

We Proceed North 1842

*Travels in Ireland*

J. G. Kohl.

Translated from The German

“ Through Erin’s Isle  
To sport awhile.”

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1844

THOSE who have been little at sea are always more anxious than they need be in an uproar of the elements. This was the case with my solitary fellow-passenger and myself, during the storm which assailed us on board her Majesty’s mail-packet, whilst on her voyage from Anglesea to Dublin, on the night of the 22d September, 1842. Throughout the entire night we were expecting to hear our sailors call, as in Shakspeare, “ All lost ! to prayers, to prayers I all lost !” But on awaking, towards morning, from a very restless and by no means pleasant slumber, which, in spite of sea-sickness, had stolen upon us, we perceived that the engine of our steamer was at rest, and that we were lying quietly at anchor in Kingstown harbour, on the coast of Ireland ; a coast at which no one arrives in a more agreeable manner than that in which King Alonzo arrived at his enchanted island. For this Erin, this Isle of Saints, this Holy Isle, this Emerald Isle, as it is styled alike in the most ancient and modern times : this isle of fairies and witches—this isle of misery and quarrels, as it might be called at the present day—this land, infinitely rich in peculiarities unknown in the rest of Europe, may be fairly called, like Prospero’s, an isle of wonders.

#### Section II— The Poor-House.

IRISH CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS—POOR-LAWS IN IRELAND—THE HOUSE-TAX—  
WORKHOUSE SYSTEM—AVERSION TO RESIDE IN THE WORK-HOUSES— DISCIPLINE  
IN THEM—DIET OF THE PAUPERS—COST FOR EACH INDIVIDUAL — THE POTATO  
BOILER—EMPLOYMENT OF THE BEGGARS—CLOTHES STORE— DESIRE OF FREE-  
DOM—DUBLIN THE RENDEZVOUS OF THE IRISH BEGGARS—HOPES FOR THE SUP-  
PRESSION OF BEGGING.

Every one knows that it had long been the wish of parliament to introduce the English poor-laws into Ireland ; and this, after long debating, has at length been actually done within the last few years. All Ireland is now subjected to a poor-tax ; and with the money thus levied, and with some considerable parliamentary grants, poor-houses and workhouses have been erected all over the country. The number of workhouses to be erected in the island is one hundred and fifty, one hundred of which are already completed. When the remaining fifty are finished, and the whole are opened and in operation, it is in contemplation to follow up the “ Poor Relief Act” with a “ Vagrancy and Mendicancy Act.” Hitherto it has been impossible to prevent mendicancy in Ireland, as in England, by legislative measures, because until now there were very few asylums for the poor supported by the state. I was told that in all Ireland there were only six. Institutions for similar purposes, founded and supported by voluntary contributions, were, however, and still are, extremely numerous. In Dublin there

are, for all possible purposes—for teachers, strangers, musicians, orphans, widows, infants. Catholics, Protestants, servants, and other classes—upwards of fifty various institutions, asylums, retreats, poor-houses, and schools. Of all these charitable establishments in Dublin, one only, the House of Industry, was maintained by the state. It was the most extensive of the whole, and supplied lodging and food to no fewer than two thousand paupers, beggars, invalids, orphans, the old, the decrepit, and the insane. This was the only institution of the kind which I visited in Dublin.

Since the introduction of the English poor-laws, Ireland has been divided, like England, into districts, called “Unions.” Each house in such a union is now valued at a certain annual rent, which value is rated at two or more per cent., and the money thus raised is expended in the maintenance of the union workhouse. The city of Dublin and its environs are divided into two unions, the North Union and the South Union. All the houses in the former are estimated at the yearly value of £394,000, and in the latter at £561,000. The annual value of all the houses in Dublin is about one million sterling. The poor-rate levied on the North Union amounts to somewhat more than £8000 ; in the South Union it is somewhat less than £12,000. The workhouse of the North Union is now the above-mentioned House of Industry, which has been newly fitted up for that purpose. That of the South Union I regret I did not see. The rated houses are all entered in a “rate-book” with the amount of the rents at which they are valued. What struck me most in this rate-book was the minimum valuation at which houses were rated. There were not a few whose yearly value was estimated at one pound only. The lowest I could find was fifteen shillings a year. Even these houses, which one can scarcely imagine miserable enough, were taxed, and the one-pound house had to pay fivepence yearly. It seemed to me that the proprietor of such a habitation might himself be justly numbered among the poor ; and that a certain limit of taxation should have been adopted, and these wretched hovels exempted from the poor-tax. In Ireland there are hovels which set all valuation at defiance. It is here different from what it is in England. How high ought the rent of that house to be estimated which affords its owner the shelter only of a mud wall and a tattered roof of straw ?

The control of all these workhouses in England and Ireland is in the hands of three poor-law commissioners, who reside in London, and have their assistant commissioners, who reside in the interior of the country. Each of these assistant commissioners has his district, containing a number of unions, which he is constantly inspecting, and on the condition of which he reports to the chief commissioners. These reports are printed. The chief commissioners also issue annual reports on the state of the entire system of poor relief in Ireland. One of them, Mr. George Nicholls, previous to the adoption of the poor-laws in Ireland, had also made various reports on the advantages to be derived from their introduction into that country. These various reports together form a little library, which he who wishes to know Great Britain should not leave unstudied, for they are full of the most excellent remarks, and the most interesting, inquiries concerning the country, and the condition of the people.

The guiding principle of the workhouse system, in the opinion of Mr. Nicholls, ought to be, that the support which is afforded at the public cost should be, on the whole, less desirable than the livelihood which the labourer can procure by his own free labour. To carry out this principle, it might appear necessary, at the first glance, that the occupants of a work-house should in every respect be worse clothed, worse fed, and worse lodged than the independent labourers of the district. In point of fact, however, the inmates of English work-houses are generally better off than the agricultural labourer and his family ; and yet the irk-someness and annoyance of compulsory labour, the discipline, the confinement, and the pro-hibition of

sundry pleasures which are within the reach of the independent self-supporting labourer, create such a dislike against entering a workhouse, that experience warrants our feeling confident that no one who is not altogether without means, and in the most pressing distress, will seek support in a workhouse ; that every one who is compelled to enter it through distress will be sure to leave it as quickly as possible, whenever he believes himself in a condition again to earn his own livelihood ; and that he will afterwards exert himself, with increased energy and greater success, to maintain his own independence.

In Ireland, it would be scarcely possible to make the lodging, clothes, and food of the poor in the workhouses worse than those of the Irish peasants ; and even were it possible, it would be quite unnecessary, ineffective, and inadvisable. The Irish are thoroughly, by nature as well as by habit, a migratory people, and fond of change. The Irishman would rather wander through the entire world seeking employment, than endure the discipline of a workhouse, so long as he is in possession of his health and strength. Imprisonment, and confinement of every kind, is to the Irishman more irksome than to the Englishman. Consequently, even though he were much better off in a workhouse than he could be at home, he would never enter one except in case of the most extreme distress ; and he will be sure to remain in it not a single moment longer than this distress continues. In the Irish workhouses, therefore, the opposite principle may perhaps be followed,—namely, to give the people something better than they can procure outside, in order thus to hold out some inducement to them to relinquish their free, wild, wandering misery, which they bear about the world with them, to submit themselves to order and discipline, and to partake of the enjoyment of a better, more seemly, and more human condition. For thus would be best attained the true object of workhouses, which is not merely to pave the way for the introduction of a vagrancy-act, and to get rid of beggars, but also to mitigate the sufferings and better the condition of those who have been reduced to misery by imprudence, misfortune, or ignorance and prejudice. Whether this last object is kept steadily in view in the management of the Irish poor, I have some doubt, since, on the contrary, slight traces of a system of terror are connected with the erection of workhouses in this country. The discipline especially, in these as well as in English workhouses, appeared to me to be very severe and rough, and but little softened down by kind attention or indulgence. In general, the “governors,” as they are termed, bore little resemblance to the “guardians” or “fathers” of the poor, (*Armenpflegern und Armenvätern*) as we justly designate similar officials in Germany. These governors are invested with great power over the poor, upon whom they can inflict severe punishments. All this is a part of the object of these workhouses. They are not intended simply as asylums for the poor, but also houses of correction, in which they may learn to put a still higher value on their golden freedom, accustom themselves to labour, and learn to live without having recourse to begging.

The food and clothing in the Irish workhouses is at all events better than the poor could have out of them ; for of course they are not here allowed to be half-naked, and half-starved, the usual condition of the Irish pauper, but are supplied with whole and sufficient clothing, and proportionably good diet. The latter consists principally of the general food of all the Irish,—potatoes, oatmeal, and milk, particularly buttermilk. Certain classes only, as the sick and the children, receive bread. Public institutions, and their diet and government, are very interesting to the ethnographer, since they afford him a convenient insight into the manner of living of the bulk of the nation after which they are modelled. When, therefore, I here describe the diet of an Irish workhouse, the reader has a picture of the manner of living of the great mass of the people, at least those of them who have enough to eat.

The day's food consists of a breakfast, lunch, and dinner, lunch being given only to the children and the sick. In Ireland and England breakfast and dinner are taken at later hours than in Germany, namely, the former at nine o'clock and the latter at four. The breakfast, as is common in Ireland with those who can maintain themselves at all decently, consists of oatmeal porridge, called "stirabout," with new milk, and the dinner of potatoes and butter-milk. The children's lunch consists of bread . and new milk. In addition to this, on Sundays holidays, and appointed days, as every Thursday, they receive a small quantity of "brose" or soup. A grown-up person receives daily, for breakfast, seven ounces of oatmeal and half a pint of new milk ; and for dinner, four pounds of potatoes and a pint of buttermilk. This diet of an adult costs one shilling and fourpence three-farthings a week. That of the children costs something more, on account of the milk and bread, which is more expensive than the potatoes. Children under two years of age are the most expensive, the cost of their maintenance being one shilling and sixpence three-farthings a week, for which they receive daily one pint of new milk and one pound of bread. There is, also, a *potato-diet* for the full grown, and a *bread-diet* for the children ; besides a *rice-diet* and a *meat-diet*, for certain classes of invalids ; and, lastly, a fever-diet, for that class of patients which is always the most numerous in Irish workhouses and infirmaries—the fever patients.

The cost of clothing is calculated at a halfpenny a day, or threepence-halfpenny a week. The total cost of food and clothing for a pauper consequently amounts to about two shillings a week. If we reckon the cost of keeping up the house, the salaries of officers, and all other expenses, the maintenance of a pauper will amount to about three shillings a week, or about seven pounds ten shillings a year. It is, however, worthy of remark, that all these expenses, as appears from the various reports, are constantly on the decrease, especially in consequence of the increasing cheapness of provisions. The expenses vary, of course, a little in different workhouses ; yet the above may be taken as the average cost of the maintenance of each pauper.

The potato-boiler in this great establishment is a perfect wonder. In it there are boiled at once 1670 pounds of potatoes. This vast quantity is divided into small portions, of three and a half and four pounds. Each of these portions is contained in a little net, in which it can be easily removed, and all the nets are placed in an immense basket, which is lowered into the water and boiled, nets, potatoes, and all. It is afterwards raised by a windlass ; when all the poor people march up in military order, each receives a net with its contents, and marches off again.

In the school of this workhouse I also found the Chinese-Russian numerical frame I have formerly mentioned, which had been here introduced about a fortnight before my visit.

As in most of the public institutions in Great Britain, the chief employment of the inmates of this establishment was picking oakum—that lint which is so essential for the wounds of the English men-of-war—in a word, tow for the caulking of ships. Thousands and hundreds of thousands of hands are daily employed, in the prisons and workhouses, in untwisting old ropes' ends, and converting them into this necessary article.

One of the most interesting portions of this great establishment is the old clothes-store, containing all the various uniforms of rags which are taken from the beggars on their admission into the workhouse. Instead of their motley equipment they are given the gray uniform of the house, with N. D. U. W. H. (North Dublin Union Workhouse) stamped upon it in large letters. The old draperies of their liberty, together with hats, stockings, and shoes, having been

first fumigated, are then folded up, ticketed with the name of the owner, and deposited in the old clothes-store. The paupers, who can leave the house at any moment, (for they need only make their wish known to the governor, and in a quarter of an hour they are free,) are of course not permitted to carry off with them the workhouse dress. If the case were otherwise, many would go in and out again merely for the sake of the new clothes. Their carefully preserved old rags are therefore restored to them, and they may then consider how they shall best find their way into their distorted sleeves, and which hole of the various gaps in their hats is the right one. It almost daily happens, that, among the 2000 paupers in the house, one or other, weary of the discipline, and longing for his old liberty, renounces his allegiance to the governor, and again obtains possession of his old rags. The clothes-store, which contained a wardrobe unsurpassed in point of variety by those of all the theatres of Europe put together, had just been opened, to search for the rags of a liberty-desiring pauper. The poor fellows must endure no small struggle of soul when they hesitate between their N. D. U. W. H. slave-costume, and their old miserable *sansculotte* liberty-dress. Most, however, prefer the latter. Liberty, even for the beggar, has much that is attractive about it ; and the free, wild, begging, nomade life, has become as much a habit to the Irish beggar, as is to the Russian nomade his life of hunting, fishing, and cattle-grazing. Only to him who remains twelve months in the house, who has during that period conducted himself orderly, and also induced a hope that he will for the future maintain himself, a suit of clothes is given, with which he may enter anew on his thorny life-path.

Dublin is, or at least hitherto was, the principal rendezvous of all the beggars of Ireland, the great wealth and the greater population of this city, according to Mr. Nicholls, promising them a richer harvest than any other town in the country. This harvest is further increased by the gifts of chance visitors, who are called to Dublin by business or pleasure, and who are generally more accessible to beggars than the constant residents. The numerous charities which exist in this city are also a great attraction. Those Irish, likewise, who go over to England in search of employment, always leave some portion of their family, frequently the whole of it, in Dublin, where they endeavour to support themselves by begging. Moreover, all the Irish paupers and beggars which England sends back to Ireland, as a burden she will not bear, usually arrive first in Dublin, where they collect in numbers. Thus the numerous streams of vagrancy flow into this city as into a vast reservoir. When all these circumstances are taken into consideration, with the additional fact, that, until now, with the exception of the larger towns, there existed in all Ireland no public institutions for the support of the poor,—that, except Dublin, there was no place where the destitute and the starving could be certain to find relief, and that therefore the entire flood of misery and want must necessarily flow towards Dublin,—it will not, I say, appear wonderful that there should be so many beggars there, but on the contrary it will excite surprise that their number should not be much greater. In point of fact, I believe that the fearful and melancholy pictures which former travellers have painted of the condition, and of the multitudes of beggars in Dublin, will no longer be found applicable and true in their full extent. The fearful and usual entreaty of the Dublin beggar, “ Sir, I am hungry,” I expected to hear much oftener than I did. The new workhouses have probably already afforded them some relief. Whether it will be possible to carry out the proposed vagrancy and mendicancy act, and to get rid of beggars entirely, the future alone can inform us. The 150 workhouses which are to be erected in the country, will, if we suppose that each on an average can afford shelter to 500 destitutes, contain only 75,000 paupers ; and it will therefore be necessary to pre-suppose, before mendicancy can be prohibited with perfect justice, that there are not more than 75,000 persons in Ireland who. cannot support themselves. We do not, however, require much calculation to prove that it is extremely probable that this is far below the actual number of the destitute ; and the question then is—with what

show of right can the remaining hundreds of thousands, to whom no asylum is offered, be prohibited from begging ?

### Section III.— MUSEUMS, &c.

BENEFITS CONFERRED ON DUBLIN BY GERMAN SCHOLARS—THE BOGS PRESERVERS OF ANTIQUITIES—REMAINS OF MEN, BUFFALOES, AND STAGS—CERVUS MEGACERAS—THE FOSSIL STAG IN THE DUBLIN MUSEUM— FREQUENCY OF THE CERVUS MEGACERAS IN IRELAND—ANTIQUUE WORKS OF ART—GOLD RING-MONEY—BRONZE PIGS—IRISH DISTAFFS—BUTTER, CHEESE, AND IRON IN THE TURF-BOGS—TRINITY COLLEGE—MAPS OF IRELAND—THE NEWEST MAP OF IRELAND—SPLENDID WORKS IN THE COLLEGE LIBRARY—GRANTS AND DONATIONS TO TRINITY COLLEGE—THE PRAYER-BOOKS—THE PARK.

The museums and literary societies of Dublin are not a little indebted to the Germans. The museum of the Royal Dublin Society was founded by the purchase of the collection of Professor Leske, called the Leskean Museum ; to which that of Sir Charles Gieseke, a mineralogist of Göttingen, was afterwards added. The books of Baron Fagel, a Dutchman, were annexed to the library of the university ; the anatomical wax models of Professor Rau, a German, who resided in Paris, were purchased by Lord Shelburne for the university ; and, lastly, Professor Finnagle (here called Von Feinagle) founded a society, by which, under his direction, an institution for the education of the children of the higher classes was established, the only one of its kind in Ireland.

The most interesting collections for strangers are those of the university (Trinity College) ; of the Royal Dublin Society ; and of the Royal Irish Academy. After the Germans, the bogs of Ireland have done most for the museums of the two last of these institutions. They are the best preservers of antiquities a country can desire ; and almost all the information Ireland wishes to obtain concerning her ancient condition, she must derive from the writings and monuments found at the bottom of her bogs. Not alone the beads of gold and amber, which were worn by the women of ancient Ireland ; not alone the bodies of men, but even their clothes, even the butter which they used to eat, even samples of the weed which they used to smoke before the introduction of tobacco ; even the bodies of races of animals which are now extinct in Ireland,—all these have the bogs covered with a preserving layer of turf, and have kept uninjured, not even omitting furrows drawn by the plough many centuries ago. The collections of these Irish antiquities, as well as the care bestowed on their preservation, and the diligent study of them, are all very recent. So great is the present zeal for exploring and draining the bogs, that every day fresh antiquities are discovered, and doubtless much will yet be found that will render these collections more complete than they now are. The most interesting things which have been discovered in the bogs are, first, to give precedence to man, human bodies, in perfect preservation, of which one is to be seen in the Dublin museums. The skin, indeed, is dried up and tanned brown ; but the entire figure and physiognomy is still plainly discernible. From the dress of this man it is supposed that he must have lain for at least five hundred years in the Galway bog in which he was found. As preservers of animal substances, one might compare the Irish bogs with the great ice-masses of Siberia. The latter, however, excel the former, inasmuch as they even preserve the flesh fresh for thousands of years. It would be interesting to compare all the substances in nature, first fluid, and then solid, with one another, with regard to their preserving qualities.

Then there are parts of the buffalo, which formerly existed in Ireland. In a treatise among the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, this Irish buffalo is said to differ from that

described in Cuvier's "*Ossements fossiles*," and is particularly distinguished by a greater convexity of the forehead, by a considerable length of body, and by the shortness of the bent-down horns. But the fossil deer of Ireland is above all especially deserving of admiration and attention, on account of its extraordinary size and peculiar construction. Of this animal portions are so frequently found, that there are few Irish peasants who are not acquainted, either by hearsay or as eye-witnesses, with the "horns of the old deer," as they express themselves. Nay, in some parts of the country, these horns are so commonly met with that, without being deemed worthy of the least attention, they are thrown aside, or applied to economical purposes. Some of the enormous antlers of this animal are used as field-gates, others as bridges over little brooks. In Siberia, a trade is carried on in the bones of the fossil mammoth, which is there so abundant, and they are purchased by private persons for all sorts of economical purposes. These fossil bones of the stag are found as well in the bogs as in the marl-strata in which Ireland is so rich. In the Isle of Man, too, the same fossil stag has been found; and of late some specimens, complete in almost every respect, even to the very smallest bones, have been placed in many British museums. The name of "*Cervus Megaceras*" has been given to this animal. Its horns resemble, in their structure, those of the still existing elk, but they are much larger, while the animal itself is somewhat smaller. The most beautiful specimen of this animal is in the museum of the Royal Dublin Society.

One can easily imagine what a magnificent animal these proportions must have composed. Each of the antlers is as long as a tolerably tall man, and as wide as the leaf of a not small table. The animal, moreover, is much higher than the tallest ox, and at the same time built with the same admirable beauty and lightness as the most graceful stag. This one article so far surpasses in interest and beauty all the other specimens of natural history in the museum of the Dublin Society, that one has no longer eyes for any thing else; and I believe every traveller, often as this animal has been already spoken of, has contributed his mite to the glorification of its name. It is indisputably the finest animal of its kind to be found in any museum in Europe; and it is, next to the almost perfect fossil mammoth in St. Petersburg, perhaps the finest fossil skeleton that has ever been exposed to the eye of the world.

In Yorkshire, on the coast of Essex, in the forest of Bondi near Paris, in many parts of Germany, and, according to Cuvier, in various districts in the neighbourhood of the Po, parts of the *Cervus Megaceras* have also been found. Nearly perfect specimens of this animal have been placed in the museums of Edinburgh, Cambridge, and two or three other English towns; but all these are far excelled by the Dublin specimen in beauty, magnitude, and completeness. It is another of the singularities of Ireland of which we have already enumerated so many, that this animal should be found there more frequently than in any other country in Europe. How many questions does not this single fact suggest? It often seems to me as if Ireland had formed a little world of its own. One would sometimes feel inclined to believe it the remains of the continent of Atlantis, which did not resemble Europe in all its productions, and existed for itself alone in a hundred particulars.

Among the works of art which have been discovered in the bogs the most remarkable are those of amber, which prove that this gum was either found in Ireland, or that it was obtained in traffic from the Phœnicians. There is also a necklace of shells, which seems as devoid of art as if it were taken from the neck of a queen of the South Sea islands, and must have had its origin in the remotest ages of European barbarism. Then there is a multitude of admirable little articles of gold, rings, strings of beads, and some strange little instruments, of which, from their form, the use and object cannot with any confidence be determined. Among the beads are some of astonishing size, made out of thin plates of gold. If these ornaments, as is

supposed in Dublin, all really belong to a heathen age, (which is not improbable, as they bear not a single trace of Christian art,) we must confess that the old Irish heathen were but little inferior as workmen to the goldsmiths of the Greek colonies, and of the Bosphoran Kings of Tauria on the Black Sea, of whose works many have been lately discovered and placed in the museums of St. Petersburg. According to Moore, gold mines were discovered in the reign of Tighernmas, an ancient heathen king of Ireland, 200 years before the birth of Christ. In a bog in the county of Tipperary, so many gold ornaments are said to have been found, that the people call it “ the golden bog,” and tell a story of a goldsmith’s workshop having been overwhelmed by it.

One of these articles of gold is bent nearly circular, in the form of an open ring, greatly flattened at its extremities, and of such a size as to permit its being conveniently held like a handle. The Dublin antiquaries believe that it was used on the ratification of treaties of peace. There exists, however, a multitude of similar handles, or half-closed rings, of copper, and even some of silver, which are believed to have served as coin. The most curious thing connected with this subject is, that at the present moment multitudes of similar half-closed rings are manufactured at Birmingham, of iron, and sent to Africa, where they are used as money, in traffic with the Ashantees and some other negro nations. This African ring-money so much resembles these Irish articles, that some of the former, made in Birmingham, have been placed alongside the latter at Dublin. This appears a singular shape for money ; and yet we find that in two countries, so remote from each other, the same strange form was adopted. In all things, in all phenomena, natural-historical, historical, antiquarian, as well as psychological, one can never extend his inquiries too far, either in relation to space or to time. Threads and chains will then be found spun over our entire globe, and all connected like a net. Perhaps the Phœnicians traded with these African nations also. Perhaps this strange form of money, which one can scarcely believe to have been twice invented, was brought to Africa by the Phœnicians, or introduced from the wilds of Africa into the wilds of Ireland, or, *vice versa*, from the Irish to the Africans. As the English now make this money in Birmingham, so perhaps it was made by the Phœnicians ages ago. Do we not find the Round Towers of Ireland again in Persia ; and have not monuments been discovered, even in China, similar to the cromlechs and cairns of Ireland ? Not long since an account of some similar Cyclopean monuments, near Bombay, was published in the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy.

Articles of bronze seem to have been found in Ireland more rarely than might be expected from the extraordinary number of architectural monuments ascribed to the Ostmen and Northmen (the Danes). There are far fewer of them here than in other northern museums, for instance, in those of Copenhagen and Livonia. There are, however, a few bronze swords, like those at Copenhagen, together with a great quantity of Celts, and some bronze battle-axes. The most remarkable of these Irish bronzes are the little bronze pigs, which have been found in great numbers. The figure of this animal is usually very well imitated. Perhaps the pig was once a sacred animal in Ireland, as many sorts of beetles were among the ancient Egyptians. These relics reminded me of the ancient legend, that the old magicians, the Tuatha-de-Danaans, once, on the arrival of new settlers from Spain, transformed the whole island into the form of a pig. Even to the present day the pig is the most important and the most respected animal in Erin ; the inhabitants live and exist on its blood and lard, like the Egyptians on the water of the Nile ; and, were they not Christians, these subjects of her most gracious Majesty would doubtlessly at the present day worship Apis under the form of a pig, as the subjects of the Pharaohs did under the form of an ox.



Several distaffs of the most simple construction have been found—namely, a round stone, with a hole in it, in which a staff was stuck. On the staff was wound the thready and the heavy stone, on being set in motion, served to keep the simple machinery turning round. The Irish of our own days, however, have succeeded in inventing a still more simple distaff. In place of a stone, which requires labour and art to adapt it for this purpose, they use merely a potato. This kind of distaff, of course, was not used by the ancient Irish, as Drake had not yet presented them with a substitute, for the stone.

There is here a considerable quantity of the “ bog-butter” which I have already mentioned, and which has been frequently found in pieces of from eight to ten pounds weight. The largest is said to have weighed, seventeen pounds. Primitive antique cheeses have also been preserved in the bogs, in forms resembling none at present known in Ireland.

Iron, I was told, was generally entirely destroyed in the turf-bogs, and has only been preserved when it has remained in contact with fat animal matter. In like manner, I have been informed by many, that all the limy parts of animals, all their bones, are soon destroyed, and that the fat and skin, were alone preserved. Thus all the internal bones of the bog-man I have mentioned are said to be completely destroyed, by the moisture of the bog having forced its way through the body. If this be correct, the information I obtained from many quarters, and which I found repeated, in the treatise on the fossil elk which I have cited above, namely, that its bones are frequently dug out of the bogs, must be understood to mean, not out of the bogs themselves, but rather out of the marl-strata *beneath* them.

A multitude of interesting remains of Irish Christian antiquity are here to be seen—manuscripts, crosiers, and the like,—which, by their peculiar ornaments, show that in Ireland the arts also had then entered on a very peculiar path of development, the entire style and the ideas of the painters, calligraphists, and workers in metals, being manifested in them very differently from those to be seen in any other country.

In the museum of Trinity College, Dublin, founded by Queen Elizabeth, are also many interesting Irish antiquities ; for instance, an old harp, of beautiful workmanship, which is said to be that of the Irish King O’Nial. In this harp I saw, actually and tangibly, one of those musical instruments, which, in pictures of the assemblies of the Ossianic heroes, we are wont to look upon as mere ideal representations.

All the buildings of Trinity College are large, handsome, and convenient, and are all kept in the neatest order. The part most admired is the library-room, which is said to be the largest of its kind in the British empire. In 1842 the number of books in it amounted to 96,100. Of all the works I saw here none interested me so much as the new map of Ireland, which, so far as it is completed, is a truly gigantic work, and the most magnificent and best of its kind that Great Britain has yet produced. The same corps of engineers who made the last great map of England, are also employed on this of Ireland ; and, as they have brought hither with them all the fruits of their experience in England, it is believed that their labours here will be still more exact ; and that Ireland, which hitherto was one of those countries of whose geography but very little was accurately known, will thus, all at once, possess one of the fullest and most faithful maps in the world. It is scarcely credible, and yet it is not the less true, that all the maps of Ireland which were made during the last century, were based upon an old one, drawn towards the close of the seventeenth century, by the (in Ireland) famous Sir William Petty. Not one of these maps is to be at all depended upon, because, at a time when the British had determined the positions of a number of far-distant lands by astronomical and trigonometrical

observations, and when many parts even of Russia were already surveyed, no general trigonometrical survey of Ireland had as yet been commenced. Even at the end of the last century, the map of Ireland then deemed the most accurate, was made from very inaccurate materials by Beaufort, who was not even a mathematician or a geographer by profession, but a clergyman. Beaufort's map was drawn on a scale of six miles to an inch. The new one, undertaken at the public cost, is, on the contrary, on a scale of six inches to a mile, or upwards of a thousand times larger than the most minute and most accurate map which Ireland could boast of fifty years ago. For twelve years, some sixty persons have been employed in preparing and executing this gigantic work. Each of the thirty-two counties of Ireland is laid down, on an average, on from fifty to sixty large sheets, some counties, according to their size, having a greater or smaller number of sheets. Twenty-seven counties have been already completed ; and when the whole is finished it will contain above fifteen hundred sheets, and will form, as I have said, one of the greatest geographical works in the world. The atelier for this map is in the Phoenix Park, near Dublin. I was forcibly struck by the great inferiority, in point of intelligence and education, of the persons engaged in the execution of this great work. In similar undertakings in Germany, as, for example, on the great map of Saxony, which has for a long time been in progress at Dresden, all those employed are taken from the educated classes. Here, on the contrary, all the inferior artists are merely common workmen, who probably understand nothing more than that particular part of the work on which they are actually employed. It is probable, however, that the work is so divided and directed by able superintendents, that each workman is required to understand nothing more than his own part; and still that the whole will form a complete and distinguished work.

English libraries interest foreigners most by the splendid and gigantic works, which English perseverance, English art, and English money have produced, and which one has more rarely an opportunity of seeing in our continental libraries. Amongst the works of this description which I had an opportunity of seeing at Trinity College, were the “ *Antiquities of Mexico*,” a work which is said to have cost the editor, Lord Kingsborough, £30,000. A production of art, almost as complete as nature herself, is Lambert's plates and description of the genus *Pinus*. This Lambert devoted his talents, his life, and his fortune, to the completion of this distinguished work. It is characteristic of England to produce such men, who possess all these requisites in a high degree, and who devote them to the execution of one work, the attainment of one object. With us, in Germany, all these powers are never thus concentrated on one single point. Lambert employed a number of first-rate artists, and made them repeat their labours until he was quite satisfied with the result. Pine-trees were never glorified in such a manner, or represented with such astonishing fidelity and beauty, as in this work, of which very few copies are said to exist.

The great work of Gough, “ *Sepulchral Monuments of Great Britain*,” and another by Dugdale, the “ *Monasticum Anglicanum*,” which in a series of resumes gives views and a detailed history of all the churches and abbeys of England—an entire volume is devoted to St. Paul's cathedral—were also objects of my attention. It is astonishing in how many respects England has been already illustrated by her artists, and how every evidence of human existence, every branch of science, has always been there cultivated and carried out with relation to the entire country. All the various classes of British history and British antiquities have their own works, and among them usually a *standard book*, of universally recognised authority.

Trinity College is decidedly the greatest and most extensive building in Dublin, and the largest college in the United Kingdom. To give a slight idea of what has been done for this

college by parliament and private individuals, I will mention a few of the sums which have been presented to it. In 1758, Dr. Baldwin, its provost, bequeathed to the college no less than £80,000. Parliament granted the sum of £40,000 for building a square, thence called “ the Parliament Square,” which contains many chamber for fellows and students. In 1787, parliament voted £12,000, merely to build a chapel, which, however, cost considerably more. For all this money it might have been reasonably expected that this college would be somewhat less mute and more active than it appears to be, as the English universities generally designate Trinity College their “ Silent Sister.” There are, however, many persons of a European reputation who have here received their education and mental cultivation, such as Young, Goldsmith, Swift, Hamilton, Congreve, Burke, Dodwell, Grattan, Coulter, &c The English usually complete their education at one and the same college ; and each of the various universities of the kingdom is therefore constantly employed in reckoning up the great men who have been there educated, in comparing them with those educated by other colleges, and in erecting monuments and statues to them in their buildings. In our German universities this can never be the case, as we usually visit several, one after another. The German universities acquire their fame principally from their teachers ; the English, from their pupils.

The chapel of Trinity College is very elegant, although far inferior to many college chapels at Oxford. In it I saw a remarkable instance of the great nicety and strictness with which the orders of academical rank are maintained in English universities. The prayer-books in this chapel were all different in form, finish, and binding, according as they were appointed for a higher or lower academical rank. The prayer-book of the provost was a folio volume, elegantly bound, with gilt edges, and the leather studded with golden stars. For the vice-provost, there was the gilt edge, but the stars had disappeared. For the senior fellows, of whom there are seven, there was merely a simple folio, without gilt edges ; while for the junior fellows, of whom there are eighteen, it diminished to an unornamented quarto. The scholars and students had to content themselves with octavos. The scholars, of whom there are seventy, compose, with the fellows, the body of the university, and they all together elect the two members which the university returns to parliament. [1] The students are divided into three classes,—fellow-commoners, who dine at the fellows’ table, and pay most ; pensioners, who pay less ; and sizar, who pay nothing at all. As the students have their own prayer-books, they have also their own park, adjoining the college ; and the fellows again have their pretty little garden, to which the masters and fellow-commoners have also admission. Through a little postern door of this garden, called the “ Doctors’ Gate,” because the doctors only are allowed to have keys for it,—*by courtesy*, however, the masters also have a key,—I again issued from the university.

#### Section IV.— The Squares of Dublin.

MERRION-SQUARE—ABSENTEEISM— IRISH SQUARES—STEPHEN’S GREEN—PHENIX PARK—DEPARTURE FROM DUBLIN.

Dublin is celebrated in England for its squares. Merrion-square is said to be the most beautiful, and Stephen’s Green the largest, in the British empire ; and both of these are only a short distance from the little Doctors’ Gate.

Merrion-square is a handsome parallelogram, with noble grass-plots, and surrounded by the finest private buildings in Dublin. The latter, as I walked along the paths of the square, presented a very melancholy appearance, with their blinds drawn down, a sign that their

owners were not at home. I reckoned ten houses in succession which were all veiled in this manner. During the entire summer, and the greatest part of the winter too, the nobility and gentry of the country are not to be found in their capital ; and for this Dublin is not compensated, like London, by a more lively *season* in the spring.

Dublin, of course, has lost most by the union of Ireland with England. At the end of the last century, when Ireland yet possessed her own parliament, Dublin was the usual residence of two hundred and seventy-one temporal and spiritual peers, and of three hundred members of the House of Commons. In 1820, on the contrary, the city counted no more than thirty-four resident peers, thirteen baronets, and five members of the House of Commons. If, as has been calculated so long ago as in 1782, no less than two millions sterling were drained from Ireland to be spent out of the country, it may reasonably be assumed that that sum has now at least doubled itself. As Ireland is not, like other countries of Europe, remunerated for this by the visits of strangers, it may be easily conceived how sore and disagreeable this absenteeism is to the trading classes. Ireland is probably that country of Europe from which there is the greatest emigration, and into which there is the smallest immigration, of wealthy persons.

As elegant clubs are, in London, more numerous than elegant houses of public resort, so in Dublin squares are more numerous than public gardens. The wealthy and privileged classes have entirely monopolized the enjoyment of these squares. Usually, it is only the inhabitants of the surrounding houses, and a few subscribers, who are allowed to enter the square, which is enclosed with a high iron railing, and each inhabitant or select subscriber is furnished with a key for the gates which open into it. These monopolizers of squares are also protected by law against surreptitious intruders ; and there is generally painted on a board set up near the gate—" Any person imitating the keys of this square is liable to a fine of five pounds."

The entire of Merrion-square, with all the houses that surround it, belongs to a nobleman, whose name I have forgotten. The inhabitants of these houses pay a higher rent on condition that the square shall remain free and unbuilt on. The lawns of Merrion-square, like those of all English gardens, are elegantly kept ; and though the whole is only twelve acres, a gardener, who has his dwelling in a corner of it, and two under-gardeners, have always plenty to do, to keep the grass and the walks in the wished-for accurate order. Between the lawns wind several serpentine paths, and here and there some fine thick clumps of trees are distributed. The iron railing is every where lined with dense shrubberies, in order that those walking in the garden may feel themselves more private and concealed from the gaze of the public. The enjoyment of these squares is, to my mind, a somewhat insipid pleasure, consisting of nothing else but walking up and down a few times to take a little fresh air. Generally, only a few young children, and their attendants, are to be seen in them. We Germans would permit the gardener to sell milk and cakes ; and we would, in the mornings noon, or evening, come across from our houses to enjoy a little coffee or egg-flip (*weinkaltsckale*). But nothing of this sort is allowed here. On the contrary, as I have already said, these beautiful grounds, which might be made so manifoldly useful to the public at large, are generally seen empty, or at most visited by a few children. During the season, in the spring, a band of music plays in the lawns, at which periods the subscribers and inhabitants, with their families and friends, come to hear it. The number of those who frequent Merrion-square on these occasions, as the gardener told me, sometimes amounts to three or four thousand. The public at large is, however, excluded on these festivals, and the gates of the square are guarded by policemen. " Indeed it is very necessary," said the gardener, " for if we did not do so, the numerous ruffians we have in the town would soon destroy every thing."

The other square, Stephen's Green, is almost an English mile in circumference. It is the property of the city of Dublin, but has been given to the inhabitants of the square, as a "fee farm," by act of parliament. For this they pay £300 a year,—another example of the various legal relations in which the inhabitants of English towns stand to their squares. In the centre of these handsome grounds an equestrian statue of George II. has been erected.

A statue of the Duke of Wellington was offered to the inhabitants of these two squares, to be erected in their grounds ; but it was declined on account of its great want of taste. It was therefore erected in that park which is the pride of the good folks of Dublin, where they make their first acquaintance with whatever is beautiful and blooming and grass-green in nature — in the Phoenix Park, dose to Dublin. Of this park the Irish assert that it is unequalled in the United Kingdom. But beautiful as it may be, and unsurpassngly suitable as is its name, and the monument which has been erected in the middle of it—a Phoenix in flames, in allusion to the annual rejuvenescence and new blossoming of the trees and shrubs,—still I must confess that I cannot comprehend what is so displeasing to the Irish in the noble parks of London, surrounded as they are by so many splendid buildings, that they wish to extol the Phoenix Park so highly beyond every other. The avenues to it are bad, in quite an extraordinary degree ; the buildings, even the Vice-Regal Lodge, are very insignificant structures ; and the green lawns are by no means so carefully kept as those of the parks of London.

The Phoenix Park lies almost quite outside the city ; and as we are now once more in the open country, and have left behind us the smoky narrow town, we will not return again, much as we may have still to see there ; at least not further than is necessary to find our car, which is to convey us to th^ north of Ireland.

#### From Dublin To Drogheda

“ HOW DO YOU SPELL YOUR NAME, SIR ?”—CORNISHMEN—SWORDS—BALBRIGGAN  
—THE BEGGARS AND MY FAIR SINGING COMPANION— LINEN TRADE.

In Germany, we sometimes say to a person whose name we do not know, “ May I take the liberty, sir, to ask you your name ?” In England, one would do better to say, “ How do you spell your name, sir ?” otherwise one would derive little information from the answer, which generally consists of some corrupted, inarticulate sounds. “ How do you spell your name, sir ?” asked I of a man, who, having thrown his luggage into the well of the car, took his seat on the bench beside me. I received a volley of letters in reply ; but as I was not yet sufficiently practised in English spelling, I was nothing the wiser, for I neither knew how to write or to pronounce it. This much, however, I know, by the final syllable *pen* and the Christian name *John*, that my friend must be from Cornwall ; for of Cornishmen is sung the following couplet :—

“ By tre, pol, lan, and pen,  
You may know most Comishmen.”

These Comishmen are Usually called John, as the Welsh are Johnson : hence the former say that the latter are their sons. Mr. —pen was a thorough trader, and had no mind for anything that was not in his *line*. When, therefore, I told him I had come from Saxony, “ Ah, Saxony,” said he, “ that is a very fine wool country !” When I expressed my regret that the weather was bad, and that we would see but little of the interesting country, he replied,

“ that all weathers were the same to him, if business were only doing ; but the worst of all was, that it was now so dull and slow.” “ But it is some consolation to me,” said I, “ to think that we are entering on a better-cultivated part of Ireland, and that the cultivation of the country and of the people goes on increasing towards the north.” “It is remarkable,” observed he, “ that in like manner the linen and flax become finer and better as we proceed northwards. That of Drogheda is not so fine as that of Newry ; and there are some places yet farther north where still finer articles are woven.”

All this conversation passed between us while we were making ourselves as comfortable as we could on the car. At last we started off. The cloud of poor invalids, beggars, useless helpers and helpers’ helpers, and hawkers of newspapers and picture-books, all of whom were proclaiming in a loud voice the important novelties contained in their papers, to induce us to buy, cleared away, and our car, with its mountain of luggage, and its sixteen outside passengers, rolled off through the suburbs of Dublin. I remarked in passing, that here also a great number of houses were adorned with ivy, in the same manner as all ruins in Ireland. As Erin is the ivy-land, so is Dublin the ivy-city.

Under a heavy fall of hail, rain, and snow mixed together—a kind of weather which the English call *sleet*, and which is very common in Ireland—we drove past the ruins of the cathedral of Swords. There stood beside them a large and almost perfect Round Tower, and many lordly old trees. The name Swords, although English, reminded me of the old Irish battles fought by Erin’s king, Brian Boru.

Farther on we passed another ruin, the old castle of Balruddery ; but at the next town, Balbriggan, quite a spectacle presented itself to me—a large manufactory ! Balbriggan was the first place in Ireland in which I found a great cotton-mill. Balbriggan stockings are celebrated, even in England. From this place the north-eastern manufacturing district of Ireland may be said to begin. The ruins cease to be the principal objects of interest ; and such grand groups of ruins as those of Kilkenny, Glendalough, and Cashel, are no longer to be met with in the north.

We took a little siesta at Balbriggan, and changed our horses. As we again seated ourselves on the car, we were surrounded by the usual swarm of poor people, begging us for Heaven’s sake to give them a halfpenny. “ There’s time enough yet, gentlemen ! the car’s just going off !” exclaimed they, as the driver raised his whip. “ There’s time enough yet, your honours ! Sure your honours won’t go away without leaving us and our poor families a trifle ! I’m not asking for myself, your honours, but for my poor dying children ! Oh ! oh ! the car is going off, and your honours won’t give us any thing !”

In the meantime it had become dark. It is by no means pleasant to be on an Irish car when night comes on, without the light of either stars or moon, as was now our case ; for one cannot venture to sleep through fear of tumbling off. A stout lady, who sat at the other side of me, therefore after a while began to sing aloud. She said she did so to keep herself awake and lively. Accompanied by her song and our universal dumbness, both of which, as well as the rough sleet, continued all the way to Drogheda, we entered the last-named town.

In this entire district, and particularly in Drogheda, the linen manufacture is the staple trade of the inhabitants. In consequence, however, of the erection of extensive flax spinning-mills at Leeds, this branch of Irish commerce has of late greatly decreased, and the linen

manufacture is now much depressed. In England, it is one of the most recent branches of its manufacturing activity ; whilst in Ireland it is one of the oldest. The linen manufacture of Ireland has occupied the attention of the English and Irish legislatures for two hundred years ; but in England it has only obtained importance since the beginning of the present century, in consequence of the introduction of vast spinning-machines. These machines have also been lately introduced into Ireland, and the flax-spinning is now conducted on quite a new system. Many towns have been losers, and others gainers, by this change. It is remarkable that the exportation of Irish linen to England and foreign countries since the beginning of the present century, has regularly fluctuated between thirty-five and fifty-five millions of yards yearly. The general lamentations of the linen manufacturers and flax-spinners, that their trade has been destroyed, may therefore probably be caused by the increase of population, and of hands seeking employment. The population of Ireland has almost doubled itself since 1800 ; and to prevent these lamentations, the production and exportation of linen should also have been doubled in the same period.

[1] Each Master of Arts is also entitled to a vote, provided he has regularly paid twenty shillings a year for the privilege.— Tr.

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