

NEW ZEALAND.

(From the Times, December 11, 1844.)

The Report of the Select Committee appointed by the House of Commons last session to inquire into the state of the colony of New Zealand, and the proceedings of the New Zealand Company, was published yesterday. We print a large portion of it in another part of this morning's paper, and shall give the conclusion in our next number. Its contents are both novel and significant. It discloses a case of colonization, altogether the most curious, the most anomalous, the most startling, that we ever remember to have seen or heard of. Britain, it seems, has *against her own will* become the mistress and the settler of two islands, each as large as herself, in the extremes of the Southern Pacific. The colony of New Zealand, it seems, has been founded upon the voluntary system, and something more. A knot of land and colonization agents has forced the Imperial Majesty of Britain to rescind her own decrees; has compelled her to take at second-hand from them what she refused to sanction in the first instance, when proposed as her own unbiassed act; and has forced on, in the stead of the regular and orderly establishment of a great national settlement, a system of almost hopelessly inextricable and irremediable confusion. Verily, such a case as this deserves a Blue-book; and we must here, by the way, in justice add, that the one which it has obtained is fully proportionate to the magnitude and interest of the occasion. New Zealand's purple volume is at least as ponderous and hulky as three of the tomes of the ordinary Parliamentary currency. It rejoices in near a thousand folio pages of closely printed matter, in a body of evidence of about 5,000 questions and answers, in six-and-twenty voluminous appendices, and a map.

But to return to the colonization of New Zealand. The Committee remind the country of the fact that "the Sovereignty over these islands had been," in the first instance "*formally disclaimed*, and their independence distinctly recognised, both by the Crown and Parliament. This course had been pursued because it was considered (*and by no means upon light grounds*) that it was not advisable to extend British dominion in those distant regions." The effect of this, of course, was, that the sovereignty of the islands remaining in the native chiefs, any private individual settler or settlers who should become located there, would hold such possessions as they might buy of any of the natives of the islands, *not* under the British Crown, but under the independent local authority, such as it was, which had been recognised by the British Parliament. Now, it so happened that the emigration of British subjects to New Zealand was then spontaneously taking place to a very large extent; and that it was also further and artificially stimulated by the intervention of a New Zealand Land Company—of the Company, in short, whose proceedings, now so notorious, are commented upon by the Committee, and which professed, in the matter of purchasing land, to mediate, and, in a fashion of its own, did actually mediate, between the natives and the settlers. The practical effect of all this settling and land-jobbing was, of course, so far as concerned the sovereignty question, to erect a sort of extra-liminary republic, not exactly under British dominion, for it was not owned by Great Britain, nor yet out of it,

for the settlers were all British subjects; nor yet, most undoubtedly, under the "independent" dominion of any of the native "authorities." And though it afterwards became convenient and desirable for the New Zealand Company to obtain, if possible, for their settlers, the protection of British sovereignty, yet, for the purposes of their traffic in land, subordination to any supreme Government—to any power, in short, which should have taken out of themselves the right of treating plenarily with the natives—would have been extremely inconvenient and irksome. The system of relations with the natives therefore was established before the interference of the Crown was called for. The colony was, in fact, constituted before it was declared a British colony. Everything was settled; the most important point of all—namely, the relative footing of the settlers and the natives—was settled and concluded, both practically and in terms, before the supreme Power to which the settlement is subject—the power, namely, of Great Britain—had any existence in the colony at all.

This state of things was certainly sufficiently anomalous, and its effects are now abundantly visible. It is these effects, in short, which have made necessary all the present inquiry, and have elicited the present report. We do not stop to inquire into the abstract justice of the established principles of colonization; but this at least is clear, that whatever rights private and individual settlers may have as against the aboriginal inhabitants of an only partially occupied country, the supreme Government under which they act, whatever it is, must needs have fully as extensive ones. Now, it is an established principle of colonial settlement, and one stated and recognized in their report, that the right of occupancy, which is the right relied on by the aborigines, is co-extensive only with the land actually occupied. All other lands are open to the establishment of any settled system of occupation; but that occupation, to be good against the nomad native tribes, must be the act, not of wanderers or desultory and independent adventurers like themselves, but of a supreme political Power: it must be the act of a Government. All unoccupied land in a British settlement must be acquired by, and transmitted through, the Crown. The Crown alone can treat with the natives; through the crown alone a valid settlement can be acquired by the individual settler. Without this intervening authority, the settler must be driven at last to recognise both, in his own case, the supremacy of the "aboriginal" Government—such as it may be—over himself, and also the dominion of that Government over all the unoccupied land in the country.

Now, this is just the predicament to which the New Zealand Company have driven the colony of New Zealand. They colonized, as the Report says, "not only without the sanction, but in direct defiance of the authority, of the Crown." The consequence is, not only that they have recognised the doctrine that they hold all their land of the natives, and by virtue solely of a title through them, but also that they have by implication very sufficiently established the further doctrine and position, that all unoccupied land whatever throughout the colony is the absolute indefeasible property of the natives, and can be acquired at no rate by the British

Crown except through the intervention of a purchase from the natives. By dealing as private individual they were forced into these positions. The sovereignty of the Crown, has now, indeed, been asserted: but it has come too late. It became, indeed absolutely necessary to assert it. The colony was a thing founded by halves. The Imperial act, which is the vital gift and essence of a colony, was first refused, and then compelled; but in the meanwhile it had become unavailable; the fancied sovereignty of the natives was already established in its room.

The consequences of this strange hash have been, says the Report, "very injurious both to the settlers and the natives themselves." "*New Zealand has retrograded,*" we are told, "*since it has become a colony.*" By "preventing the settlers from obtaining a secure title to the land they required for cultivation, it has given a serious check to improvement. To the native it has been still more injurious, having created a strong feeling of irritation between them and the settlers, from the existence of which they cannot fail ultimately to be the chief sufferers." And we ourselves may add, so far as the settlers are concerned, that in this unauthorised assumption by the New Zealand Company of the functions of independent sovereignty, in their necessary failure in the performance of those functions, and in their consequent false position with the native Powers, there has existed a system of complicated network—a sort of convenient instrument of bamboozling—by which the aforesaid Company have been enabled, most advantageously, to convert their land contracts into indefinite nonentities, and to disappoint their unfortunate customers of all title, possession, and property whatsoever in the lands they have professed to acquire for them.

We are glad to see that the Committee have duly marked their sense of the Company, in setting on foot a system of colonization so subversive of every principle of prudence and justice, in the very first resolution of their Report. It is as follows:—"That the conduct of the New Zealand Company, in sending out settlers to New Zealand, not only without the sanction, but in direct defiance of the authority of the Crown, is highly irregular and improper."

We have no doubt that much good will be effected by the present inquiry. It certainly turns out to have been much needed. There are, however, in the 19 resolutions which the Committee have deduced from it, and presented to the world as the result of their labours, a good many proposals of a character more or less open to question; but to these, and the disclosures made in the evidence published with the Report, we hope to return on some future day.

Cider and Perry.—From a paper in the *Philosophical Transactions*, anno 1745, it appears that persons are much in error who are particularly solicitous about the nature or quality of the apple or pear which is to be made use of for the manufacture of Cider or Perry. It is not pretended that mere crabs will produce liquor palatable to all persons; but that mere crab cider will please many; that by peculiar management it can be fermented into a strong spirituous liquor; and that a large intermixture of crabs with apples of any other quality, or pears, will afford excellent and well-flavoured liquor.

LITERARY REGISTER.

SONNET.

What raises Man above his fellows here?
 The poet with undying truth had shewn,
 That purity and moral worth alone,
 Can raise him high above each vain compeer.—
 Virtue which clothes him in a light more clear
 Than that of sunshine; lifts him to a throne
 Loflier than that which earthly monarchs own,—
 However much the wealthy worldling sneer!
 What places Plato high in our regard?
 What crowns with light, Leonidas the bold!
 What gives to Curtius an eternal fame?
 What consecrates of Hampden the fair name,
 Of Marvel, or of Milton, heavenly bard?
 Truth answers, "Worth," the worldling says, "their
 Gold."

BIOGRAPHY.

HARVEY.

WILLIAM HARVEY was born on the 1st of April, 1578, at Folkstone, on the southern coast of Kent. He was the eldest of nine children; of the rest little more is known than that several of the brothers were among the most eminent merchants in the city of London during the reigns of the two first Stuarts. His father, Thomas Harvey, followed no profession. He married Joanna Falke at the age of twenty, and lived upon his own estate at Folkstone. This property devolved by inheritance upon his eldest son; and the greatest part was eventually bequeathed by him to the college at which he was educated.

At ten years of age he commenced his studies at the grammar school in Canterbury; and upon the 31st of May, 1593, soon after the completion of his fifteenth year, was admitted as a pensioner at Caius College, Cambridge.

At that time a familiar acquaintance with logic and the learned languages was indispensable as a first step in the prosecution of all the branches of science, especially of medicine; and the skill with which Harvey avails himself or the scholastic form of reasoning in his great work on the Circulation, with the elegant Latin style of all his writings, particularly of his latest work on the Generation of animals, afford a sufficient proof of his diligence in the prosecution of these preliminary studies during the four years, which he spent at Cambridge. The two next were occupied in visiting the principal cities and seminaries of the Continent. He then prepared to address himself to those investigations to which the rest of his life was devoted; and the scene of his introduction to them could not have been better chosen than at the University of Padua, where he became a student in his twenty-second year.

The ancient physicians gathered what they knew of anatomy from inaccurate dissections of the lower animals; and the slender knowledge thus acquired, however inadequate to unfold the complicated functions of the human frame, was abundantly sufficient as a basis for conjecture, of which they took full advantage. With them every thing became easy to explain, precisely because nothing was understood; and the nature and treatment of disease, the great object of medicine and of its subsidiary sciences, was hardly abandoned to the conduct of the imagination, and sought for literally among the stars. Nevertheless, so firmly was their authority established, that even down to the close of the sixteenth century the naturalists of Europe still continued to derive all their physiology, and the greater

part of their anatomy and medicine, from the works of Aristotle and Galen, read not in the original Greek, but re-translated into Latin from the interpolated versions of the Arabian physicians. The opinions entertained by these dictators in the republic of letters, and consequently by their submissive followers, with regard to the structure and functions of the organs concerned in the circulation, were particularly fanciful and confused, so much so that it would be no easy task to give an intelligent account of them that would not be tedious from its length. It will be enough to say, that a scarcely more oppressive mass of mischievous error was cleared away from the science of astronomy by the discovery of Newton, than that from which physiology was disincumbered by the discovery of Harvey.

But though the work was completed by an Englishman, it is to Italy that, in anatomy, as in most of the sciences, we owe the first attempts to cast off the thralldom of the ancients. Mundinus had published a work in the year 1315, which contained a few original observations of his own; and his essay was so well received that it remained the textbook of the Italian schools of anatomy for upwards of two centuries. It was enriched from time to time by various annotators, among the chief of whom were Achillini, and Berengarius, the first person who published anatomical plates. But the great reformer of anatomy was Vesalius, who, born at Brussels in 1514, had attained such early celebrity during his studies at Paris and Louvain, that he was invited by the republic of Venice in his twenty-second year to the chair of anatomy at Padua, which he filled for seven years with the highest reputation. He also taught at Bologna, and subsequently, by the invitation of Cosmo de' Medici, at Pisa. The first edition of his work "De Corporis Humani Fabrica," was printed at Basle in the year 1543; it is perhaps one of the most successful efforts of human industry and research, and from the date of its publication begins an entirely new era in the science of which it treats. The despotic sway hitherto maintained in the schools of medicine by the writings of Aristotle and Galen was now shaken to its foundation, and a new race of anatomists eagerly pressed forward in the path of discovery. Among these no one was more conspicuous than Fallapius, the disciple, successor, and in fame the rival, of Vesalius, at Padua. After him the anatomical professorship was filled by Fabricius ab Aquapendente, the last of the distinguished anatomists who flourished at Padua in the sixteenth century.

Harvey became his pupil in 1599, and from this time he appears to have applied himself seriously to the study of anatomy. The first germ of the discovery which has shed immortal honour on his name and country was conceived in the lecture-room of Fabricius.

He remained at Padua for two years; and having received the degree of Doctor in Arts and Medicine with unusual marks of distinction, returned to England early in the year 1602. Two years afterwards he commenced practice in London, and married the daughter of Dr. Launcelot Browne, by whom he had no children. He became a fellow of the College of Physicians when about thirty years of age, having in the mean time renewed his degree of Doctor in Medicine at Cambridge; and was soon after elected Phy-

sician to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, which office he retained till a late period of his life.

On the 4th of August, 1615, he was appointed Reader of Anatomy and Surgery to the College of Physicians. From some scattered hints in his writings it appears that his doctrine of the circulation was first advanced in his lectures at the college about four years afterwards; and a note-book in his own handwriting is still preserved at the British Museum, in which the principal arguments by which it is substantiated are briefly set down, as if for reference in the lecture-room. Yet with the characteristic caution and modesty of true genius, he continued for nine years longer to reason and experimentalize upon what is now considered one of the simplest, as it is undoubtedly the most important, known law of animal nature; and it was not till the year 1628, the fifty-first of his life, that he consented to publish his discovery to the world.

In that year the "Exercitatio Anatomica de Motu Cordis et Sanguinis" was published at Frankfort. This masterly treatise begins with a short outline and refutation of the opinions of former anatomists on the movement of the animal fluids and the functions of the heart; the author discriminating with care, and anxiously acknowledging the glimpses of the truth to be met with in their writings; as if he had not only kept in mind the justice due to previous discoveries, and the prudence of softening the novelty and veiling the extent of his own, but had foreseen the preposterous imputation of plagiarism, which, with other inconsistent charges, was afterwards brought forward against him. This short sketch is followed by a plain exposition of the anatomy of the circulation, and a detail of the results of numerous experiments; and the new theory is finally maintained in a strain of close and powerful reasoning, and followed into some of its most important consequences. The whole argument is conducted in simple and unpretending language, with great perspicuity, and scrupulous attention to logical form.

The doctrine announced by Harvey may be briefly stated thus:—

When the blood supplied for the various processes which are carried on in the living body has undergone a certain degree of change, it requires to be purified by the act of respiration. For this purpose it is urged onwards by fresh blood from behind into the veins; and returning in them from all parts of the body, enters a cavity of the heart called the *right auricle*. At the same time the purified blood returning from the lungs by the pulmonary veins, passes into the *left auricle*. When these two cavities, which are distinct from each other, are sufficiently dilated, they contract, and force the blood which they contain into two other much more muscular cavities called respectively the right and left *ventricle*, all retrogression into the auricles being prevented by valves, which admit of a passage in one direction only. The ventricles then contract in their turn with great force, and at the same instant; and propel their blood, the right, by the pulmonary artery into the lungs; the left, which is much the stronger of the two, into all parts of the body, by the great artery called the *aorta*, and its branches; all return being prevented as before by valves situated at the orifices of those vessels, which are closed most

accurately when the ventricles relax, by the backward pressure of the blood arising from the elasticity of the arteries. Thus the purified blood passes from the lungs by the pulmonary veins through the left auricle into the ventricle of the same side, by which it is distributed into all parts of the body, driving the vitiated blood before it; and the vitiated blood is pushed into and along the veins to the right auricle, and thence is sent into the right ventricle, which propels it by the pulmonary artery through the lungs. In this manner a double circulation is kept up by the sole agency of the heart, through the lungs, and through the body; the contraction of the auricles and ventricles taking place alternately. To prevent any backward motion of the blood in the superficial veins, which might happen from their liability to external pressure, they are also provided with simple and very complete valves which admit of a passage only towards the heart. They were first remarked by Fabricius ab Aquapendente, and exhibited in his lectures to Harvey among the rest of his pupils; but their function remained a mystery till it was explained by the discovery of the circulation. It is related by Boyle, upon Harvey's own authority, that the first idea of this comprehensive principle suggested itself to him when considering the structure of these valves.

The pulmonary circulation had been surmised by Galen, and maintained by his successors; but no proof even of this insulated portion of the truth, more than amounted to strong probability, had been given till the time of Harvey; and no plausible claim to the discovery, still less to the demonstration, of the general circulation has ever been set up in opposition to his. Indeed its truth was quite inconsistent with the ideas everywhere entertained in schools on the functions of the heart and other viscera, and was destructive of many favourite theories. The new doctrine, therefore, as may well be supposed, was received by most of the anatomists of the period with distrust, and by all with surprise. Some of them undertook to refute it; but their objections turned principally on the silence of Galen, or consisted of the most frivolous cavils: the controversy, too, assumed the form of personal abuse even more speedily than is usually the case when authority is at issue with reason. To such opposition Harvey for some time did not think it necessary to reply; but some of his friends in England, and of the adherents to his doctrine on the Continent, warmly took up his defence. At length he was induced to take a personal share in the dispute in answer to Riolanus, a Parisian anatomist of some celebrity, whose objections were distinguished by some show of philosophy, and unusual abstinence from abuse. The answer was conciliatory and complete, but ineffectual to produce conviction; and in reply to Harvey's appeal to direct experiment, his opponent urged nothing but conjecture and assertion. Harvey once more rejoined at considerable length; taking occasion to give a spirited rebuke to the unworthy reception he had met with, in which it seems that Riolanus had now permitted himself to join; adducing several new and conclusive experiments in support of his theory; and entering at large upon its value in simplifying physiology and the study of diseases, with other interesting collateral topics. Riolanus, however, still

remained unconvinced; and his second rejoinder was treated by Harvey with contemptuous silence. He had already exhausted the subject in the two excellent controversial pieces just mentioned, the last of which is said to have been written at Oxford about 1545; and he never resumed the discussion in print. Time had now come to the assistance of argument, and his discovery began to be generally admitted. To this indeed his opponents contributed by a still more singular discovery of their own, namely, that the facts had been observed, and the important inference drawn long before. This was the mere allegation of envy, chafed at the achievements of another, which, from their apparent facility, might have been its own. It is indeed strange that the simple mechanism thus explained should have been unobserved or misunderstood so long; and nothing can account for it but the imperceptible lightness as well as the strength of the chains which authority imposes on the mind.

In the year 1623 Harvey became Physician Extraordinary to James I., and seven years later was appointed Physician to Charles. He followed the fortunes of that monarch, who treated him with great distinction, during the first years of the civil war, and he was present at the battle of Edgehill in 1642. Having been incorporated Doctor of Physic by the University of Oxford, he was promoted by Charles to the Wardenship of Merton College in 1645; but he did not retain this office very long, his predecessor Dr. Brent being reinstated by the Parliament after the surrender of Oxford in the following year.

Harvey then returned to London and resided with his brother Eliab of Cockaine-house in the Poultry. About the time of Charles's execution he gave up his practice, which had never been considerable, probably in consequence of his devotion to the scientific, rather than the practical parts of his profession. He himself, however, attributed his want of success to the enmity excited by his discovery. After a second visit to the Continent, he secluded himself in the country; sometimes at his own house in Lambeth, and sometimes with his brother Eliab at Combe in Surrey. Here he was visited by his friend Dr. Ent in 1651, by whom he was persuaded to allow the publication of his work on the Generation of Animals. It was the fruit of many years of experiment and meditation; and though the vehicle of no remarkable discovery, is replete with interest and research, and contains passages of brilliant and even poetical eloquence. The object of his work is to trace the germ through all its changes to the period of maturity: and the illustrations are principally drawn from the phenomena exhibited by eggs in the process of incubation, which he watched with great care, and has described with minuteness and fidelity. The microscope had not at that time the perfection it has since attained; and consequently Harvey's account of the first appearance of the chick is somewhat inaccurate, and has been superseded by the observations of Malpighi, Hunter, and others. The experiments upon which he chiefly relied in this department of natural history had been repeated in the presence of Charles I., who appears to have taken great interest in the studies of his physician.

In the year 1653, the seventy-fifth of his life, Harvey presented the College of Physicians with the title-deeds of a building erected in their garden, and elegantly fitted up at his expense, with a library and museum, and commodious apartments for their social meetings. Upon this occasion he resigned the Professorship of Anatomy, which he had held for nearly forty years, and was succeeded by Dr. Glisson.

In 1654 he was elected to the Presidency of the College, which he declined on the plea of age; and the former President, Sir Francis Prejean, was re-elected at his request. Two years afterwards he made a donation to the college of a part of his paternal estate to the yearly value of £56, as a provision for the maintenance of the library and an annual festival and oration in commemoration of benefactors.

At length his constitution, which had long been harassed by the gout, yielded to the increasing infirmities of age, and he died in his eightieth year, on the 3rd of June, 1657. He was buried at Hempstead in Essex, in a vault belonging to his brother Eliab, who was his principal heir, and his remains were followed to the grave by a numerous procession of the body of which he had been so illustrious and munificent a member.

The best edition of his works is that edited by the College of Physicians in 1766, to which is prefixed a valuable notice of his life, and an account of the controversy to which his discovery of the circulation gave rise. All that remain of his writings in addition to those which have been already mentioned, are an account of Thomas Parr, who died at the age of 153, and a few letters addressed to various Continental anatomists. His lodgings at Whitehall had been plundered in the early part of the civil war, of many papers containing manuscript notes of experiments and observations, chiefly relating to comparative anatomy. This was a loss which he always continued to lament. The missing papers have never been recovered.

In person he was below the middle size, but well-proportioned. He had a dark complexion, black hair, and small lively eyes. In his youth his temper is said to have been very hasty. If so he was cured of this defect as he grew older; for nothing can be more courteous and temperate than his controversial writings, and the genuine kindness and modesty which were conspicuous in all his dealings with others, with his instructive conversation, gained him many attached and excellent friends.

Interesting Discovery at Nineveh.—The news of the progress of M. Botta's excavations at Khorsabad, near Mosul, Palestine, are always interesting. There are at present 160 workmen engaged thereon, and besides the walls, which are covered with sculptures and inscriptions, many antiquities of a peculiar and at present inexplicable nature are met with. For example, under the large bricks, of which the floor consists, are stone repositories, which are filled with small clay enamelled figures of men and beasts, without anything on the surface indicating the existence of such repositories, or there being anything within them to explain their contents. In another place they discovered great rows of earthen vases of a remarkable size, placed on a brick floor and filled with

human bones, and similar to those which have been found at Babylon, Ahwas, and other places in South Persia. The palace seems to have been totally plundered before its destruction, for neither jewels, nor instruments, nor even the small cylinders, so numerous in the neighbourhood, are anywhere found; merely some bronze images of beasts (for instance, a very fine lion) have been discovered, as also a part of the bronze wheel of a war chariot. But the most incomprehensible circumstance is, that the alabaster slabs with which the walls are cased, and which are covered with inscriptions and sculptures, bear on the back, likewise inscriptions in arrow-headed characters, and certainly not in the Assyrian, but in Babylonian language. As it is naturally not to be presumed that the architects would have been so foolish as to have graven these inscriptions where no one could have seen them without pulling down the wall, it must be presumed that the slabs have served twice, first belonging to a Babylonian palace, and afterwards have been transposed by the Assyrians and freshly graven. At present no sculptures have been found on the back, which would, indeed, be of the greatest interest, no Babylonian sculptures having ever yet been discovered. Some of the lately found bas reliefs are especially remarkable; for instance, one representing the siege of a town situated on an island: the sea is covered with ships, the fore part of which form a horse's head, and which are occupied in bringing the trunks of trees for the purpose of erecting a dam. The water is covered with all kinds of marine animals—fishes, crabs, and winged sea-horses. The richness of the details, and the mass of sculpture which the palace contains, are amazing, and it is incomprehensible how so magnificent a building should have been so strangely buried in the earth. The French Ambassador at Constantinople has not yet obtained permission from the Porte to send to Paris those articles of antiquity which will bear transport, which says little for their interest there, at a time when the English are removing whole cargoes of antiquities from Lesser Asia to London.—*Augsburg Gazette.*

Books.—What a beautiful piece of furniture is a handsomely filled book-case! It is perhaps the readiest method for a man of fortune to acquire the reputation of being a man of intellect. If you have about the same knowledge of Greek as the sapient pig, a few classical folios with the titles conspicuously displayed on the binding, will be of as much service to you with the world as if you had matriculated at Trinity. Or if you have no particular desire to impress your visitors with the abstruseness of your studies, then always select a book for the elegance of its binding; for remember that "Jack Sheppard" in morocco and gold, is infinitely preferable to the "Vicar of Wakefield" in cloth. We have known some happy effects to result from the use of books for higher purposes than those of show. A young gentleman who has been somewhat remiss in his payment to his landlady, and is anxious to impress upon her the high sense he entertains of all moral and honourable obligations, will find his advantage in taking care, previously in leaving his apartment for the day, to dress his table with a volume of a dog's-eared Paley. If the page be judiciously selected, he may rest assured, from the natural inquisitiveness of landladies,

that her faith will be considerably augmented, and his credit enlarged. The best plan to form a library is to become acquainted with a number of reading men whose volumes you can take home and study at your leisure, which will doubtlessly occupy so long a period of time that the names of the owners will ultimately be obliterated from your memory; nor can any one be surprised at this, as books, like umbrellas, are never expected to be returned.—*Punch.*

Civilization.—Every Englishman ought to rejoice in the high state of civilization which it is the happy lot of this country to enjoy, and to do his utmost to disseminate so great a blessing among his barbarous brothers of other and less fortunate climes. Climes where—with horror we write it—votes are as valueless as ten-pound notes! Climes which, alas! are unblest with coal-mines to serve as infant schools for the rising generation. What can be more painful to the noble philanthropist than the knowledge that in this, the nineteenth century, there exists upon the face of the earth human beings so lost to all refinement and reason, that they actually are degraded enough to wear their rings through their noses instead of their ears! Does not the eloquent voice of enlightenment and humanity call upon us to contribute to our utmost to rescue those poor benighted creatures from that deplorable state of ignorance and barbarism which prompts them to embellish their countenances with *yellow ochre* instead of *carmine*, and to add a new charm to the complexion by the application of *cocoa-nut oil* rather than *Kalydor*? Is there a rational being among us, that can patiently endure the reflection that his fellow-man could sink into such a state of childish pride and vanity, that he should actually engrave upon his body his distinctive coat-of-arms, and be weak enough to attach the same importance to the tattooed signs of his nobility, as we with our superior intelligence do to a star or a garter?—*Punch.*

Putridity of Meat.—Until the experiments of the celebrated Italian physician, Redi, who died in 1697, insects were supposed to be engendered in Putridity, and not by their own species. The correction of this Error first led butchers and housekeepers to guard meats from flies by defending them with gauze coverings. The most important of Redi's experiments was the following:—He put some meat and fish into a large vessel, covered with gauze, which he also put into a large box, covered with the same gauze, that the air might penetrate to the meats while it remained free from the intrusion of insects. On these he did not see a single worm, but frequently saw the little creatures writhing about on the outer gauze, trying to make their way through; and it was with difficulty that he was once quick enough to prevent two of them from falling on the meat, for they had got their bodies half through the inner gauze. He also observed the flies, attracted to the meat, and unable to make their way to it, drop their eggs upon the gauze; some of them alighting upon it, others hovering in the air during the operation; and he perceived that each left six or seven eggs at a time. This was the point he wished to ascertain; and he had now discovered that insects supposed to be engendered by corruption were, in reality, propagated by their own species. During the course of these experiments, Redi ascertained the curious fact,

that when the common day-fly dies, it serves as a nest for its own species equally with any other kind of dead flesh.

Rhenish Wines.—A notion prevails that the wines of the Rhine are naturally acid, and the inferior kinds, no doubt, are so; but this is not the constant character of the Rhine wines, which, in good years, have not any perceptible acidity to the taste, at least not more than is common to them with the growth of warmer regions. But their chief distinction is their extreme durability, in which they were not surpassed by any other species of wine.

ANECDOTES OF BRUNET, THE COMEDIAN.

The following anecdotes will shew how he presumed on general favour to support himself against the government of Napoleon, at that time one of the most arbitrary in Europe. In the course of different pieces in which he acted, he introduced impromptus to this effect. When the flat-bottomed boats were practising on the Seine, he made a *calembourg*, or pun, upon the word "*noyer*," observing, that "we should have plenty of drowned, if we made our descent on England;" the word "*noyer*" signifying also a "walnut tree." This witticism pleased the Parisians mightily, though it gave great offence to the Government, and caused him to be imprisoned for two or three weeks. This despotic, and impolitic step on the part of the police, only increased Brunet's power over his admiring countrymen, for when he returned from prison to the stage, he was received with shouts of applause and triumph. This emboldened him to venture on a *calembourg* of greater dimensions. During a piece in which he performed, an orange, containing a louis d'or, was thrown on the stage, and as he picked it up, he made the following remark: "I know what to do with this orange—I'll keep the Louis, eat the orange, and send the rind to the devil,"—(*Je garderai le Louis—je mangerai l'orange, et au diable l'écorce—le Corse*). The close of the sentence was magnificent, "*l'écorce*," and *le corse* being pronounced precisely alike, the former signifying, "the rind," and the latter "the Corsican." Napoleon became furious on hearing of this insult, and poor Brunet, as he expected, was again incarcerated for a short period, but returned to his profession with more energy and success than ever. His next sarcasm was directed against the term "*Imperial*," which was assumed for almost every article of luxury soon after Napoleon's becoming Emperor. While Brunet is satirizing this absurd taste, a French diligence attempts to pass on the stage, but the top being too high, it sticks fast under the arched way—Brunet immediately exclaims "*abas l'imperiale, il y a long temps que cela nous embarrasse*." "Down with the top (*imperial*) that has troubled us a long time." The word *imperial* signifying the top of a coach, as well as "*imperial*." Previous to this speech, he had furnished himself with a night cap, which he shook at the audience, saying that he knew where he was going to sleep that night, alluding to the prison, to which, in fact, he was sent for the last time; for, in consequence of some understanding between him and the police, his subsequent puns were found to be extremely harmless.