

that of ordinary rent—one in which it has never operated as a bar to improvement in Scotland. The result has already been happy in many localities. Money is now willingly expended both by landlords and by tenants, where the husbandry of the district had long been stationary through the operation of the tithes; and we are quite certain that the good effects of the change will be more and more manifest as the desire for improvement becomes more diffused, and the means of effecting it are more generally understood.

Second among recent and existing causes of progress, we class the establishment and exertions of the Royal Agricultural Society of England. The line which this youthful Society has taken is something different from that along which the older Highland Society of Scotland has hitherto gone—more adapted to the wider field of its exertions, to the special state of the soil and husbandry, and to the general state of advancement of the practical agriculture of England, and of the minds of its practical men.

England is a wide country, and scarcely any one-tenth of the rural population knows what any other tenth of the same class is doing—what their soils, their crops, their returns, their practices, or what the local reasons for the adoption of methods different from their own. The Royal Agricultural Society, therefore—doing again what Sir John Sinclair and the Board of Agriculture did a quarter of a century ago—is collecting, publishing, and circulating among its members, carefully prepared reports of the existing husbandry of the several counties of England. These are intended not so much to gratify curiosity as to awaken interest—to call forth such reflections as—“If this be done in Nottingham, why may I not do it in Essex?”—“If this practice succeed in Northumberland, why may I not try it in Gloucester?”—“If this crop pay on the clays of Sussex, why should it not pay on mine in Oxford?” To improve one district by showing what is done in another—to diffuse over the whole land the knowledge possessed in the most improved districts, is the laudable object of this Society's labors.

Then, as the most striking, most immediate, and most universally practicable and intelligible increase of productiveness in the English soils is to be brought about by a general drainage, the means of accomplishing this, in the cheapest and most efficient manner, has engaged much of their attention; and as the most backward land is also strong clay—of which there are vast breadths in different parts of England—for the working of which clod-crushers and cultivators are of great value, they have been led especially to encourage the manufacture and improvement of such machines.

This has naturally turned their attention to other agricultural implements, until at length they have gradually slid into an almost exclusive patronage and encouragement of what may be called, by way of distinction, the mechanical methods of improving the soil. The show of implements at their annual meetings is indeed a very instructive sight—one which can be seen nowhere else in any part of the world—and which to the instructed observer, conveys a very clear idea of the actual condition of English agriculture, and of the kind of advancement it is now making. It may be inferred that those implements, of which the greatest numbers are exhibited—of which the greatest number of improved modifications compete for the premiums—are also those for which there is the greatest demand among practical farmers. And as those only are in demand which are required for general and profitable use, the purposes they are respectively intended to serve, will indicate very clearly the kind of operations to which the attention of improving English farmers is at present especially directed.

The value of new and improved tools to the husbandman is not generally appreciated even by agriculturists themselves; and the national importance of placing them in his hands is understood by very few men among the other classes of society. But the economical advantage likely to follow from the general introduction of the thrashing-mill alone, as calculated by Mr. Brown of Markle many years ago, places this point in a very clear light. According to this high authority, the thrashing-machine, if generally introduced, would effect a saving of one-twentieth of the whole grain produced in Great Britain—then twenty-four millions of quarters. This one million two hundred thousand quarters he calculated to be left in the straw, and annually thrown away; which, at 40s. were worth £2,400,000. The saving of expense in thrashing he reckoned at one shilling a quarter, or £1,200,000—making in all an annual saving to the country of £3,600,000. It is not necessary to adopt the above numbers of Mr. Brown as strictly accurate, in order to satisfy us of the national and economical importance of generally introducing a better and more numerous selection of implements among practical farmers. The English Society deserves well of the whole Empire, therefore, for endeavouring, by the exercise of its great influence, to promote this important object.

The reader will observe, that, in Scotland and England, the lines of agricultural force, so to speak, are tending in different directions. The mechanical means of improvement are fixing the especial attention of the English Society; the generally scientific and chemical means, that of the Scottish improvers. We do not say that Scotland has yet done enough to the mechanical part, but the line she is now taking, through her Chemical Association, indicates a further stage of advancement than that which is followed in England. Both are pregnant with good results to both countries; but England has still to enter zealously, openly, and as a distinct branch, upon the Scottish walk of applied science; and, no doubt, she will find some one at the helm of her agricultural affairs, who will be able to guide her in this new and higher direction.

That this is certain to take place, we are satisfied, by the existence of a circumstance which we regard as the third among the important special means by which English agriculture is henceforth to be promoted. We allude to the establishment of the Agricultural College at Cirencester, and the Yeoman School at York—the introduction of agricultural instruction into the training-schools at Durham and elsewhere—and the other similar methods now in course of being adopted in different parts of central and northern England, for affording the means of a more or less complete agricultural education, to the various ranks of the rural community.

In the establishment of agricultural Colleges, England has taken the lead. In this, Scotland and Ireland must follow her. At Cirencester there are already about a hundred young men engaged in the study of those various departments of

knowledge, a certain acquaintance with which is necessary to the preparation of an accomplished agriculturist. Should these hundred young men hereafter become agents upon as many different estates, how great a boon would be conferred upon the country by their education!

Of the necessity of this special instruction, through special schools, many are still unconvinced. Our views upon the subject are briefly as follows: The surface of Great Britain as a whole is capable of being greatly improved; but this improvement can be effected only by the application of new knowledge to the soil. This new knowledge must therefore, by some means, be brought within the easy reach of the rural classes. The schoolmaster is the only permanent instrument by which this can be effected. Our elementary schools, without any new machinery, may constantly diffuse a certain amount of this knowledge, as is now done in many of the Scotch and Irish schools; but the higher, more advanced, and more perfect agricultural education will still be wanting. Where is this to be got? Will any of our higher schools and colleges incorporate it with, or add it to their usual and special courses of instruction? We believe not. They do not understand it. Their habits, and the rules of their Institutions are opposed to novelties in education. In an old Institution the new branches would struggle with the old at a constant disadvantage, were they even formally introduced. The easier, speedier, and more effective method, therefore, is to found special schools for this special object; and this in all the three kingdoms will, we believe, sooner or later be done.

Mr. Blacker, an Irish improver, whose exertions in that country are beyond all praise, works through the instrumentality of peripatetic agriculturists. His attention is chiefly directed to the improvement of the existing race of farmers. Our desires are fixed more on the future generations. His ambition is to push them on, as a man may make the hands on the clock-face go forward, by standing behind and moving them. We do not undervalue this mode of moving in the mean-time; but we are anxious to attach machinery to the pointers, to connect them with a main-spring, and to wind it up that they may move alone. The heads of our rural population contain the machinery we are anxious to employ; instruction is the mainspring; and we would have the schoolmaster to wind it up once for all.

We have at present little more to add. We have in some degree assumed that British agriculture, up to the present time, has continued to make progress, about as fast as the population itself. We have run hurriedly over the Island, and have everywhere observed marks of still active and advancing improvement. Looking at it in another light, we have satisfied ourselves also that the soil in its existing state possesses undeveloped resources on which long years of successful labor may still be profitably expended. We have likewise adverted to many facilities which now exist in both ends of the Island, likely, we think, hereafter to hasten forward the general body of British agriculturists at an accelerated pace. In all this, therefore, we see not only a very cheerful, but a very reasonable prospect, both of abundant food and continued employment, for an increasing people, and of prolonged prosperity to the farmer.

The change of the Corn-Laws will act, we hope, as it ought to act, upon British minds, not as a depressing, but as a stimulating influence. If it call new energy and intelligence and new means into play, it will prove an almost unmixed good. Whatever art can extract of enlarged crops from foreign soils may equally be reaped in Britain. The capital, aided by the mechanical skill, and applied science which we possess ought, therefore, if made generally available, to place our farmers beyond the reach of any protracted successful competition, in the home market. Larger returns, in all branches of husbandry, without a proportionate increase of cost, are what the soil promises to the application of increased skill. This is the very result by which the comfort and existing position of both landlord and tenant are to be maintained. Cast despondency away, therefore—let new exertions be put forth, and this new end will be attained.

The same cheering view, also, we would take of the late visitation which has befallen our potato crop. We believe it will be only temporary; but whether so or not, it ought not to depress us. Afflictions of this kind lead to good, if they arouse to new exertion. The gift of new knowledge to the people will inspire them with new hope; and, in times of trial like the present, will provide them with new resources.

*Progression by Antagonism: a Theory involving Considerations touching the present Position, Duties, and Destiny of Great Britain.* By Lord Lindsay. Murray.

LORD LINDSAY is convinced that “the Progression produced by Antagonism is a general law of the moral government of God, in time and in eternity.” This principle, he believes, will “serve as a compass to England in piloting the ark of humanity through the stormy sea, the struggle and conflict of the days about to be.” It will “aid the Divine in vindicating the essential character of Christianity.” It will be “found a guide to the historian, in preparing the way for a sound political science.” It will enable the legislator and statesman to ascertain “the true principles of politics, civil and ecclesiastical.” “The man of science may find it useful in classifying our knowledge as yet obtained, and in ascending in each separate branch and in science as a whole.” “To the poet, the man of letters, the architect, sculptor, painter, and musician, it will discover the true relations of truth and beauty.” And, finally, “the philosopher may find in it the germ of a system, speculative at once and practical, satisfying to the loftiest, yet intelligible to the humblest mind, and not merely capable, but by its very essence requiring, to be carried out in every walk of life.”

This spiritual philosopher's stone, this master-key to all knowledge, Lord Lindsay has been impelled, by the solicitations of a world waiting in darkness, and by an internal afflatus, to reveal. “Hearing, moreover, the cry that rises up on all sides, the yearning, agonising cry from the youthful, ingenious, truth-seeking hearts of England for a key to the enigma of our times; and feeling through my own experience that the theory in question solves that enigma; and believing finally that it contains an acorn of truth, which dropped within the vase of our present shallow and bounded philosophy, must necessarily burst in its expansion, and falling on the rich and virgin soil beneath, shoot up again towards heaven, a stately tree of life,

no less than knowledge, I cannot hesitate; I feel that now or never is the time it should be set forth; and any blame or misapprehension that may temporarily attach to myself, is of little consequence.”

Now, it is rather tantalising to have our expectations thus roused, and then to find, after a patient and sedulous perusal of the book, that Lord Lindsay nowhere condescends to explain what “Progression by Antagonism” is. He informs us that it has no analogy to “that antagonistical adjustment of the centrifugal and centripetal forces by which the planets revolve round the sun.” He professes, it is true, to illustrate the operation of his principle in “the individual man,” “the universal man” (first cousin to “the abstract idea of a Lord Mayor”), and “other orders of responsible beings.” But of the last mentioned he wisely says very little; and with respect to the other two, he merely points out diverse principles in them without giving any account of their antagonistic action or its results. Indeed, from anything to the contrary that appears in the book, “progress by fusion” would be quite as correct a title as “progress by antagonism.”

This is really treating the “youthful, ingenuous, truth-seeking hearts of England,” with their “yearning and agonising cry,” very cruelly. It is leading them into a fool's paradise. It is telling them that Lord Lindsay has a talisman that can smooth all difficulties, and clear away all doubts and mysteries; and then shutting it up in his own pocket when they look to have it placed in their hands. It is as bad as the miser in the farce, who, after fumbling half an hour through all his pockets, tells the expectant of his bounty, “I shall owe you a sixpence, Sam.”

Lord Lindsay informs us that he “has been much overworked, and is far from well.” He must indeed have been in a critical state when he penned this volume. He had fed upon words till the windy diet inflated him. His is clearly a case for the same treatment as that of the big-worded bard in Ben Jonson's *Poetaster*. The throes with which he is delivered of his ratiocinations, are obviously of wind, though he mistakes it for the spirit. His book is one vast eructation, and charity may hope that he feels easier after it. Was there ever seen before, in English, such a prolonged rush of air as in this mammoth sentence?

Under the third and existing period or cycle, as yet commencing merely, we may contemplate the rule of spirit over sense, through imagination and reason, balanced in nearly equal proportion—through her mingled Norman and Saxon, and subsidiary Celtic and Roman, descent—in the constitutional monarchy of Great Britain,—witnessed primarily by her language, almost equally compounded of Sanscrit and Zend, and still more remarkably by the crossing and compromise, at nearly equal angles of intersection, of the Hindoo and Medo-Persian, the imaginative and reasoning elements, in her character and constitution, and a consequent reciprocal esteem and healthy invigorating interaction of sense and spirit—the Medo-Persian, Teutonic or reasoning principle of equity, as modifying the Hindoo, Roman or imaginative principle of justice absolute, governing and animating the whole national existence,—spirit being represented by a sovereign, the head alike of church and state, ruling by the law, yet held theoretically irresponsible—sense by a people, secured in the utmost individual liberty compatible with general security and the corporate life and vigour of the community—and intellect, in her departments of imagination and reason, as the counsellors of spirit in the government of sense, each mistress and asserter of half the truth, by parliament in its upper and lower houses, and by the two great parties commonly distinguished as Tory and Whig, Conservative and Liberal—the Tories representing the Norman, the Whigs the Saxon element or principle—the former loving the country, dwelling apart, cultivating their paternal acres, following a Marlborough or a Wellington to the field of glory, maintaining the principle of order and of royalty to the Queen and the church, expressing themselves for the most part in Latinized English and in a literature descending from Chaucer, and citadelled at Eton and Oxford in the high church and landed aristocracy—the latter congregating in towns, creating manufactures, ploughing the deep, extending their commerce over the globe, asserting their independence and private judgment in all things, speaking lightly of dignities, expressing themselves for the most part in English purely vernacular and in a literature descending from Wycliffe and citadelled at Westminster and Cambridge, in the low church and commercial and manufacturing interest—these elements tending naturally and respectively towards the extremes exemplified in the two former periods of European history, of superstition, catholicism, and despotism, of scepticism, protestantism, and democracy, but counterchecked and preserved in the mean of truth and in youth and vigour by perpetual antagonism, generating perpetual progression and improvement—this progression evincing itself in a deeply felt respect and chivalrous courtesy to women, in a purity of morals without asceticism, in a warlike yet sobriety of religious sentiment, in a growing spirit of charity and toleration, accompanied by an ever-enlarging desire of doing good to the bodies and souls of men, in a spirit of earnest but candid scrutiny, in a freedom of opinion, controlled by deference to legitimate authority not over-strained, in a manly good sense, in a reverence and value for truth, honesty, justice, good faith, independence, integrity, self-respect—those simple virtues which are the pillars of a nation—in a catholic sympathy with whatever is excellent and admirable in the elements, Hindoo and Medo-Persian, from which the nation and its greatness jointly spring, as evinced emphatically in Shakespeare—and, finally, in an individual and collective energy and enterprise, physical, intellectual, and moral, unprecedented since the world began.

Goodness gracious! as the young ladies' maids say—shall we ever recover breath.

#### DISEASES OF THE CHEST.—PULMONARY CATARRH.—“COLD ON THE CHEST.”—COUGH.

Pulmonary catarrh, or *cold on the chest*, is distinguished from other diseases of the mucous membrane of the air tubes, by alteration in the character—by the profuseness, or by the diminution of the mucus secretion, and by the absence of inflammation; when inflammation is present the disease then becomes *bronchitis*. We shall in this essay confine our remarks to cold on the chest and its chief symptom—*cough*.

A few words descriptive of the “air tubes,” “air passages,” or “bronchial tubes,” by which the atmosphere is conveyed to the lungs, will assist the reader in comprehending the disorders to which they are liable. The *larynx*, or organ of the voice, opens into the mouth, and is situated anterior to the gullet; it terminates in the *trachea*, or wind-pipe, which is a hollow tube, composed of from fifteen to twenty fibro-cartilaginous arches or rings—incomplete at the back part—contained or developed in a fibrous, slightly elastic membrane, which connects them together, and supplies the deficiency at the posterior part: the trachea descends

some short distance (to the second or third dorsal vertebræ), and then divides into two lesser tubes, called the right and left *bronchi*, similarly formed, except that the rings are thinner and smaller; the bronchi divide and again subdivide into innumerable lesser branches, or tubes, which spread throughout the lungs, and ultimately terminate in the *bronchial cells*, into which the air penetrates; a number of these cells, united together by a delicate substance, called cellular membrane, constitutes a *pulmonary lobule*. The union of these lobules forms the *lobe*, and by the junction of the lobes (three in the right, and two in the left lung) the whole lung results. Thus the substance of the lungs is formed of minute bronchial, or air cells, cellular membrane, the pulmonary blood vessels and nerves, and lymphatic and bronchial glands; they are soft, spongy, yielding bodies, of a conical form, the base resting on the *diaphragm*, or muscular partition between the abdomen and the chest, and the apex in contact with the first rib; they are contained in two serous membranes or bags, called the *pleura* of the ribs and the *pleura* of the lungs. The windpipe and the bronchial tubes are lined with a delicate membrane, called *mucous membrane*, which, in a state of health, is kept constantly moist by a secretion of mucus,—a bland un-irritative fluid, such as is secreted in the nose, mouth, stomach, &c. We proceed now to consider the effects produced on this membrane and its secretion by cold; namely, dry catarrh and humid catarrh.

DRY CATARRH, or cough unaccompanied by expectoration, is caused by those influences, already detailed, which induce a common cold. The first effect of cold applied to a mucous surface is to render it dry; its secretion is suspended, it becomes tumid, swollen, and thicker than before; and as these effects increase they go on to inflammation, which when the membranes of the air passages are affected, constitutes *bronchitis*. The symptoms of dry catarrh are dependent on the extent of mucous membrane implicated in the disease; in some cases it may excite little disorder of the general health, the only symptom being a slight shortness of breath, with increased difficulty of respiration under the least exertion, and an expectoration every morning of a small portion of tough tenacious mucus of a greyish colour. In other cases, and they are the most frequent, there is a tickling, teasing cough, which comes on in paroxysms; the difficulty of breathing is increased, sometimes amounting to suffocation; there is considerable tightness and oppression across the chest, which is ultimately relieved by the expectoration of hard dense pellets of mucus, of a dark or yellow colour: sometimes these pellets are surrounded by a copious secretion of phlegm, and at others they are brought up almost as a substance. After a time, the expectoration becomes more copious, and is of a white glairy colour; and in the advanced stages of extreme cases it loses its mucus character, and becomes muco-purulent or purulent, and occasionally is tinged with blood. We have seen many cases in which there was little cough, the difficulty of breathing being the only symptom which gave uneasiness; when expectoration was induced, and the bronchial tubes relieved from the load of thickened and hardened mucus, the respiration became less embarrassed, and the patient for a time free from disturbance. A dry cough is certainly the most exhausting to the strength of the invalid, as the repeated ineffectual attempts to expectorate, severely strain not only the muscles of the chest, but also the lungs themselves, and, without relief be quickly obtained, inflammation is set up, and we have then to contend with the more alarming disease—*Bronchitis*. Dry catarrh, if it does not cease within a few days, either runs into humid catarrh, bronchitis, or becomes chronic. The latter occurs more frequently in persons advanced in years, especially those who have lived freely, and have a disposition to gout or rheumatism; it is a common result of functional derangement of the stomach, liver, and bowels, and individuals disordered by long continued excesses are rendered most susceptible of an attack on the least exposure to cold.

We have already said that dry catarrh may be confounded with asthma; and here we may notice the valuable auxiliary which we now possess, to enable us correctly to distinguish each and every disease and condition of the chest, by means of the stethoscope, which, in fact, gives to the practitioner another sense, and enables him to detect with certainty the precise disease, and its precise situation. We shall not be stepping out of our way if we give a slight notice of this instrument, which has now become as essential to the physicians as is the compass to the mariners. The stethoscope was invented by Laennec, a French physician, in the year 1816; it is generally made of cedar wood, of a cylindrical form, about eleven inches long, and about one and a-half broad, having a cylindrical perforation throughout its whole length—in effect, a wooden tube. Its use is to convey the sounds emitted in the body to the ear, and enable us to practice *mediate auscultation*—that is, listening to the sounds and movements of the heart, lungs, &c. We all know that when a person has a cold, and the bronchial tubes are loaded with mucus, the air rushing through them gives rise to a *whizzing* in the chest, or a *rattle* in the throat; and if we apply our ear to the side of a person somewhat excited, we may hear the heart beat. It was left to Laennec to notice and to turn to practical account, the indications thus afforded of the actual state of the working of the machinery of our internal organs. At the time of his discovery, he was physician to the Necker Hospital, in Paris, and in its wards he instituted a series of observations and experiments, first to ascertain the regular and healthy sounds which were elicited in natural, vigorous respiration and inspiration, and afterwards those alterations and changes which were caused by disease; and the result was that he discovered, to use his own words, "a set of new signs of diseases of the chest, for the most part simple, prominent, certain, and calculated, perhaps, to render the diagnosis of these diseases as positive and circumstantial as that of many affections which come within the immediate reach of the hand or instruments of the surgeon." One of the first physicians to introduce the stethoscope into England was our late respected teacher, Dr. Thomas Davies, who was the friend and pupil of Laennec during the time he was perfecting his discovery: Dr. Davies, on his return from Paris, where he paid much attention to the nature and treatment of pulmonary and heart affections, opened a class at his own private house, which was attended by many practitioners in the metropolis, and from that period the value of the stethoscope has neither been doubted, nor neglected. The indications which are derived from the employment of this instrument, are termed *physical signs*; and as they serve only to assist the practitioner in forming a correct diagnosis of disease, and cannot by possibility be of service to the general reader, we shall not, in these essays, minutely allude to them.

Dry catarrh, when unattended with aggravated symptoms, rarely comes under the notice of the physician; when, however, the symptoms we have just recited increase in violence, when the cough is frequent and suffocating, the expectoration difficult, the breathing gasping and laborious, the pain and constriction oppressive, darting, and deep seated, the disease has then become bronchitis, the symptoms and treatment of which will be noticed in an early essay. The treatment of dry catarrh must be directed to remove the thickened and congested state of the bronchial membrane, and to facilitate the expectoration of the dense mucus that obstructs the tubes. In the first place, it is necessary that the patient should avoid exposure to a cold, foggy, or irritating atmo-

sphere, the chest should be protected and supplied with increased warmth, and the general health, which is usually impaired, amended. Increased warmth will be beneficially afforded by wearing, next to the skin, a piece of chamois, or stout soft wash-leather; it possesses many advantages over flannel; it is free from the annoyance and irritation which "warm plaisters" of all kinds induce; it is cheap, cleanly, and proper: when the means of the invalid will permit, he may breathe a warm, bland atmosphere, by the use of the "Respirator," which is one of the greatest boons science has offered to suffering humanity; when this cannot be obtained, a silk gauze, several times folded, should be worn across the mouth during inclement weather; this is far preferable to the large woollen shawls which we are erroneously taught to believe preventative of colds. The diet should be free from all that is indigestible, rich, and stimulating; the bowels should be gently acted upon, and we should endeavour to give tone and vigour to the system, by tonic medicines and exercise. The next indication is to facilitate the expectoration; and this is accomplished by the use of remedies called "expectorants," as squills, ipecacuan, lobelia inflata, &c.; ipecacuan given in nauseating doses will sometimes give immediate relief, by unloading the bronchial vessels, and if continued in lesser doses will prevent its accumulation; squills are of the greatest service when the cough is frequent and teasing—and when there is much disturbance and irritability of the frame, with disturbed rest, it may advantageously be combined with the extract of conium: opiates, in this form of cough, are inadmissible; they may afford some momentary relief, but they keep up the cause of the cough, by diminishing the secretion, and rendering it more difficult to expectorate. When the cough is "hard," great relief will be experienced from inhaling the steam of boiling water, and we have in many cases witnessed considerable benefit by the water being poured on a few hops, and the vapour inhaled through the spout of a tea-pot. We shall enter more fully into the treatment of catarrh, when we come to speak of bronchitis, into which disease it usually merges.

In our next we shall notice *humid catarrh*, or cough with expectoration.

T. H. YEOMAN, M.D.

### Punch.

#### TRIA JUNCTA IN UNO.

Punch's London Correspondent writes him, in a postscript, the following interesting coincidence—"On one and the same day, three restless vessels of polemical wrath and political delinquency—Sir George Gipps, Dr. Nixon, and Dr. Lang—all from your hot part of the world, arrived in the Thames, and were coolly made fast to the same tug, and hauled quietly into the Graving Dock here—condemned to undergo temporal and spiritual repairs, previous to their being launched on their respective voyages of mischief."

#### PROSPECTS OF THE SESSION.

##### A SONG FOR LORD JOHN RUSSELL.

With one thing and another, what anxiety and bother,  
What perplexity and trouble, and confusion I am in;  
I seem all hurry-scurry, in a flurry and a worry,  
Now the session parliamentary is going to begin.  
The work of Legislation will be such a complication,  
That how shall I unravel it I'm puzzled how to think;  
We shall be so very busy, the idea makes me dizzy,  
And from the undertaking I am half inclined to shrink.

There's the Sanatory question for discussion and digestion,  
There's the Smoke-prevention measure—there's the Duty upon Tea:  
I've to settle Church Preferment, and to regulate Intermittent,  
And the Malt tax abolition must be grappled with by me.  
On the Buildings' Act revision I must come to some decision,  
And wagon-loads of Railway bills must manage to get through:  
With the press of business matter, and the talking and the chattering,  
Upon my life I can't conceive whatever I shall do.

Then the Window-tax repealers have been putting forth their feelers,  
And I shall have to answer them, or yield to their demand;  
Whilst, distracting my attention—oh, most horrible to mention!  
There'll be both Free Trade Extension and the Burdens upon Land.  
And the diplomatic kettle I of fish have to settle,  
And all I know about the Spanish Marriage to reveal,—  
Oh! humbly as a spaniel, let me beg, my dearest Daniel,  
In this dying situation not to plague me with Repeat.

Then a scheme of Education I must furnish for the nation,  
Which Inglis will be trying to cut up in smithereens;  
And amid all these transactions, and the cavillings of factions,  
I shall have to set to work about devising Ways and Means.  
Worst of all, the monster question there remains, whose bare suggestion  
Makes every hair upon my head to bristle up on end,  
I can't shrink it, I must meet it—who will tell me how to treat it?  
With Ireland and her evils I am call'd on to contend.

Oh, how badger'd, bored, and harass'd, how cross-question'd and embarrass'd,  
How banter'd, teas'd, and taunted, and torment'd, I shall be!

#### FASHIONS FOR JANUARY.

Dresses of damas, with wreaths satines, moires antiques, brooches; merveilles, and various other rich materials, are equally fashionable for soirées, as visiting dresses, according as the colours are light or dark; small bouquets of feathers are used to ornament the moires broches in gold or silver, each confined by an ornament of precious stones; for dresses of greater simplicity feuillages of ribbon are intermixed with bouillonnées of tulle; black and white lace is universally worn in deep flounces. For young ladies taffetas dresses are trimmed with crape flounces pinked; as many as nine are put on in tiers of three and three, and form a pretty light as well as bouffante trimming.

In evening dresses the skirts offer more variety than the corsages; berthes and revers are still so much in favour as to preponderate over the the corsages drapes; the sleeves remain short and small, and indeed are mostly covered by the trimming of the corsage. For morning dresses there is much variety in the make of sleeves; some are à l'Amadis, others tight, ending at the elbow, or wide and open festonnées, or piped at the bottom, &c. Under the name of passementerie, a variety of new trimmings are constantly introduced: those forming foliage in velvet have a very rich effect on satins, moires antiques, and other rich materials, as also fringes headed by a crepe dentelle.

Black velvet is always used en negligé, whilst colours are reserved for dress; these are trimmed with lace; the point à l'aiguille is much worn, with the colour orielle d'ours as well as deep blue. Furs are also fashionable for trimming dresses at this moment, of pink and white satin, whilst mantelets and sorties are lined throughout with ermine, which always preserves its pre-eminence for soirées; sable is fashionable for pelisses and muffs; they are worn a little larger than last year.

Satin capotes are much used for morning wear; many are covered with tulle bouillonnée; colored blondes matching the bonnets are also fashionable; plain velvets are lined with a different colour, and feathers to correspond. Ribbon and figured velours epinglé are used to ornament the interior of bonnets.

Flowers will be universally worn this season; various new coiffures are introduced; some of the prettiest are the wreaths Luisa, formed of marine flowers and coral; the Norma of feuillage and gold; the Vierge, a wreath of white rose buds, or a very narrow

cordon on the forehead, and pendant flexible flowers at the sides, sparkling with precious stones.

Caps are worn very small, showing the hair as much as possible, with profusion of flowers; with lappets, on the contrary, the ornaments should be light and simple. Caps are worn without brides, with double and triple rows of lace trimmed with gauze ribbon, the ends falling low. Blonde is again used, and whether of lappets or deep lace of gold or silver, charming coiffures are made of it, sometimes intermixed with velvet.

### Memoranda of Men and Things.

#### DEATH OF CAPTAIN CHANDLE, 17TH LANCERS.

This distinguished officer died at the head quarters of the corps at Dundalk, on the 29th December. He first entered the service as a private soldier. In 1811 he was presented with an ensigncy in the Infantry, from which he subsequently exchanged into the Cavalry. In 1842 he was gazetted to a lieutenantancy, and late in the same year to a captaincy. His commissions were purchased by hard service alone. He served during the campaign of 1790, in Holland, including the actions of the 2nd and 6th of October. He also took part in the siege of Malta, and was present at the surrender of La Valetta and the battle of Maida. In 1807 he accompanied the expedition to Egypt. In 1809 he served in the Ionian Islands, and witnessed the siege and capture of Santa Maria. He was wounded before Rosetta in 1807. Captain Chandle, in 1828, was appointed Paymaster of the 17th Lancers, of which it will be remembered, his Royal Highness Prince George of Cambridge is Colonel.

#### DEATH OF COMMODORE PRING.

The *Jamaica Despatch* announces the death of Commodore Pring, which melancholy event took place on Sunday night. The disease to which this gallant and much respected officer fell a victim was the yellow fever. Commodore Pring entered the naval service at an early age. In 1807 he received his lieutenant's commission, and on the breaking out of the American war he was in command of his Majesty's schooner *Paz*, on the Halifax station. When Sir G. Prevost required naval officers to take charge of the provincial navy on the lakes, Lieutenant Pring was selected among others by Sir J. B. Warren for those duties. In 1813 he was promoted to the rank of Commander, and in the following year he was removed by Commodore Sir J. L. Yeo from Lake Ontario, to serve with Captain Downie on Lake Champlain. Here he was appointed to the command of the *Linnet*, a brig of 17 guns, and about 100 men. In this brig, under the command of Captain Downie, in the *Confiance*, and in company with two 10-gun sloops and a flotilla of gun-boats, Captain Pring took part in the celebrated battle of Plattsburg-bay, in which engagement, disastrous as it was to the British arms, he signally distinguished himself. During the greatest part of the contest the *Linnet* was engaged with the *Eagle*, an American brig of much superior force, mounting 20 heavy guns and 150 men, which vessel he completely beat out of the line. Eventually the *Linnet* was compelled to strike, but not until the other vessels of the squadron had hauled down their colors. Captain Downie, who commanded the British squadron, was killed; and Commander Pring was the senior surviving officer of the squadron at the Court-martial subsequently held at Portsmouth, at which he was most honorably acquitted. For his services he was, in 1815, promoted to the rank of Post Captain; and early in the present year he hoisted his broad pendant as a Commodore of the second class on board her Majesty's ship *Imaum*, at Port Royal.

#### DEATH OF ISAAC BURKE BETHEL, ESQ.

This gentleman, who was well known to the citizens of Dublin for nearly half a century from his eccentricities at the bar, was found dead on Monday evening in his drawing-room in Duke-street.

#### DEATH OF MAJOR FRASER, GOVERNOR OF FORT GEORGE.

An Inverness paper records the death of this respected officer and estimable country gentleman. His amiability of disposition, hospitality, and kindness during a period of 36 years in connection with the above garrison, will long be remembered, and his memory cherished by a wide and general acquaintance. In him the poor have lost a generous friend.

#### DEATH OF JOHN JOSEPH GURNEY.

This eminent banker, who has been so long before the world in the character of a philanthropist, died at Norwich, on Monday last. During the very sharp weather Mr. Gurney attended the meeting of the District Visiting Society for the purpose of providing for the great distress the poor of Norwich were experiencing, and on returning home his pony slipped and fell with him on passing over Orford-hill. Mr. Gurney was thrown over the pony's head on to the ground. He was quickly picked up, and in a short time, considering that no serious injury had been sustained, he rode home on the same pony. We regret to add that other symptoms followed, and a special telegraphic dispatch was sent to London at six o'clock on Monday morning last, and before ten a physician from London was in attendance; Mr. Gurney, however, we regret to add, died the same night, about ten o'clock, aged 59. Norwich is generally in mourning; all the shops in the marketplace and those in most other parts of the city are closed, so universally and highly was the deceased respected.

#### THE LATE MR. ROBERT PLUMER WARD.

Among the numerous articles of interest left by the deceased, as heirlooms with the family estates, there are the following:—The pole of the Royal standard of Scotland, taken at the battle of Musselburg, *tempore* Edward VI., by the hand of Sir Ralph Sedler, his predecessor in the Standon estate; the standard of his father-in-law, General Sir George Anson's regiment, 23rd Light Dragoons, bearing "Peninsula, Talavera, Salamanca, and Waterloo," and other banners; the helmet, crest, and coat-of-arms of Sir John Gore, his predecessor in the Gilston estate; many original paintings, family portraits, and of the nobility and their ancestors, busts, and engravings; the service of plate with the arms of the Plumer family; and the plate at Gilston Park; several pedigrees, certified by Sir G. Naylor, Garter, connected with the family, and the pedigree of the Plumer Wards, from Charlemagne; an intended letter written by Mr. Pitt on his death-bed, a few hours before he expired, and when his mind was wandering—although Mr. Pitt had torn the paper, he gave it to Sir Walter Farquhar, desiring he would give it to the testator, Mr. Ward, then Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. All his printed books not specifically disposed of he leaves to his three grandsons:—Charles, Swinburne, and Evelyn, the sons of his son Henry George Ward, and leaves all his other furniture, books, busts, pictures, plate, &c. in his several houses in Upper Brook-street, Chesterfield-street, London, and O'Reover Hall, Staffordshire, his carriages, &c. to his relict, who is his sole executrix. He has left liberal legacies and provisions for his servants. All his real estates he had settled on his son, Henry G. Ward, subject to his wife's jointure.