

CHARITABLE BEQUESTS.

(Continued from page 238.)

At Frome there is a very extensive charity, the foundation of which was laid by William Leversedge somewhere about 1600. He gave about four acres of land for the support of an almshouse for twelve poor women; and his example has since been followed by others. The almshouse founded by him having become ruinous, the inhabitants of Frome in 1720 very generously subscribed £1,400 to erect new almshouses for the poor women partly provided for by William Leversedge, and also for at least seventeen others, for whose support considerable sums of money were left by Alexander Stafford, William Baily, Richard Coomb, and others. The women on the south side of the almshouse received five shillings a-week each, and the value of another shilling in bread and meat. They also received medical attendance, and a blue gown once in two years. The women on the north side were not so well off.

It gives us peculiar pleasure to quote charities of this kind—of which there are hundreds we have not space to mention—from the strong feeling we entertain that no better way of disposing of money could be adopted than for providing homes for aged and helpless people to rest in after a life of labour and toil, who would otherwise be forced to wear out the remainder of their days in a workhouse, amidst the idle and the profligate—a cruel necessity, which it is a shame and a sin to our legislators that they should suffer to continue, when it would be so easy to provide for the separation of the aged; and also for enabling old men and their wives to spend the few last years of their life in each other's society, after having shared good and evil together for so long a period.

Quitting the subject of almshouses, we will, without leaving Frome, say something of a magnificent charity founded by Richard Stevens, of that town. In a codicil to his will, dated 20th December, 1790, after reciting that there was no charity-school for the education, or asylum for the maintenance, of poor female children in Frome, he bequeathed to the Lord Bishop of Bath and Wells, and others, in trust, £12,000 Four per Cent. Bank Annuities, to be expended in building and furnishing an asylum capable of accommodating at least forty poor girls, and in providing for their maintenance and education; and also capable of lodging "a matron or governess, and a sufficient number of servants, to conduct, manage, superintend, direct, take care of, wait upon, and attend such poor female children." The cost of building or adapting the asylum, from some house already erected, and furnishing it, was not to exceed £2,000; so that £10,000 should remain undiminished for the support of the children and servants. The election of the children and the appointment of a matron, who was to be a single woman or a widow, devolved on the trustees, who were also empowered to make any alterations in the government, from time to time, which might be found necessary. The children elected were to be between seven and ten years of age, and were to be fed, clothed, and educated until they reached the age of fourteen, or longer, if the trustees thought proper. On leaving the asylum, they were either to be apprenticed—in which case, a fee of £5 was to be paid to the person taking them—or they were to be placed as servants in gentlemen's or tradesmen's families, £2 being given to them to purchase clothes on the occasion. He further directed that, in the event of the income being more than was required for the current expenses of the asylum, the overplus should be invested in the purchase of stock, and be available for supporting a greater number of children than he had specified.

Two years later he added another codicil to his will, bequeathing "the principal sum of £7,000 Four per Cent. Bank Annuities, upon trust, that they should lay out and expend a sum not exceeding £1,000 of the principal sum of £7,000 trust stock, in the purchase of an estate of inheritance, in fee simple, of and in one or more messuages adjoining each other, to be situated within the said parish of Frome, extensive enough and capable of being converted into an hospital for the habitation, lodging, and accommodation of twenty poor aged men, born in the said parish, who from age or bodily infirmities might be incapable of following any trade, calling, business, or employment, to maintain and provide for themselves." The asylum for these poor aged men and the children form one building. The testator died in 1797, and a few months afterwards the trustees bought a suitable piece of ground, and the building was begun, and was not finished until 1803. Its entire cost was about £6,500, which

was defrayed out of the dividends accruing between the death of the testator and the completion of the building, without touching the principal sums of £12,000 and £7,000. The income arising from these sums is insufficient to support the number of girls and old men specified by the testator; but those admitted are well cared for, and the charity has been exceedingly well managed.

In 1655 Alicia, Duchess Dudley, appointed £100 to be paid yearly to the East India Company, or any other company, for the redemption of English Christian slaves from the Turks. It so happens that the Turks cannot hold Englishmen as slaves, nor have they done so for more than a century, consequently the money was not required for that purpose, and it was therefore disposed of, according to the directions of the donor, in paying £15 a-year to the clergyman at Bidford, a like sum to the minister at Blakesley, and £70 to certain charities specified in her will; but inasmuch as the estates held in trust for the support of this charity yielded £422 per annum, the commissioners found that £17,000 had accumulated for want of claims. Proceedings were taken in Chancery, and it was decreed that the money should be applied to other charitable purposes, a provision being made for the payment of the £100 if occasion should arise.

A munificent provision was made by Sir William Harpur for furnishing marriage portions to poor maids—of good fame and reputation—of the town of Bedford. He directed that £800 a-year should be paid out of his estates in Helborn, to be bestowed—for the above-mentioned purpose—on forty poor maids, in equal shares. The amount was to be distributed by lot four times a-year; the maidens drawing the beneficial lot to receive £20 on their respective wedding days, provided the event took place within two months afterwards; and that the husband was not a vagrant, or a person of bad name and reputation. It does not appear to be of much importance whether a maiden is successful or not in drawing lots, for by a certain rule it is provided that those who should have been permitted to draw lots, and had been unsuccessful, should, at the next meeting of the trustees, be entitled, if then married, to the like sum of £20 in preference to any other poor maidens who should then be candidates. All poor maidens of good fame and reputation of the town of Bedford were eligible as candidates, provided they were not younger than sixteen, nor older than fifty. Evidently Bedford is the place for a poor man to seek a wife in.

(To be continued.)

ITALY AND THE ITALIANS.

No country in Europe presents more interesting features, to the historian, the philosopher, the statesman, and the poet, than Italy. The short, but brilliant, campaign of last year—the subsequent negotiations for a final settlement of the Italian question—the critical position of affairs at the present time—all contribute to impart an occasional interest to Italy and the Italians. The question as it now agitates the public mind, and occupies the attention of our Senate, bears chiefly on the proposed annexation of Savoy to France. The result of the war is such as to render the re-adjustment of Italian affairs absolutely necessary. Venetia is still held by Austria—Naples retains its old government—the ducal sovereigns of Central Italy have been put to flight—the temporal authority of the Roman See is shaken—Victor Emmanuel hesitates to accept the homage of his voluntary subjects—Savoy, part of his dominion, is sought to be regarded as a natural frontier to the French empire, and the end of the contest is still involved in obscurity. Many states are interested in the solution of this hard problem—this Gordian knot, which the sword has not completely severed. Sardinia, Piedmont, Savoy, Tuscany, Parma, Modena, Rome, Naples, Venetia, are all alike concerned—for of these Italian states modern Italy is composed.

Who are the English? who are the French? are questions easily enough answered; but who are the Italians? requires a longer and more complicated reply. The interesting group, for instance, represented in the accompanying engraving, is a little company of Italians, each individual identified with a separate state, several of them with a separate form of government, all of them with national characteristics distinguishing them from one another. How comes it that the Italians are so broken into different states—parcelled out under different rulers—marked by different customs and manners? The answer takes us back to a distant period of history,

from which we must trace the origin of the condition of modern Italy.

On the fall of the Roman Empire the ancient glory of Italy departed. The Goths—eastern and western—having triumphed over the vaunted invincibility of Roman prowess, established their own authority on the ruins of the fallen empire. But the patriotism of the Italians was aroused some years later, and the kingdom of Italy was wrested from the Gothic princes. The Lombards aided the Italians in their struggle, and from being their allies soon became their masters. To resist the aggressions of the Lombards, the Franks were invited to render assistance, and so Charlemagne triumphed, and Italy was again prostrate under a new ruler. On the death of Charlemagne his empire was divided amongst his sons, and Italy fell into the hands of a German prince. Otho the Great, Emperor of Germany, became the nominal ruler of Italy. Disputes between the Pope and the Emperor afforded opportunity for the Lombard nobles, by adhering sometimes to one cause and sometimes to another, ultimately to assume a virtual independence, and by a treaty signed at Constance, 1183, this independence was acknowledged by the Emperor on condition of a small annual payment. The Italian cities assumed a republican form of government; Milan, Florence, Venice, Genoa, Pisa, became the capitals of so many free states, distinguished for all that could add to the comfort or embellishment of society. But at the same time that these republics gave impulse to civilisation, and refinement to the revival of learning and the cultivation of the arts, animosities of the deadliest kind were fostered by the rival states; from a contest of arts they betook themselves to arms, and prosecuted their hostilities with all the eagerness of a personal and the rancour of a political quarrel. Foreign mercenaries were engaged on all sides; and the soil of Italy was trampled by German, French, and Spanish troops. The governments which these troops represented soon turned their arms against those whom they had come to assist, and the Italians saw, too late, that—to employ an oriental proverb—"they had called in lions to drive out dogs." Since the subversion of the old republics (1530), the Italians have ceased to exercise any real power in the government of their country. Parcelled out amongst foreign rulers or their descendants, they have been deprived of their ancient liberties; and divided amongst themselves, "the victim by turns of selfish and sanguinary factions, of petty tyrants, and of foreign invaders, Italy has sunk like a star from its place in heaven." But although Italy has thus, for so long a period, been the unfortunate victim of adverse circumstances, the spirit of liberty still survives, and warrants the belief that a bright future awaits her.

In turning our attention to the division of modern Italy, we may notice first, as the most considerable in extent, the kingdom of Naples and Sicily. Naples occupies an area of 31,160 square miles; Sicily, 12,900 square miles; and the population—including both divisions—is estimated at about 10,000,000. They are poor, ignorant, and indolent—careless how they live, and having no encouragement to induce them to labour. Although during the last few years both agriculture and manufactures have slightly advanced—there is still much indolence and apathy among the bulk of the people. The government is an absolute monarchy, and absolutism was never carried further than by the late King Ferdinand. With a complicated system of espionage extended over his dominions, unscrupulous officials to obey his commands, his kingdom became one vast prison and his subjects slaves. The political condition of the country is but little improved under his successor; and notwithstanding the most strenuous efforts to subdue all tendency to join in the Italian struggle, the people have manifested the same spirit which has been aroused in other Italian States.

Next in extent to Naples is the kingdom of Sardinia, and it is scarcely possible to imagine a stronger contrast than is presented by these states. Previous to 1848, the King of Sardinia was absolute; but Sardinia then became one of the few constitutional monarchies of Europe. There is a commons house elected by the people, and a senate chosen by the king. Agriculture flourishes throughout the kingdom, and few countries enjoy so large a disposable produce. The chief articles of export consist of silk, oil, woollens, &c. Trade and manufactures are encouraged, and a very enlightened spirit has been exhibited in the educational progress of the people. The island from which the kingdom derives its name is, next to Sicily, which it nearly equals in size, the largest in the Mediter-



THE PEOPLE OF THE ITALIAN STATES.

Savoy. Calabria. Turin. Piedmontese Cavalry. Venice. Sardinia. Rome. Florence.
Naples. Como.

ranean. Savoy, subsequently joined to Piedmont, however, was the nucleus of the Sardinian monarchy. Long famous for its heroic counts and valiant people, it was first recognised as a kingdom in 1713; Sicily was then added to it, but afterwards exchanged for Sardinia. Genoa, Monaco, &c., were added in 1815, and by the recent treaty with Austria, Lombardy is now also added to the kingdom. Even as an absolute monarchy, Sardinia was remarkable for the liberality of its rulers and the prosperity of its people. Since the accession of the reigning king, very great improvements have been introduced in every department of government.

The extent of the kingdom of Sardinia—including its recent annexation—is about 38,000 square miles, and its population may be estimated at 3,000,000.

Austrian Italy is the next important division—shorn, however, of some of its importance by the loss of Lombardy. The plains of Lombardy are remarkable for their fertility; the climate is splendid; the industry of the people keeps pace with the advantages which they enjoy. Lombardy is now discovered from Austrian Italy, whilst the province of Venetia, which remains to her, has lost much of its old importance. The land is marshy and impracticable, and the City of the Sea is no longer Queen of the Adriatic. The fiscal and judicial arrangements of the Austrians have mainly contributed to the present wretched condition of the place and people. Ever since Venice came into the possession of the Austrians, everything has been done to encourage trade in Trieste in preference to Venice; things, indeed, have been in some degree improved since Venice—like Trieste—has been made a free port; but the ascendancy is still in favour of the latter. The government of Venice is vested in a viceroy—who appoints to all

offices and decides on all questions. The population is estimated at 5,000,000, and the extent of country at 18,063 square miles.

Next in importance are the Papal States—the settlement of which is found at present so difficult a task. They extend over an area of 17,860 square miles, and the population is about 3,124,663. Nowhere in Italy is the condition of the people more deplorable than in the Roman States. The Pope is the supreme ruler, assisted by the College of Cardinals. Weakened as the temporal authority of the Pope has been since the Revolution of 1848, he maintains his throne only by the help of the army of occupation under General Guyon; and the withdrawal of the French troops would, in all probability, be the ending of his priestly power.

It only remains for us to notice the Duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Modena.

Tuscany has a population of 1,817,400, and occupies an area of 9,120 square miles. Its government under its late ruler was an absolute monarchy. Agriculture is conducted after a very primitive fashion, and the peasantry are poor and ignorant. Sufficient wheat is not grown for home consumption, and the ordinary food of the poorer classes is a bread made of beans. Meat to them is a luxury almost unknown. Parma, like Tuscany, was an absolute monarchy. It occupies an area of 25,000 square miles, and its population may be estimated at 500,000. Modena was also an absolute monarchy, with an area of 2,317 miles, and a population estimated at about 6,000. Agriculture and manufactures in both States are conducted on a very limited scale, and the condition of the great majority of the people is deplorable. The outbursts of the recent Italian campaign drove the Princes of the Ducal houses into exile, and there seems little disposition on the part of their

subjects to receive them back. It is to the credit of these Italians, however, that the revolution they have effected, and the provisional government which they have established, have been accomplished without bloodshed. No act of popular fury—except the affair at Parma—has stained their exertions in the cause of their own and of Italy's independence. Happy had it been for Italy had the same unanimity always marked the conduct of her children, as that which distinguishes them now. It is the dissensions which have occurred amongst themselves, which have made them an easy prey to foreign invasions; and it is only by united efforts that they can hope to render the future of Italy more glorious than the past.

The illustration which accompanies this article is admirably true to nature. Those who have enjoyed the privilege of Italian travel will easily recognise the character and costume of the different States which stretch from the Alps to the Adriatic. Here is one of those flower girls—inseparably associated with memories of Florence, that city of palaces and pictures; here is one of those street vendors that one sees everywhere in Rome at any time of public rejoicing—such as the Carnival—selling his wares, whatever they may be, brocoli, flowers, cigars, sugar-plums, or wax candles. Here, also, is an inhabitant of the Island of Sardinia—a rapidly-improving class, about whose savage and uncouth nature strange stories used to be told, but which have no reference to the present. Here, also, is one of those female water-carriers of Venice, who form so conspicuous a feature in every street of Venice—water in that city, which is built upon the water, being carried about and sold as a rare commodity. Before this figure sits one of those graceful-looking women—graceful even in their poverty—whom one

sees on the shores of Como or about the fishing boats on the lake. Close by is a Neapolitan female, a woman of Sora—the old town immortalised by Juvenal—but an excellent representative of the ordinary appearances of the peasant women of Naples. The brigand-looking personage next to her is a Calabrian, and reminds one strongly of those dark-visaged, steeple-hatted fellows, with pistols and musket, who, in the solitudes of the mountains, carry on a trade of plunder. The remaining figures are all of them subjects of Victor Emmanuel. Here is a woman of Savoy, a citizen of Turin, and one of the Piedmontese cavalry—one of the heroes of the late campaign. Thus brought together in one group, we have the representatives of the various States of Italy—people subject to different laws, ruled by different sovereigns, but holding one common language, and tracing their descent from that heroic race which of old subdued the world.

The Amateur Gardener.

BY GEORGE GLENNY.

A PLEASANT sunshiny day in March sets everybody who has a bit of ground gardening, and rough as the weather frequently is in some parts of the month, it is an important period among industrious cultivators. They say "March winds and April showers bring forth May flowers;" but while we admit the active agency of April, we doubt very much whether the winds of March do anything but keep things in check—nevertheless, it is a great month.

In most cases the garden has been neglected during the winter; but if there have been any crocuses, snowdrops, tulips, hyacinths, or other bulbs left or planted in the ground, they now assert their right to appear, and many are in bloom. In such case the ground should be forked very carefully between all the plants, without going near enough to damage the roots; and then we have to consider how we can best fill up the vacancies, always keeping in mind that room should be left for a few geraniums, calceolarias, stocks, and verbenas, to be planted out in May. Our next move is to sow a few favourite annuals: *Nemophila* (bright blue), *erysimum* (golden yellow), larkspurs (all colours), *coreopsis* (orange and brown), candy tuft (red, purple, and white); sweet pea to climb, and *mignonette* for its fragrance. These are all very hardy; may be sown half a dozen, or say a dozen, in a patch of six or eight inches; but when they are well up, they may be all reduced to the best six plants, except the peas, which may be eight or ten. Cover them all with a very little earth.

Whatever hardy things you can obtain in pots may be put into the ground. Wallflowers, sweet-williams, Canterbury bells, and such like, may be turned out with the ball of earth whole; but it is better to transplant them in autumn, because they get established by the spring, and bloom stronger. However, we have only begun, as it were, with the year; and having lost the opportunity of advising in time, we must do the best we can to repair the omission.

Let neatness and cleanliness in the paths and borders be well attended to, for however well things may be grown, their appearance is spoiled if there be anything rough, dirty, or confused. The edgings should be well made, and planted with something; but if there be none we must make some, and the most rapidly formed edge by seed would be *lupinus nanus*, sown in a narrow drill, or Virginian stock; but we should prefer planting daisies, which bloom all the summer through. The gravel paths should be turned—that is, picked up all over, raked smooth, and rolled. Where there is a bit of lawn, it should be mowed close. If the lawn is a good size, it should be mown with one of the patent machines, because it is then left all of one length, and almost like velvet.

If you have hotbeds, you should sow asters, everlasting flowers, stocks, marigolds, &c., in pans; and looking to the immense advantage in stowing close, the square ones are the best by far. When these seeds come up, and have gained strength enough to move, prick them out an inch apart in other pans, and gradually inure them to the colder atmosphere, giving plenty of air and light. In May they can be turned out, and transplanted to the borders—three in a patch, six inches apart, triangular fashion. If no hotbed, sow next month.

In the kitchen garden a few of everything may be sown. It is far better for a small family to have two or three different sowings, than it is to sow in great quantity once, cabbage, turnip, onion, carrot,

beet root, parsnips, pot herbs, brocoli. Repeat also sowings of beans and peas; stick the peas already up, after drawing earth to the roots. Leeks are always worth growing, if they are at all prized in the family; and radishes may be sown every three weeks, if a regular supply is at all valued.

GRAFTING.

Those who wish to try their hand at grafting, should begin now. The art of this consists in cutting two pieces of wood very clean, so that they may fit close, tying them into their places, and covering the joint with a lump of well-kneaded clay—that is, clay which has been so knocked about and pounded together that all the air is beaten out of it. Grafting is intended to make a bit of wood from a valuable tree grow on a common, wild, or worthless stock; and there are so many ways of doing this, that we must follow up the subject in our next.

We have always said that anybody who could mend a stick by cutting each piece sloping, to fit well, would graft; but we must show how it is to be done when the wood of the stock is as thick as a walking-stick, and the graft or scion to put in is only as large as a tobacco pipe.

We shall find the reader plenty to do now for some months to come, for every week will bring its work in-doors and out.

Oddities.



MOTHER DOLLY.

PATERNOSTER-RROW is the head-quarters of the booksellers, and furnishes an illustration of the wise man's assertion, "Of making many books there is no end." Close to Paternoster-row is Newgate Market—the dead meat market of London; head-quarters of the butchers—so that food for the mind and food for the body are sent out from the same locality. Running from Paternoster-row to Newgate-street there is a court called Queen's-head-passage; and there, a hundred years ago, many were the disturbances which occurred, and which gave to the locality a bad repute. There was a tavern in the court; and the frequenters of this house of public entertainment were none of the quietest, being more addicted to the ways and manners of the inmates of Newgate than to those of the intelligent booksellers in the Row. Mine host could not make his fortune—Father Nicholas they called him, and Old Nick, for short—for his patrons drank his liquor, but never settled their score. So one morning the door was shut, and the drinkers found that the tavern-keeper had done with them for ever.

Some weeks after this event, a thrifty, buxom, enterprising widow, ventured to re-open the hostel; and, with the help of her pretty daughter, managed to change the character of the house. The old tipplers received no encouragement, and got no credit; people disposed to drink freely found the widow unwilling to supply them; and the liquors she sold were not the fiery adulterations retailed by Nicholas, but stuff as good as intoxicating liquor can be. So the news spread over the neighbourhood that Mother Dolly—so they called mine hostess—had thoroughly reformed the old house. Once rid of its bad name and reputation, a new class of customers patronised the establishment. Things went well; and Mother Dolly prospered. Everything was of the best; the table furniture bright and sparkling; the table linen white as snow; the servants—and the widow's daughter most particularly—all that could be desired; and foremost amongst all its dainties were its chops—famous chops, of enduring reputation for a

long, long period. Ah me! sure the good old-fashioned chop-houses have died out of late—restaurants, &c. &c., with gilt mouldings and plate glass, have taken their places; but these are not to be compared with the old-fashioned houses. For a long period Dolly's Chophouse has retained its good character—the name of its old hostess still associated with it—and the moral patent to all, that industry, civility, and honesty, are sure to succeed. And then, being sure to succeed, why should not some enterprising spirit do something or other in the good old way, for that legion who "dine in town?" There is ample opportunity; a little capital would be well invested—a little energy well rewarded. Why does not somebody try?

FORKS.

Forks came into England for the first time in the reign of James I.: prior to that period, people used their fingers, as Oriental nations do to this day. There is an allusion to this fact in an old book entitled "Coryat's Crudities, hastily gobbled up in Five Months' Travells in France, Savoy, Italy, Rhetia (commonly called the Grisons country), Helvetia (Switzerland), some parts of High Germany, and the Netherlands." The author of this book describes a custom among the Italians, "not used in any other country." He says: "The Italians, and also most strangers in Italy, do always at their meals use a *little fork* when they cut their meats; for while with their knife, which they hold in one hand, they cut the meats out of the dish, they fasten their fork, which they hold in the other hand, upon the same dish. * * * This form of feeding is, I understand, generally used in all places in Italy, their forks being for the most part of iron or steel, and some of silver, but these are used only by gentlemen. The reason of this their curiosity is, because the Italian cannot by any means endure to have his dish touched with fingers." Ridicule directed its shafts against forks when they were first brought into England. Beaumont and Fletcher cast their jokes at the "fork-carving traveller," and Ben Jonson makes one of his characters allude to "the laudable use of forks, brought into custom here as they are in Italy, to the sparing of napkins." But, notwithstanding all the merry humour of the "funny men" of that age, forks triumphed.

Facts and Scraps.

USEFUL HINTS.—If a limb or other part of the body is severely cut, and the blood comes out by spirits or jerks, be in a hurry, or the man will be dead in five minutes. There is no time to talk or send for a physician; say nothing, out with your handkerchief, throw it around the limb, tie the two ends together, put a stick through them, twist it around tighter and tighter until the blood ceases to flow. But to stop it does no good. Why? Because only a severed artery throws blood out in jets, and the arteries get their blood from the heart; hence, to stop the flow, the remedy must be applied between the heart and the wounded spot—in other words, above the wound. If a vein had been severed, the blood would have flowed in a regular stream; and, on the other hand, the tie should be applied below the wound, or on the other side of the wound from the heart, because the blood in the veins flows towards the heart, and there is no need of so great a hurry.

HOW MUCH DO WE WORK?—Who ever thought of making such a calculation? Nobody, till an industrious Frenchman recently took up the subject; and he has set down and made an accurate estimate of the part of our several lives employed about actual labour. He takes his subject at the age of seventy-two. Allowing eight hours on an average for sleep, that deducts at once twenty-four years. For dressing and undressing, on rising and going to bed, washing and shaving, &c., half an hour daily, makes one and a half years. Then two hours daily for meals count up six years. Love-making, according to his calculation, will average one hour daily, or three years. For society, idling, and amusement, three hours more, up to nine years. Finally, the ordinary maladies of childhood, the accidents and diseases of mature age, and like causes, will deduct two hours on an average, making six years. So that, in conclusion, one hale, hearty man of seventy-two years, has, in fact, not been able to employ in the positive occupations of industry more than twenty-two and a half years!

HOW TO BREAK A BAD HABIT.—Understand clearly the reasons, and all the reasons, why the habit is injurious. Study the subject till there is no lingering doubt in your mind. Avoid the places,