at last found, defeated, dismayed, and disordered, on the banks of the Loire—assailed by the exasperated republicans on the one hand, cut off from their country by the river on the other; abandoned a prey to hunger, cold, wind, hail, and snow; and left to contend with horrors which disposed their superstitious imaginations to surmise the approaching termination of the world in their sinking cause.

It was upon these unhappy wretches, or such of them as had escaped those dangers, that the Jacobin fury was now to be wreaked; and though the peasants themselves had frequently been cruel in putting their prisoners to death, assuredly they never perpetrated such atrocities as those of which they were now the victims. An instrument which, like the guillotine, decapitated only one at a time, was of course wholly unable to act with sufficient promptitude for vengeance; and they were accordingly struck down in scores, and fifties, and hundreds, by musketry and grape-shot. Neither age nor sex was spared on these occasions, though the soldiers, the stern executioners, were frequently interrupted by their victims, when children, clinging to their knees. But even this mode of putting them to death became too tiresome at last; and when the earth was threatened with a pestilence from their putrifying carcasses, Carrier, an ex-friar, but now revolutionary pro-consul at Nantes, devised a more horrible plan for destroying them by water. Bands of wretched beings were conveyed in boats, and thrown into the lakes or rivers; and when some of them escaped, or attempted to escape, by swimming, the infernal expedient was chosen of carrying them out enclosed in vessels constructed with false bottoms and closed hatchways for the purpose, when the trap being withdrawn, the waters closed over all. Thousands were thus inhumanly drowned, and these *Noyades*, as they were termed, at last only ceased when the fishes were poisoned by gorging on human flesh, and the waters became not less pestilential than the air.

The public mind at last sickened under these accumulated horrors, and Robespierre's associates in the capital became alarmed by the apprehension that he designed to destroy them in turn, with the view of appropriating power to himself alone. The government of the country had, on the abolition of the monarchy, been vested in two committees—one of which,

the committee of public safety, watched over the general interests of the republic; while the other, named that of general safety, was intrusted with the superintendence of Paris alone. It was chiefly in the municipality that the interests of this body lay; but though confined to the capital, and made subservient to the committee of public safety, it had gradually extended its power, and by means of the affiliations or offshoots of the Jacobin club, which were dispersed over every village, acquired an influence throughout all France. And this was the body which Robespierre designed to render instrumental to his views when he had been dismissed from the committee of public safety, in conformity with the law which enjoined that two of the ten members should go out every two months in rotation, or when he had refused to reënter it in consequence of some quarrel with his colleagues.

To all it was apparent that the death struggle drew nigh, and both parties prepared for it with the full conviction that their lives were dependent on the issue. The committee trusted to the influence it possessed with the army, whose movements Carnot, the ablest and best of its members, wholly controlled: Robespierre confided in the support of the municipality, and, above all, in that of the Jacobin club. In the convention his power was also great; for that body invariably joined the stronger party, and it had recently supported a law which he brought in chiefly to justify the late massacres, and after passing which he had retired for a month from power, in order, as was supposed, to depopularize his colleagues by the odium of executing it. But this stratagem failed, if it were ever designed, and his retirement proved as fatal to him as a similar retreat had been to Danton. That bold leader of the populace had fallen a victim chiefly to the artifices which Robespierre had employed to undermine him at the Jacobins' in his absence; and he had died exclaiming that in three months his deceiver would follow him to the block. The prediction was fulfilled: the committee of public safety seized the same opportunity to destroy Robespierre, and with the same success. On the 26th of July, 1794, after a month's absence during which his followers had almost worshipped him as a divinity, he reäppeared in the convention, and delivered one of those long, mysterious, and ominous addresses with which he was accustomed to usher in his sanguinary proposals. The assembly, slavish as ever, applauded him to the echo as before; but a different reception awaited him when he next day prepared to impeach three of his late associates in the committee of public safety, and several of their adherents in the chamber. These men had in the interval received intelligence of his intentions, and they prepared to defend themselves with the courage of despair. So soon as he renewed his speech, they boldly interrupted him by their hostile acclamations, and Robespierre's voice, for the first time, was silenced in an assembly where it always before had been heard with reverence inspired by dread. The chamber at first stood mute, like himself, with astonishment; but as the cries of his foes grew louder, and vociferations of "Down with the tyrant!" were heard, it prepared to adopt another course; and when Barrère, a profligate ex-noble, and member of the committee of public safety, who invariably ranged himself with the stronger, and on this occasion had prepared a speech for either side—drew from his pocket and coolly proceeded to deliver a studied report against Robespierre, the cowardly legislature no longer remained uncertain, but fiercely joined in the halloo that struck him

down. Foaming at the mouth, Robespierre withdrew, and hastened for safety and succor to his adherents in the municipality and Jacobin club.

But it was too late. His enemies knew that either his life or theirs must be extinguished in the struggle, and one or more of them had attended the chamber with the resolution of destroying either him or themselves if he carried his proposal. "Should it pass," said they, "we shall have no alternative but to blow out our brains;" and the legislature was soon convinced that its own members were in similar danger. A decree was quickly passed to outlaw him; but there was difficulty in getting parties to execute it; for Henriot, the commander of the Parisian guard, was an adherent of Robespierre's, and already at the town-hall by his side. But fortune, or the frailty of this associate, aided them. Henriot, when he attempted to take command of his troops, was so inebriated that he with difficulty retained his seat on horseback, and his soldiers either misunderstood his orders or refused to obey him. In these circumstances he rode back in dismay to the city-hall, and his cannoneers were easily persuaded by some members of the legislature to turn their guns from against it to the hostile edifice. A few adherents of the committee or chamber accompanied them, and boldly burst into the room where Robespierre and his associates were. Their triumph was easy: the confederates attempted no resistance; but some of them endeavored to escape by the windows, while others essayed to avoid a public execution by suicide. St. Just, a violent but disinterested fanatic, made this attempt and failed; his pistol snapped in the act, and was siezed before he could renew the effort. Couthon, a sanguinary wretch, who, though half dead with palsy, talked of death and murder in the blandest accents, had not courage to attempt it; and Robespierre's jaw was only shattered by a shot, but whether from his own hands or another's is uncertain. Henriot threw himself from a window, and was found concealed in a sewer. The younger Robespierre, a comparatively innocent man, whose affection for his brother alone betrayed him into danger, was one of the few who conducted himself with dignity, and prepared to die with tranquillity. The whole, amounting to about forty in number, were conducted to the hall of the convention, whence, being already outlawed, they were the next day sent to the guillotine. Robespierre passed the night on a miserable bench in a room adjacent, but though suffering with agony he refused to utter a single word. Next morning, amid the cheers and curses of the populace, among whom were many friends of his recent victims, he was conveyed to the scaffold; and though a momentary outcry escaped his lips when the executioner coarsely tore the bandage from his fractured jaw, he died, the last of his party, with fortitude. With his life the Reign of Terror terminated; and the convention, by whose abject submission it had mainly been caused, shortly afterward made way for a different set of men, and another order of things. The revolution, however, with its gloomy and appalling scenes, did not pass away without teaching mankind these invaluable lessons—that religion is essential to the prosperity of states, and that it is the interest as well as the duty of those in power to promote, by all means the happiness of the people.

CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

IT is certain that, during the Roman domination in Great Britain, Christianity had been generally established in the southern parts of the island, which were inhabited by a mixed population of Britons and Romans. Many of the Romans who came over to colonize the country after its conquest in the reign of the Emperor Claudius were, no doubt, Christians; and the general conversion of the natives within the subjugated territory most probably took place in the first or second century. It is most likely, also, that it was in part effected by the agency of missionaries who visited the island expressly for that purpose; although but little confidence can be placed in the story told by the old monkish historians about the preachers that were sent over by Pope Eleutherius to a British king of the name of Lucius, who is said to have flourished before the close of the second century, and to have been the first prince of his nation who received the new faith. No doubt can be entertained that churches were built in many parts of the country in the course of the three centuries during which it enjoyed peace and security under the Roman protection. Whatever buildings, or remains of buildings, are now found, which bear the impress of Christian civilization, and cannot be assigned to a date subsequent to the establishment of the Saxons, must have been erected during this era of tranquillity, when letters and the arts probably flourished to a degree which they scarcely again attained in the course of the next thousand years. The Saxon invasion swept away all this, by rolling over the country a tide not only of savage ignorance but of war and slaughter, which desolated a great part of the island for a century and a half. The reign of any thing like civilization did not recommmence till towards the close of the sixth century. About this time, Ethelbert, king of Kent, married Bertha, the daughter of the French king Charibert; and out of this event arose the first introduction of Christianity into Saxon Britain. It is supposed to have been on the application of Bertha, who was herself a convert, and a lady of great piety and virtue, that Pope Gregory I. was induced to send over from Rome the celebrated Augustine and his forty followers, who arrived in the Isle of Thanet in the year 597, and were soon after permitted by Ethelbert to take up their residence in Canterbury, the capital of his dominions.

Bede tells us that there was already a building in the eastern quarter of the city, which long before had been used as a Christian church; and that this edifice was given by the king, after his conversion, to Augustine and his companions. There is every reason to believe that the church in question stood on the site of the present cathedral. It may have been built four or five centuries before, and must, at the least, have been two or three hundred years old. Having fallen into decay, it was enlarged and repaired under the direction of Augustine, who had been consecrated Archbishop of Canterbury; and who, having dedicated it to Christ, made it his cathedral. It hence derives its proper designation of Christ Church.

The building thus founded, or rather restored and amplified, by Augus-

CATHEDRAL—CANTERBURY.

tine, subsisted till the year 938, by which time, however, partly in consequence of a recent attack of the Danes, it had become little better than a ruin. The walls, we are told, were uneven, and in some places were broken down, and the roof was in so threatening a state that the church could not be safely entered. Odo, who was then archbishop, bestowed considerable cost in the reparation of the fabric; but, in 1011, the Danes, in a new attack, burned down the roof which he had erected, and left only the walls standing. After Canute came to the throne, however, in 1017, its restoration was once more effected, the king having, it is said, contributed munificently to the expense. But the new disturbances, which arose after his decease, and especially the neglect and dilapidation to which it was exposed during the unavailing resistance of the Saxon Archbishop Stigand to the Norman Conqueror, had again reduced the structure to such a state, when Lanfranc succeeded to the see in 1070, that this prelate determined to rebuild it almost from the foundation. There is reason to believe, however, that even in this, the most complete reëdification which the church had yet sustained, the ancient walls were not entirely thrown down.

Lanfranc lived to complete his design so far as that the cathedral in his time was once more rendered fit for the services of religion, and presented the appearance of a finished building. Considerable additions were made to it, however, by Anselm and others of his successors; and even some parts which Lanfranc had built are recorded to have been taken down not long after his death, and reërected in a different style. Conrad, a prior of the adjoining monastery, in particular, made such improvements on the choir, that it is stated to have been for a long time after generally known by his name.

But, on the 5th of September, 1174, an accidental fire, which commenced in some houses on the south side of the church, and was carried by a high wind towards the sacred building, having seized upon the roof, soon reduced the whole once more to the bare walls. "The leads," says the old chronicler, Gervase, who was a monk of Canterbury, and flourished in the thirteenth century, "were melted, and the timber-work and painted ceiling all on fire fell down into the choir, where the stalls of the monks added fresh fuel in abundance." He also speaks of the walls, and especially the pillars, having been much scorched and injured; but it does not appear that they were actually thrown down by the violence of the flames. A great sensation was excited by this calamity, not only throughout England, but the whole of Christendom. The murder, or, as it was deemed, the martyrdom, of the famous Thomas à Becket, which took place in the cathedral of Canterbury on the 28th of December, 1170, had given an extraordinary sanctity to the building, and attracted to it crowds of pilgrims from every country of Europe. The celebrity and reverential estimation which it had thus acquired soon made the funds necessary for its restoration pour in abundantly. The most distinguished personages of the age eagerly offered their aid—many bringing their oblations in person. The king, Henry II., himself contributed largely. "In 1179," says Mr. Batteley in his additions to Somner's Antiquities of Canterbury, "Louis VII., king of France, landed at Dover, where our king expected his arrival. On the 23rd of August these two kings came to Canterbury, with a great train of nobility of both nations, and were received by the archbishop

and his comprovincials, the prior and convent, with great honor and unspeakable joy. The oblations of gold and silver made by the French were incredible. The king came in manner and habit of a pilgrim—was conducted to the tomb of St. Thomas in solemn procession—where he offered his cup of gold and a royal precious stone, with a yearly rental of 100 muids (hogsheads) of wine, for ever, to the convent, confirming his grant by royal charter, under his seal, delivered in form."

The rebuilding of the cathedral was commenced soon after the fire, and, the means being thus liberally supplied, was carried on for some years with great spirit. The direction of the work was entrusted to a French architect, William of Sens, who, however, only superintended it for the first four years, having then received an accidental injury which obliged him to relinquish his office. He was succeeded by an Englishman. In 1183, however, the stream of offerings having probably somewhat diminished, the operations were suspended by the monks, on the pretence that their funds were exhausted. The expedient had the desired effect. Contributions to the pious work poured in immediately in almost unprecedented abundance: and the receivers were enabled not only to complete their original design, but to add to it new features of magnificence and splendor. The body of the cathedral soon stood once more in a finished state; but many additions and alterations were made long after the main part of the work had been thus accomplished. In fact, the building might be said to be still only in progress when the Reformation broke out, and the king's mandate, on the dissolution of the religious houses, put a stop to its further decoration or enlargement, and left it in all material respects in the state in which we now see it.

From this detail it appears that the present cathedral stands mainly on the same foundation with the ancient British church which Augustine found in Canterbury on his arrival at the end of the sixth century, nor is it altogether impossible that some portion of that primitive edifice may still remain in the pile as it now exists. It is acknowledged on all hands that part of Archbishop Lanfranc's cathedral is still standing; and the vaults under the choir appear to be of a style of architecture anterior at any rate to the Norman Conquest.

The cathedral of Canterbury is built in the usual form of a cross, having, however, two transepts. Buttresses rising into pinnacles are ranged along the walls both of the nave and the transepts; and a square tower of great beauty ascends from the intersection of the western transept and the nave. Two other towers also crown the extremities of the west front; that to the north, which had been long in a ruinous state, and the upper part of which was removed many years ago, is now taken down from the foundation, and rebuilt.

The cathedral of Canterbury is very spacious. The following are its principal dimensions:—the length of the whole building from east to west, measured in the interior, is 514 feet; of which the choir occupies not less than 180 feet, being an extent unequaled by that of any other choir in England. The breadth of the nave with its side aisles is 71 feet; and its height 80 feet. The larger transept is 154, the smaller 124 feet, in length from north to south. The height of the great central tower, called the Bell-Harry steeple, is 235 feet; and that of the Oxford and Arundel steeples, at the north and south extremities of the west front, about 130 feet.

LEOPARD HUNTING.

ALTHOUGH the leopard of South Africa is known among the Cape colonists by the name of *tiger*, it is, in fact, the real leopard—the *felis jubata* of naturalists, differing from the panther of North Africa in the form of its spots, in the more slender structure of its body, and the legs not being so long in proportion to its size. In watching for his prey the leopard crouches on the ground, with his fore paws stretched out and his head between them, his eyes rather directed upwards. His appearance in his wild state is exceedingly beautiful, his motions in the highest degree easy and graceful, and his agility in bounding among the rocks and woods quite amazing. Of their activity no person can have any idea by seeing these animals in the cages in which they are usually exhibited, humbled and tamed as they are by confinement and the cold of our climate.

The leopard is chiefly found in the mountainous districts of South Africa, where he preys on such of the antelopes as he can surprise, on young baboons, and on the rock badgers or rabbits. He is very much dreaded by the Cape farmers also, for his ravages among the flocks, and among the young foals and calves in the breeding season.

The leopard is often seen at night in the villages of the negroes on the west coast; and, being considered a sacred animal, is never hunted, though children and women are not unfrequently destroyed by him. In the Cape Colony, where no such respect is paid him, he is shyer and much more in awe of man. But though in South Africa he seldom or never ventures to attack mankind, except when driven to extremity (unless it be some poor Hottentot child now and then that he finds unguarded,) yet in remote places, his low, half-smothered growl is frequently heard at night, as he prowls around the cottage or the kraal. His purpose, on such occasions, is to break into the sheep-fold, and in this purpose he not unfrequently succeeds, in spite of the troops of fierce watch dogs which every farmer keeps to protect his flocks.

The leopard, like the hyena, is often caught in traps constructed of large stones and timber, but upon the same principle as the common mouse trap. When thus caught, he is usually baited with dogs, in order to train them to contend with him, and seldom dies without killing one or two of his canine antagonists. When hunted in the fields, he instinctively betakes himself to a tree, if one should be within reach. In this situation it is exceedingly perilous to approach within reach of his spring; but at the same time, from his exposed position, he becomes an easy prey to the shot of the huntsman.

The South African Leopard, though far inferior to the lion or Bengal tiger in strength and intrepidity, and though he usually shuns a conflict with man, is nevertheless an exceedingly active and furious animal, and when driven to desperation becomes a truly formidable antagonist. The Cape colonists relate many instances of frightful and sometimes fatal

LEOPARD AT BAY.

encounters between the hunted leopard and his pursuers. The following is a specimen of these adventures.

Two African farmers, returning from hunting the hartebeest, roused a leopard in a mountain ravine, and immediately gave chase to him. The leopard first endeavored to escape by clambering up a precipice; but being hotly pressed, and wounded by a musket ball, he turned upon his pursuers with that frantic ferocity peculiar to this animal on such emergencies, and springing on the man who had fired at him, tore him from his horse to the ground, biting him at the same time on the shoulder, and tearing one of his cheeks severely with his claws. The other hunter seeing the danger of his comrade, sprang from his horse and attempted to shoot the leopard through the head; but, whether owing to trepidation, or the fear of wounding his friend, or the quick motions of the animal, he unfortunately missed. The leopard, abandoning his prostrate enemy, darted with redoubled fury upon his second antagonist, and so fierce and sudden was his onset, that before the boor could stab him with his hunting knife, the savage beast struck him on the head with his claws, and actually tore the scalp over his eyes. In this frightful condition the hunter grappled with the leopard; and, struggling for life, they rolled together down a steep declivity. All this passed far more rapidly than it can be described in words. Before the man who had been first attacked could start to his feet and seize his gun, they were rolling one over the other down the bank. In a minute or two he had reloaded his gun, and rushed forward to save the life of his friend. But it was too late. The leopard had seized the unfortunate man by the throat, and mangled him so dreadfully that death was inevitable; and his comrade (himself severely wounded) had only the melancholy satisfaction of completing the destruction of the savage beast, already exhausted with the loss of blood from several deep wounds by the desperate knife of the expiring huntsman.

THE OUISTITI OR MARMOZET MONKEY.

EVERY large group of which the animal kingdom naturally consists, will be found upon examination to resolve itself into divisions of a subordinate character. It is to one of these divisions in the family *simiadiæ*—a family comprehending the monkey and ape tribes—that we invite attention. The *simiadæ* are essentially natives of the hotter portions of the globe; they abound in the intertropical regions of Asia, Africa and America, and are expressly arboreal in their habits. Awkward on the ground, they display amongst the branches the most astonishing address and activity. Not only do the hands, fashioned like those of man, at least to a certain extent, possess the power of grasping, but the hind feet are hands also; they have a true thumb, opposable to the fingers, and possess in an equal, nay, superior degree the same power with which the anterior hands are so well endowed; hence Cuvier has termed these animals *quadrumana*, or four-handed. Like every other natural group, however, the *simiadæ* are made up of a collection of minor groups, each having its dis-

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tinguishing characteristics. This will at once be evident to any one who compares the orang—a climbing animal, the whole of whose organization adapts it for an arboreal abode, and for that only—with the baboon, which, though alert and active among the branches, is at ease even on the ground, where he scampers along on all fours like a dog. The Ouistiti, the subject of our present examination, forms one of the boundary groups of this family It constitutes one of the forms of the American section of the *simiadæ*, a section characterized by most marked peculiarities. These we may briefly enumerate as consisting in the roundness of the skull, and the flatness or slight degree of projection which the facial portion exhibits,—in the lateral aspect of the nostrils which open on the sides of a broad flattened nose—in the absence of cheek pouches, and of the naked callous skin which, in the monkeys of the Old World, covers the tuberosity of the ischiatic bone, and in the possession (except in the ouistiti) of two additional molars in each jaw, the number of the teeth being in all thirty-six. It is among the forms of this section that we meet with the prehensile tail, given as an accessory organ of grasping, together with a departure in the structure of the hand from its perfect model. In the genus *ateles*, embracing the spider monkeys with prehensile tails, the thumb is wanting, or reduced to a mere rudiment beneath the skin; while in other genera the hands can no longer retain this appellation, being in fact like the fore-paws of a squirrel; such is the case with the ouistiti.

There is something in the general appearance and manners of the ouistiti which, together with its diminutive size, tends to produce a strong resemblance to the squirrel. It is true that the head is not squirrel-like—being round, and possessing the character of the American *simiadæ;* but the full, soft fur which clothes the body—the beautiful tufts of hair which ornament, in most species, the sides of the head—the long, bushy tail—the little fore-paws, and the crouching, though semi-erect posture assumed in eating, cannot fail to suggest the resemblance. How wide a difference is there between these little animals and the orang, with his long, powerful arms, or the ferocious baboons! The ouistitis inhabit the woods of the hotter portions of the American continent, and especially such as border the Amazon and other great rivers. Their beauty, their diminutive size, and the ease with which they become reconciled to captivity, render them great favorites even in their native regions, where they are sold, especially in the large towns, to the Spanish colonists at a considerable price. The smaller species, some of which may be entirely covered by a common-sized breakfast cup, are especially valued. In their native woods they feed upon fruits, insects, and small reptiles; indeed their teeth have decidedly an insectiverous character, the crowns of the molars presenting sharp conical elevations instead of rounded tubercles. These elegant creatures have little of that restless curiosity, that petulance and maliciousness, which are so conspicuous in the monkey-tribes in general; neither have they that activity for which these tribes are so remarkable. They do not bound from branch to branch with bold and vigorous leaps, yet are they quick and nimble in their actions, which more resemble those of a squirrel than a monkey. They produce two or three young ones at a birth, which they nurse with great care and attention. Their voice (exerted only in fear or anger) is a sharp, whistling cry, resembling the word *ouistiti*, whence their appellation.