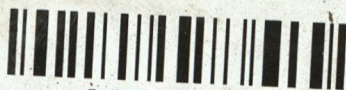
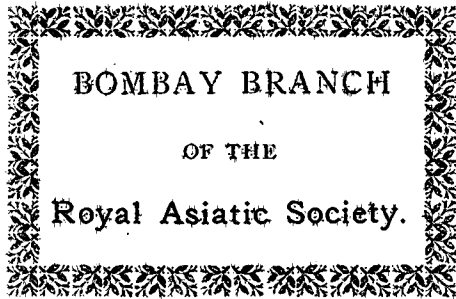


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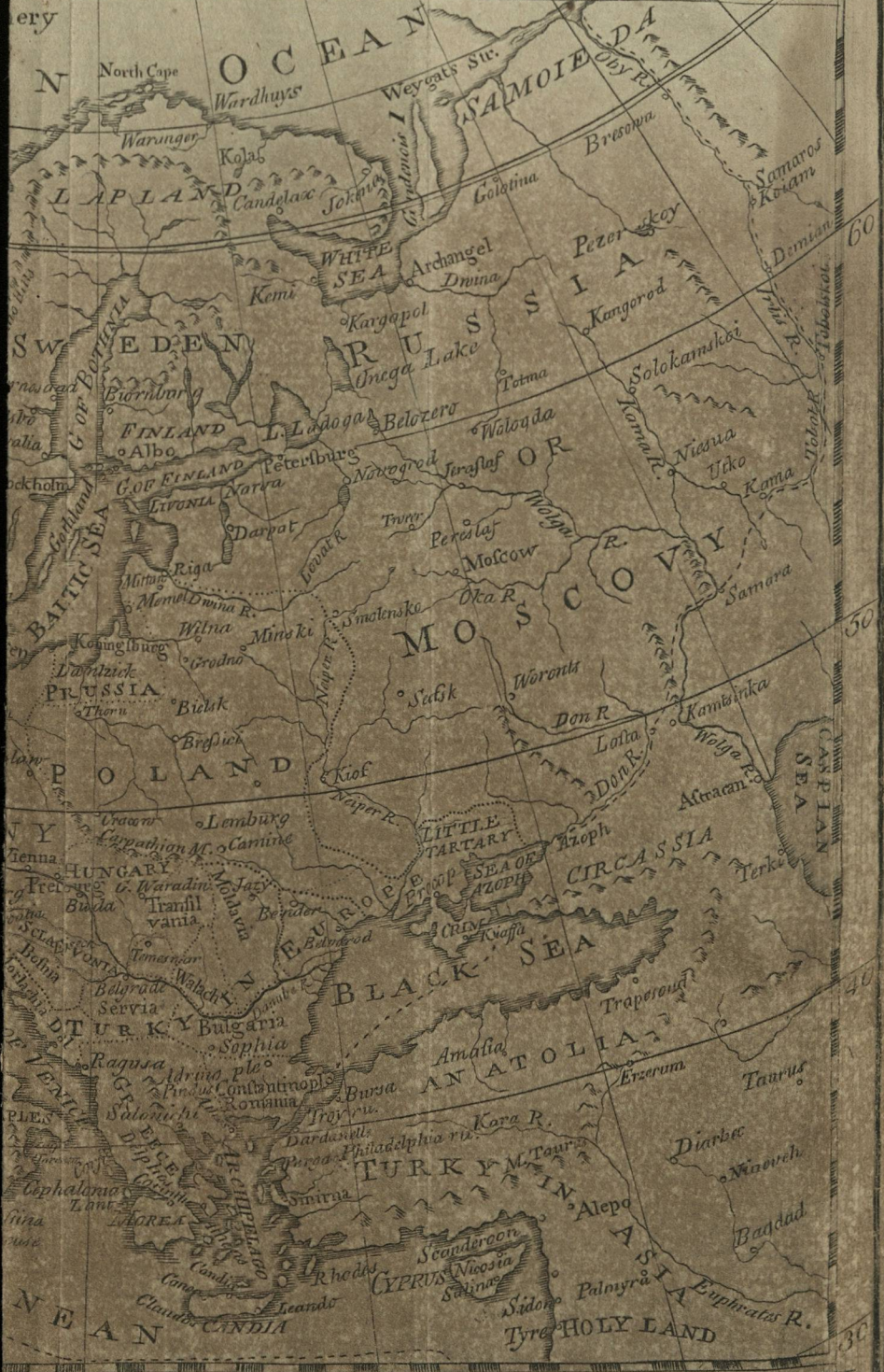


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BOMBAY BRANCH
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T H E
A M E R I C A N 7
UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY,
 O R , A
 VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE
 OF ALL THE
 Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Republics
 IN THE KNOWN **84369**
W O R L D, *as*
 AND OF THE
 UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN PARTICULAR.
 IN TWO PARTS.

The FIRST PART

Treats of Astronomical Geography, and other useful preliminaries to the study of Geography, in an enlarged and improved Introduction of the WESTERN, or AMERICAN CONTINENT—of its Discovery—its Aboriginal Inhabitants, and whence they came—its Divisions—but more particularly of the *United States of America*, generally and individually—of their Situation, Dimensions, Civil Divisions, Rivers, Lakes, Climate, Mountains, Soil, Produce, Natural History, Commerce, Manufactures, Population, Character, Curiosities,

Springs, Mines and Minerals, Military Strength, Constitutions, Islands, History of the War, and the succeeding Events.—With a View of the *British, Spanish, French, Portuguese*, and other Dominions, on the Continent, and in the West Indies.

The SECOND PART

Describes at large, and from the latest and best Authorities, the Present State, in respect to the above mentioned Particulars, of the EASTERN CONTINENT—and its Islands—as divided into EUROPE, ASIA, and AFRICA—and subdivided into Empires, Kingdoms, and Republics.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

An improved CATALOGUE of NAMES of PLACES, and their GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION, alphabetically arranged—an enlarged CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of REMARKABLE EVENTS, from the Creation to the present Time—and a LIST of Ancient and Modern Learned and Eminent MEN, in AMERICA, as well as EUROPE.

The whole comprehending a complete and improved SYSTEM of MODERN GEOGRAPHY. Calculated for AMERICANS.

Illustrated with MAPS of the Countries described.

BY J E D I D I A H M O R S E , A . M .

Published according to Act of Congress.

P A R T I I .

Containing a GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION of the EASTERN CONTINENT and ISLANDS.

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THIS SECOND PART of the AMERICAN UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY, which the Author has thought proper to add, for the reasons mentioned in the Preface, is compiled principally from Chambers' Quarto Dublin Edition of Guthrie's Geographical Grammar, which, it is believed, is the best Edition of that valuable work which has been published. The Historical and less interesting parts have been omitted, to give room for more recent and important matters. In the Account of Europe; Zimmerman's Political Survey has been incorporated, as containing the most complete and authentic information, on those interesting subjects of which he treats. Various other improvements, too numerous to particularize, have been introduced, from the latest Geographical Publications, State Papers, Travels, Histories, &c. &c. so that it ought to be, and the Author hopes the Reader will find it to be, the best General Account of the Eastern Continent that has yet appeared in America.



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P A R T II.

P A R T II.

*From AMERICA we pass to the Eastern Continent, in
the description of which we begin with*

E U R O P E.

EUROPE is the least extensive quarter of the globe, containing only about 2,637,574 square miles,* whereas the habitable parts of the World in the other quarters, are estimated at 36,666,806 square miles. Here the arts of utility and ornament, the sciences, both military and civil, have been carried to the greatest perfection. If we except the earliest ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greatest variety of character, government, and manners, and from whence we draw the greatest number of facts and memorials, both for our entertainment and instruction.

Two circumstances have had a considerable tendency in giving Europe its present high rank in the world. First, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and, secondly, the great variety of its surface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immense number of mountains, rivers, seas, &c. which divide the different quarters of Europe from each other, is likewise extremely commodious for its inhabitants. These natural boundaries check the progress of conquest, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Africa and the East: The seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human industry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriance of more fertile soils. There is no part of Europe so diversified in its surface, so interrupted by natural boundaries and divisions, as Greece: And we have seen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itself of its strength, and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented, or at least greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itself is at present with regard to the rest of the globe. Though most of the European governments are monarchical, we may discover, on due examination, that there are a thousand little springs which check the force, and soften the rigour of monarchy. In proportion to the number and force of these checks, the monarchies of Europe, such as Russia, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Besides monarchies, in which one man

* According to the ingenious Zimmermann, in his "Political Survey of the Present State of Europe," wherein he gives this as the medium of the different writers on this subject.

man bears the chief sway, there are in Europe *aristocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people.— Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and some states of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are, likewise, mixed governments, which cannot be assigned to any one class. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the most singular instance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments in Europe are composed only of two of the simple forms, such as Poland, several states of Italy, &c. all which shall be explained in their proper places.

The Christian religion is established throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which speculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by persons of different educations and passions, that religion is divided into a number of different sects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1st, The Greek church; 2d, The Roman Catholic; and 3d, Protestantism: Which last is again divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism, so called from Luther and Calvin, the two distinguished reformers of the 16th century.

It may, perhaps, be an object of curiosity, to compare the proportions of ground now occupied, and formerly disputed, by the Roman Catholic and Protestant religions, with the numbers of their adherents. The proportion of the surface of the countries, in which the Protestant religion is established, to those in which the Roman Catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4: The number of Roman Catholics, according to the best calculations, is about 90,000,000; the number of Protestants only 24,000,000, which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1. In addition to this account of the European religions, it may be observed, that an inconsiderable number of the ignorant Laplanders may, with propriety, be called Pagans. ~~See also the account of the~~

The languages of Europe are derived from the six following: The Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Slavonic, and Gothic.

The greatest part of Europe being situated above the 45th degree of northern latitude, and even its most southern provinces being far distant from the torrid zone, the species of organized bodies are much less numerous in Europe than in the other parts of the globe. Thus, for instance, upon an equal number of square miles, the number of species of quadrupeds in Europe, is to the number of them in Asia as 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$, to that in America as 1 to $2\frac{1}{3}$, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10, and the number of the vegetable species in the other three divisions of the globe, is greatly superior to that in Europe. But nature has enriched the European continent with every species of minerals, diamonds and platina, perhaps, excepted. Gold, the first of metals, is not found in Europe as plentifully as in the other continents. However, as the European nations have the skill of making the best use of their natural productions, and have taken care to transplant into their own soil as many of the foreign productions as their nature will permit, Europe, upon the whole, must be allowed to be one of the richest parts of the globe.

PUBLIC REVENUE OF THE PRINCIPAL STATES IN EUROPE.

£.Sterl.

1. Great Britain,	12,500,000
2. Austria,	12,400,000 (112 million florins)
3. France,	18,000,000 (Necker Comptc Rendu)
4. Spain,	5,000,000 of Old Spain alone.
5. Russia,	5,800,000
6. Turkey,	5,000,000
7. Prussia,	3,600,000
8. Portugal,	1,300,000
9. Sicily,	1,700,000 medimn.
10. Holland,	4,000,000
11. Sweden,	1,300,000
12. Venice,	1,000,000
13. Denmark,	1,000,000
14. Electorate of Saxony,	1,100,000
15. Electorate of Hanover,	900,000
16. Joint Elect. of Palat. & Bavaria,	1,100,000
17. Sardinia,	1,000,000

The preceding statement in round numbers is intended merely to give the reader a general idea of the relative state of European finances. It would, however, be very improper to judge of the power of states merely by their finances, because, in some countries, the value of money is much higher than in others. Thus, for instance, the whole Russian army costs the state less than two millions of rubles. Russia, Denmark, England, Sweden, and others, have paper money.

LAND FORCES OF THE EUROPEAN STATES IN THE YEAR 1783.

France,	300,000
Austria,	282,000
Russia (450,000 in all) in Europe,	290,000
Prussia,	224,000
Turkey (210,000 in all) but in Europe only,	170,000
Spain,	60,000 including militia.
Denmark,	72,000
Great Britain,	58,000 including militia.
Sweden,	50,000
Sardinia,	50,000
Holland,	37,000
Naples and Sicily,	30,000
Electorate of Saxony,	26,000
Portugal,	20,000
Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate,	24,000
Hesse Cassel,	15,000
Hanover,	20,000
Poland,	15,000
Venice,	8,000
Wurtemberg,	6,000
The Ecclesiastical Estate,	5,000
Tuscany,	3,000

Having stated here the forces of the principal states only, passing over a considerable part of Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, we may calculate

calculate the armies of all the countries in Europe to amount to 2 millions of men; so that supposing 140 millions of inhabitants in Europe, no more than $\frac{1}{70}$ of the whole population are soldiers. The present military establishment of every kingdom, in a time of general peace, differs somewhat from the above statement. France, Austria, and Prussia, have by far the most formidable armies: As to Russia, the immense extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120,000, or 130,000 men to act against an enemy; and as to the Turkish forces, they are at present much inferior to any other well-disciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population and the number of soldiers, is not unworthy of observation. There are in Germany, nearly 500,000 soldiers, consequently $\frac{1}{280}$ of the whole population are engaged in the military profession: In Italy, on the contrary, even supposing the standing armies of that country to amount to 220,000 men, this number makes only $\frac{1}{111}$ of the whole population, which amounts to 16 millions.

NAVAL FORCES.

NUMBER OF SHIPS OF THE LINE, FRIGATES, CUTTERS, SLOOPS, &c.

1. England,	-	-	465
2. France,	-	-	266
3. Spain,	-	-	130
4. Holland,	-	-	95
5. Sweden,	-	-	85
6. Denmark,	-	-	60
7. Turkey,	-	-	50 commonly reckoned 60.
8. Russia,	-	-	63
9. Sardinia,	-	-	32
10. Venice,	-	-	30
11. Sicily,	-	-	25
12. Portugal,	-	-	24

Total 1325

Several of these numbers, taken from the naval lists in the year 1783, are at present reduced. This gives, however, some idea of the respective naval strength of the different powers of Europe. Some of them, as for instance, Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having had no war for many years past, and having, for that reason, built but a small number of ships, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have; and they would, undoubtedly, increase their naval forces very considerably in case of a war.

The greatest part of Europe is under the influence of a climate, which, being tempered with a moderate degree of cold, forms a race of men strong, bold, active and ingenious; forced by necessity to make the best use they can of the smaller share of vegetable and animal treasures, which their soil produces. In hotter and richer parts of the globe, the profusion of spontaneous natural productions, and the heat of the atmosphere, relax the bodily and mental powers of the inhabitants, check their spirit of enterprise, and confine the compass of their thought. The torrid zone has never been able, nor is ever likely, to boast of a Newton, a Cæsar, or a Frederic.

Great

Great ridges of mountains, the chief of which are the Alps, the Apennines, the Pyrenean, the Carpathian, Sudetic, and Saxon mountains, effect not only a great variety in the climate, but pour out many large and navigable rivers, and contain every species of minerals. It is likewise no small convenience and encouragement to commerce, that Europe is intersected by several seas, and that it is contiguous to the Atlantic Ocean.

The seeming natural disadvantages of Europe have, by dint of the ingenuity and perseverance of the inhabitants, given rise to numberless arts and sciences, which have been carried to a great degree of perfection. Asia and Africa, have immense deserts, such as are no where to be found in Europe; deserts of many thousand square miles, and which are partly owing to natural and insuperable disadvantages of situation, partly to want of industry, which is at once both cause and effect of desolation. America is yet in its infancy, so that the sciences of Europe far excel those of the other quarters of the globe, excepting those parts into which European knowledge and civilization have been transplanted. Europe may also boast of the greatest number of useful inventions and institutions, to preserve and to propagate acquired knowledge. It has, at present, about 120 universities, and an almost infinite number of literary societies, or academies of sciences, arts, and languages.

The states of Europe considered with respect to their intrinsic power and influence abroad, may be divided into three classes: France, Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, belong to the first. Secondary powers are those of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Sardinia: The third class comprehends Portugal, Naples, and Sicily, Poland, the Joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the Electorate of Saxony, Switzerland and Venice. For the last three centuries past, the cabinets of Europe, and chiefly that of France, have endeavoured to keep up a constant equilibrium between the different states. France and England endeavoured to preserve the balance of power in the west, Prussia, Austria, and Russia, that in the east of Europe: Russia has, by its late extraordinary increase of power, gained a great ascendancy in the north, after a successful struggle with the rival power of Sweden.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand division of the earth is situated between the 10th degree west, and the 65th degree east longitude from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the east, by Asia; on the south, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America; Being 3000 miles long, from Cape St. Vincent in the west, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north east; and 2500 broad, from north to south, from the north Cape in Norway to Cape Cayha or Metapar in the Morra, the most southern promontory in Europe.* It contains the following kingdoms and states.

* The reader is desired to observe, that in this part of the work, in reckoning the extent of countries, the *longest* and *broadest* parts have been mentioned. Great allowances therefore must be made in most countries. Jutland, for instance, is 114 miles where broadest, though in several other parts it is not fifty.

Kingdoms.	Len.	Bth.	Chief City.	Dir. and Bearing from London.	Diff. of Time from London.	Religions.
				Miles. <td>H. M. <td></td> </td>	H. M. <td></td>	
England	380	30	London	***	***	Luth. Calvinists, &c
Scotland	300	15	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Calvinists, &c.
Ireland	285	16	Dublin	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	Lut. Gal. & R. Ca.
Norway	1005	30	Bergen	550 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans
Denmark	240	70	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans
Sweden	800	50	Stockholm	350 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans
Russia	1500	110	Peterburg	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek Church
Poland	700	65	Warsaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	R. Luth. & C. & S.
K. or Pr. Dom.	600	35	Berlin	545 E.	0 59 bef.	Luth. and Calv.
Germany	600	50	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	R. C. Luth. & C. & S.
Bohemia	300	30	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	R. Cath.
Italy	150	10	A. Bernardi	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calvinists
Flananders	200	20	Brussels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	R. Cath.
France	600	100	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	R. Cath.
Spain	700	50	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	R. Cath.
Portugal	500	100	Lisbon	850 S. W.	0 38 aft.	R. Cath.
Switzerland	200	100	Bern, Coler &c.	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calv. & R. Cath.

Several small States &c. Piedmont, Monierat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuscany, Turin, Casal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.

Piedmont	240	12	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	R. Cath.
Naples	230	12	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	R. Cath.
Genoa	220	20	Genoa	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	R. C. & Protestants
Danubian Provinces	600	420	Constantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mohometans and Greek Church.
L. Tartary *	300	240	Pecop	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
Greece	200	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 32 bef.	

Inclusive of the British Isles, Europe contains the following principal islands:

	Islands.	Chief Towns	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean.	Iceland	Skalholt.	Denmark
Baltic Sea.	Zealand, Funen, Alfen, Falster, Langeland, Laland, Femmeren, Mona, Bornholm,	— — —	Denmark
	Gotland, Aland, Rugen,	— — —	Sweden
	Osel, Dagho,	— — —	Russia
	Ufedom, Wollin,	— — —	Prussia
Mediterranean Sea.	Ivica,	Ivica,	Spain
	Majorca,	Majorca,	Ditto
	Minorca,	Port Mahon.	Ditto
	Corfica,	Bastia,	France
	Sardinia, Sicily	Cagliari, Palermo,	K. of Sard. K. of Sic.
Adriatic, or Gulf Venice.	Lusina, Cefu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia,	— — —	Venice.
	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece.	— — —	Turkey.

* This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Russia, for the particulars of which, see Russia.

† Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stauhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht 1713; but was besieged and taken by the Spaniards, Feb. 1757, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive Treaty of Peace, signed at Paris, September 30, 1763.

D E N M A R K .

I SHALL, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish Majesty's dominions, with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts : 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean ; 2d, Norway ; 3d, Denmark Proper ; and 4th his German territories.

The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table.

Denmark.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Denmark Proper,	North Jutland,	9,600	155	9	Wyburg.	
	South Jutland, or Sleswick,	2,115	70	6	Sleswick.	
	Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea.	Zealand,	1,933	60	6	COPENHAGEN.
		Funen,	768	38	3	Odensee.
		Falstar and Langland,	220	27	1	{ Nikoping. Naxkaw.
		Femeren,	50	13	1	Borge.
		Alsen,	5	15	1	Sonderborge.
		Mona,	35	14	1	Stege.
		Bornholm,	160	20	1	Roscomby.
		In the North Seas,	Iceland Island,	46,000	435	18
Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen.		
Danish Lapland,	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.		
Westphalia,	Oldenburg,	1260	62	32	Oldenburg.	
Lower Saxony,	Stormar,	1000	52	32	Gluckstadt.	
	Danish Holstein.					
Total		163,011				

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimensions of East and West Greenland ; because in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly : We shall proceed to give the latest accounts of them, and from the best authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

E A S T G R E E N L A N D .

THE most northerly part of his Danish majesty's dominions ; or as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553 ; and is supposed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fish and fowl are said to forsake the coast in winter. The Russians of Archangel have formed within the last 30 years, settlements for hunting in several places of the island of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis and the northern lights reflected from the

WEST GREENLAND.

the snow, enable them to pursue the chase during the long winter nights of those gloomy regions; and they take a great number of sealions which serve them for food. There is a whale-fishery, chiefly prosecuted by the Dutch and some British vessels, on its coast. It likewise contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice-Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the Meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 stated inhabitants: M. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving Southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great resemblance between the aspect, manners, and dress of those natives, and the Esquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Danish and German missionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour; but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their most agreeable food is the flesh of rein-deer; but that is now scarce among them, and their best provisions are fish, seals, and sea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which stands in the house in a great copper-vessel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fish bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping dish. The men make their hunting and fishing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with skins. The men hunt and fish, but when they have stowed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity only to draw the seal up upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the curriers to dress the pelts, and make clothes, shoes, and boots, out of them; so that they are likewise both shoemakers and tailors. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenter's work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly severe; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the latest and best accounts of this country, says, that in their longest summer days it is so hot that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They have no trade, though they have a most improvable fishery upon their coasts; but they employ all the year either in fishing or hunting, in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing seals.

CUSTOMS.] The taking of whales in the seas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increasing for ages, is one of the

the greatest curiosities in nature. These fields, or pieces of ice, are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickness; and when they are put in motion by a storm, nothing can be more terrible: The Dutch had 13 ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

There are several kinds of whales in Greenland; some white and others black. The black sort, the grand bay whale, is in most esteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, inclosed in long pieces of what we call whale-bone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse hair; and on each side of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whale-bone. As to the bones of his body they are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no use. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is usually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head, but grows less from thence to the tail.

When the seamen see a whale spout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall*, when every one hastens from the ship to his boat; six or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats usually belong to one ship.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart) and the monster, finding himself wounded, runs swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line fast enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the side of it, one wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes such a terrible noise with his spouting, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and boiling the blubber extract the oil, if they have conveniencies on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home; but nothing can smell stronger than these ships do. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of East and West Greenland, where these whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolized this fishery. Of late the English have also been very successful in it.

I C E L A N D.

THIS island, which receives its name from the great masses of ice that are seen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and sixty in breadth, containing about 46000 square miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland observed something risen and flaming in the sea, to the south of Grinbourg, at eight miles distant

distance from the rocks des Oiseaux, which afterwards was found to be a new Island. The fact is authentic, but its dimensions and situation are not well ascertained. The information brought by the last ship from thence, was, that the Island was still increasing, and that great quantities of fire issued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, settled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Christians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is said, that the Norwegians also found among them Irish books, bells, and crosses: And it is conjectured, that the people who were there, when the Norwegians arrived in the island, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at last obliged to submit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became subject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at first governed by an admiral, who was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations: But that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is styled *Stiftsamtman*, and who constantly resides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been destroyed by contagious diseases. The plague carried off many thousands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have also been depopulated by famine: For though the Icelanders cannot in general be said to be in want of necessary food, yet the country has several times been visited by great famines. These have been chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing; and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small pox has likewise been very fatal here; for in the year 1707 and 1708 that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well-made, though not very strong. They are an honest, hospitable, well-intentioned people, moderately industrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. Their chief employment is fishing, and taking care of their cattle. On the coasts, the men employ their time in fishing both winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, work at several mechanic trades, and some few work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call *Wadmal*.— They have an uncommonly strong attachment to their native country, and think themselves no where else so happy. An Icelanders, therefore, seldom settles in Copenhagen, though the most advantageous conditions should be offered him. Their dispositions are serious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preservation, when they have passed the danger. When they meet together, their chief pastime consists in reading their history.— The matter of the house begins, and the rest continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at chess; and one of their pastimes consists in reciting verses. Sometimes a man and woman take

take one another by the hand, and by turns sing stanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occasionally join in chorus. The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but it is neat, cleanly, and suited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear several gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the coarse cloth, called wadmal, and always wear black. Those who are in better circumstances wear broadcloth, with silver ornaments, gilt. The houses of the Icelanders are generally bad: In some places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raised of lava, with moss flanked between the lava. Their roofs are covered with sleds laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their feet on the earth, between three stones; and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food principally consists of dried fish, sour butter, which they consider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly any peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches on the east, south, and west quarters of the island, are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Skalholt; (the capital of the island) and those of the north quarter are subject to the bishop of Hoolum. The island is divided into 109 parishes, of which 27 belong to the see of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the ministers are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly salary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, exclusive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Iceland is the same as that formerly spoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preserved so pure, that any Icelanders understand their most ancient traditional histories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is said that poetry formerly flourished very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrímson, Kormak Ogmundson, Glum Geirson, and Thorkel Jarlar were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in use till after the year 1000, though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and most probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Christian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adapted, as the Runic alphabet, which only consists of sixteen letters, was found insufficient. The first Icelandic bishop, himself, founded a school at Skalholt; and soon after they founded four other schools, in which the youth were instructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and some parts of theoretic philosophy. And from the introduction of the Christian religion thence till the year 1264, when Iceland became subject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the sciences were cultivated and held in esteem.

But this period of time seems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period since. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had considerable knowledge in morality, philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and some of them have

have been printed. Mr. Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, presented one hundred and sixty-two Icelandic manuscripts to the British Museum. That gentleman visited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who published an account of their voyage, observes, that he found more knowledge among the lower class in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other places; that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and that a peasant was seldom to be found, who, besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, was not also acquainted with the history of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional histories, that being one of their principal amusements.

John Arason, bishop of Hoolun, employed John Matthieson, a native of Sweden, in establishing a printing-press in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the first book printed by him there was the *Breviarium Nidarosiense*. He also printed an ecclesiastical manual, Luther's catechism, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been established at Hrappley in this island, and at which several valuable books have been printed.

[MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this island is situated so far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have several times laid the country almost desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal consequences. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanoes. Of these burning mountains Heckla is the best known, especially to foreigners. This mountain is situated in the southern part of the island; about four miles from the sea-coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the sea. This mountain has frequently sent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island to the distance of 180 English miles. The last eruption of mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded also from it in December 1771, and in September 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

But amongst all the curiosities of Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot spouting water-springs with which this island abounds. The hot springs at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and several others found in Italy, are considered as very remarkable: But, excepting in the last mentioned country, the water no where becomes so hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown so high, as the hot spouting water-springs in Iceland. All those water-works that have been contrived with so much art, and at so enormous an expence, cannot by any means be compared with these. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greatest among all the French water-works, cast up a thin column eighty feet into the air: While some springs in Iceland spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm,

of

of several hundred feet. These springs are of unequal degrees of heat. From some, the water flows gently as from other springs, and it is then called a bath: From others, it spouts boiling water with a great noise, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Tröel says, that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geysir, Røyhum, and Lagarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the last place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 223 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting-springs to cease, and others to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of these hot springs, the inhabitants who live near them, boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot into which the fish is put in cold water, in the water of the spring. They also bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become like warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of these springs are said to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and it is likewise esteemed very wholesome when drank by the human species.

The largest of all the spouting-springs in Iceland is called Geysir. It is about two days journey from Hekla, and yet far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent, precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water here spouts several times a day, but always by starts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed, that it spouts to the height of sixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at some times than at others; when Dr. Van Tröel was there, the utmost height to which it amounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have been produced by subterranean fires. The lower sort of people imagine these pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made use of supernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to seven sides, and are from four to six feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length, without any horizontal divisions. In some places they are only seen here and there among the lava in the mountains: But in some other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immense masses of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field-ice is of two or three fathoms thickness, is separated by the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain-ice, which is often seen fifty feet and more above water, and is at least nine times the same depth below water. These prodigious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that state remain many months, nay, it is said, several years, undissolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmosphere for many miles round. The ice caused so violent a cold in 1753 and 1754, that horses and sheep perished on account of it. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep. The Icelanders attempt to destroy these intruders as soon as they get sight of them; and sometimes they assemble together, and drive them back to

to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make use of spears on these occasions. The government encourages the natives to destroy these animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their skins are also purchased for the king, and are not allowed to be sold to any other person.

It is extraordinary that no wood grows successfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole island, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parsley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or six gardens, which are said to be all that are in the whole island.

TRADE.] The commerce of this island is monopolized by a Danish company. The soil upon the sea-coast is tolerably good for pasture; and though there is not any considerable town in the whole island, the Icelanders have several frequented ports. Their exports consist of dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woolen-cloth, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox-furs of various colours, cider-down, and feathers. Their imports consist of timber, fishing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horse-shoes, brandy, wine, salt, linen, and a little silk; exclusive of some necessities and superfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Danish majesty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS,

SO called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. long. from London. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth 300 miles to the westward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

N O R W A Y.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural signification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the west and North, by the northern ocean; and on the east it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may consult the table of dimensions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country so little known to the rest of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimensions with precision.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its position towards the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the sea is navigable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered

covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, with intense severity, and continues to the middle of April; the waters being all that time frozen to a considerable thickness. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow, on the mountains which separate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different postures. But even frost and snow have their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longest day is about 19 hours, and the shortest about six. In summer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky; and in the most northerly parts, about midsummer, the sun is continually in view. In those parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and an half; owing to the reflection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to the Norwegians, that in the midst of their darkness, the sky is serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they can carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in open air. Sudden thaws, and snow-falls, have sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS. Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world. It contains a chain of unequal mountains running from south to north: To pass that of Hardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefeld is counted the highest mountain, perhaps in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by light tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expense of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountains, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains, are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them, called Dolsteen, was, in 1750, visited by two clergymen; who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: That they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS. The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests, which furnish foreigners with masts, beams, planks, and boards: And serve beside for all domestic uses; particularly the construction of houses,

bridges, ships, and for charcoal to the founderies. The chief timber growing here are fir and pine, elm, ash, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, eel or alder, juniper, the aspin-tree, the comol or slow-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen) lime or linden tree, and willows. The sums which Norway receives for timber are very considerable; but the industry of the inhabitants is greatly assisted by the course of their rivers, and the situation of their lakes; which afford them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting saw mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to his Danish Majesty, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, } Norway contains quarries of excellent mar-
AND MINERALS. } ble, as well as many other kinds of stones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or abestos, is found here. It is of an incombustible nature, and when its delicate fibres are woven into cloth, is cleaned by burning. Besides this curious mineral, Norway produces crystals, granates, amethysts, agate, thunder-stones, and eagle-stones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Danish majesty is now working, to great advantage, a silver mine at Konnsberg; other silver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 500 pounds, is to be seen at the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: One of the copper-mines at Roraas is thought to be the richest in Europe. Norway likewise produces quicksilver, sulphur, salt, and coal mines; vitriol, alum, and various kinds of foam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and fresh water lakes in this country are well stocked with fish, and navigable for vessels of considerable burden. The most extraordinary circumstance attending the lakes is, that some of them contain floating islands; formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; and though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family-seat of Borge, near Fredericstade, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements into an abyss a hundred fathoms in depth; and its site was instantly filled with water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, } All the animals that are natives of Den-
POWLS, AND FISHES. } mark are to be found in Norway, besides the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin and the beaver. The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and, in the winter, social; and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The rein-deer is a species of stag, and will be described hereafter.

The hares are small; and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious: They are remarkable for not hurting

hurting children ; but their other qualities are in common with the rest of their species in northern countries ; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary specimens of their sagacity, recorded by the natives : They are hunted by little dogs ; and some prefer bear-hams to those of Westphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are they even of a cow or goat ; unless impelled by hunger : The natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous ; They are of the cat-kind, and have claws like tigers : They dig under ground, and often undermine sheep-folds, where they make dreadful havock. The skin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable ; as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries ; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwise called the erven, or vielfras, resembles a dog with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth ; his fur, which is variegated, is so precious, that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt : He is bold, and so ravenous, that it is said he will devour a carcase larger than himself, and unburthens his stomach by squeezing himself between two close-standing trees : When taken, he has been even known to eat stone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness. Their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown forest cat, only its head and snout are sharper ; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. The beaver has been described in our account of the United States of America.

Norway produces a great variety of birds. The alks build upon rocks ; their numbers often darken the air, and the noise of their wings is like that of a storm ; their size is the bigness of a large duck : They are an aquatic fowl, and their flesh is much esteemed. No fewer than thirty different kinds of thrushes are said to reside in Norway ; with various kinds of pigeons, and several sorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour, his eye resembling that of a pheasant ; and he is said to be the largest of all eatable birds. In Norway are two kinds of eagles, the land and the sea ; the former is so strong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old : The sea, or fish eagle, is larger than the other ; he subsists on aquatic food ; and sometimes darts on large fishes with such force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature seems to have adapted these aerial inhabitants for the coast of Norway ; and industry has produced a species of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them servicable to the human race : These are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the steepest rocks, and bringing away the birds and their eggs : The latter are nutritive food : The flesh is eaten by the peasants, who generally relish it ; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern districts are trained up to be assistants to these birdmen in seizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and seas abound in most kinds of fish, that are found on the sea-coasts of Europe. Stock-fish in great numbers are

caught and dried upon the rocks without salting. Some fishes in those seas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-moren is a species of shark, said to be ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuellassynder is a very large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen overboard, to keep him from rising. The season for herring-fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales (of which seven different species are mentioned) in following the herring shoals. The large whale resembles a cod, with small eyes, a dark marble skin, and white belly: They spout out the water, which they take in at the mouth through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land-animals, standing upright in the sea. A young whale, when first produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female sometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours an incredible number of small fish. They however have their revenge; some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him; others, with sharp horns, or rather bones, on their beaks, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks. The coasts of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the shoals that come from under the ice at the north pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themselves into three bodies: One of these supplies the Western Isles and coasts of Scotland, another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torsk-fishes follow them, and feed upon their spawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms of water; these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The accounts of the ancients, concerning sea-monsters, seemingly the most fabulous, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian seas; and the sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was shot by a master of a ship; its head resembled that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hanging from its neck: It floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea; between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat, and bark masters provide themselves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overfet; the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. The particularities related of this animal would be incredible, were they

they not attested upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hoghead; his skin is variegated like a tortoise-shell; and his excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is corrosive, and blisters the hands of the seaman if they handle it.

I am under great difficulty in mentioning the kraken, or korven, whose existence is said to be proved so strongly, as seems to put it out of all doubt. I insert the common description, leaving every one to judge of its truth. Its bulk is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sand-banks, on which fishes deposit themselves, and sea-weeds grow: Upon a farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and size of a moderate mast, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, consisting of small fishes. When he sinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous swell of the sea succeeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alstahong; and his death was attended by such a stench, that the channel where it died was impassable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may safely say, that the existence of this fish being proved, accounts for many of the phenomena of floating islands, and transitory appearances in the sea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of such an animal.

The mer-men and mer-women reside in the Norwegian seas. The mer-man is about eight spans long, and has some resemblance to the human species; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat nose, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterize its head; its arms are short, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members resembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: The parts of generation indicate their sexes: Their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like those of fishes. The females have breasts, at which they suckle their young ones.

[CURIOSITIES.] Those of Norway are all natural curiosities. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some Malestrom, or Moskœstrom. The island Moskœ, from whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain Hefleggen in Lofoden, and the island Ver, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on each side, the stream makes its way. Between Moskœ and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moskœ and Ver, it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moskœ with a boisterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent: so violent, that if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn

irresistibly into the whirl, and there disappears, being absorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments. When it is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a situation of more horror, than that of being thus driven forward by the sudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noise and turbulence still increasing as it is approached, are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of despair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impossible; and see before them the dreadful abyss in which they are about to be plunged, and dashed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expressed the utmost terror when they find the stream irresistible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they struggle against it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Malestrom is a sea vortex, which attracts the flood under the shore of Norway, and discharges it again in the gulf of Bothnia: But this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the shattered fragments of whatever happens to be sucked down by it. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered, that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, } The Norwegians are of a mid-
AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. } die character, between the simple
Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute; but the farmers and common people in Norway are much less oppressed than those in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly resembling the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family in all its necessaries with his own manufactures; so that in Norway there are few by profession who are hatters, shoe-makers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist, a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal, the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; being reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The middle class of Norwegians live in plenty; but, what is singular, they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: And this middle state prolongs their ages surprisingly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to their climate,

yet,

yet, through custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expose themselves to cold, without any cover upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted past his labour: And in 1783, four couples were married, and danced before his Danish Majesty at Fredericshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain vestiges of their former paganism. They play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpse is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In some places the mourners ask the dead person why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other such questions; frequently kneeling down and asking forgiveness, if ever they had offended the deceased.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what shall be observed in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, most of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the best calculations, Norway can furnish out 14,000 excellent seamen, and above 30,000 brave soldiers, for the use of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000*l*. and till his present majesty's accession, the army, instead of being expensive, added considerably to his income, by the subsidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We must refer to Denmark likewise for this head.—The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardest seamen in the world. If we are to believe their histories, they were no strangers to America long before it was discovered by Columbus. Many customs of their ancestors are yet discernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent descents, and some settlements, which are generally confounded with those of the Danes. From their being the most turbulent, they are become now the most loyal subjects in Europe; which we can easily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a separate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their history, as well as interests, are the same with that of Denmark.

DENMARK PROPER, OR JUTLAND, EXCLUSIVE OF THE ISLANDS IN THE BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 240	} between { 54 and 58 North latitude, 8 and 11 East longitude.
Breadth 114	

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac sea; and from Sweden on the east by the Sound; on the south by Germany and the Baltic; and the German sea divides it from Great Britain on the west.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts: The peninsula of Jutland, anciently called *Cimbria Chersonesus*, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all these together constitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is separately called by that name.

CLIMATE.]

CLIMATE.] The climate is more temperate in this country, on account of the vapours from the surrounding sea, than it is in many more southerly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known in Denmark, on account of the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which distinguish the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very severe, so that the inhabitants often pass arms of the sea in sledges upon the ice; and during the winter all their harbours are frozen up.

RELIGION.] In Denmark, as in Sweden, the established religion is the Lutheran, which was introduced in the year 1536. Christians of all other professions, and Jews, are tolerated. Missions for the conversion of pagans are established in the more remote possessions of this crown; in Lapland, Greenland, and Tranquebar. The Danish clergy consists of bishops, provosts, and ministers. The bishops, called in public acts superintendants, are six in number, of whom the bishop of Seeland is the first in rank. All ecclesiastical affairs are subject to the regulations and the jurisdiction of the college of Supreme Inspectors; the provosts convene every six months a subordinate meeting of the ministers under their inspection, in which they preside, and over which they exercise a jurisdiction; from which an appeal lies to the Supreme Inspectors.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publickly taught at Copenhagen as a necessary part of education. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement. Denmark has two universities, that of Copenhagen, and that of Kiel; two academical colleges, at Soroe and Odensee; and thirty-two other great schools in the principal towns. There is at Copenhagen a royal society of sciences; an historical society for the study of Northern history; another of Icelandic history and literature; an academy for painting and architecture; a college of physicians and surgeons; and another society of sciences at Drontheim. This kingdom shares with Sweden the praise of promoting sciences, by sending numbers of learned men, at the public expense, to all parts of the globe, in order to make useful discoveries.

CAPITAL.] Copenhagen is the capital of Denmark, and the residence of the king. It lies in N. Lat. 55°, 41, and E. Lon. 12°, 50, and stands on a low, marshy ground, on the margin of the Baltic sea, and has a beautiful and commodious harbour, which admits only one ship to enter it at a time, but is capable of containing 500. The road for the shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 50 pieces of cannon. On the land side are some lakes which furnish the inhabitants with plenty of fresh water. The adjacent country is pleasant; and opposite the city lies the island of Amac, which is very fruitful, and forms the harbour. It is joined to the town by two bridges.

This city is more than six miles in circumference, and makes a fine appearance at a distance. It contains 11 squares and markets, nearly 200 streets, 4 royal castles, 10 parish, and 9 other churches, several palaces, between 4 and 5000 burghers houses, some of which are inhabited by 10 or more families, and about 87,000 inhabitants. This city is divided

vided into Old Copenhagen, New Copenhagen, and Christians-Hafen, which lies in the isle Amac. The two last divisions being more modern than the first, are laid out in broad streets, running in a straight line. Since the last great fire, the streets of Old Copenhagen, have been altered for the better. There are in some parts of the city, broad and deep canals, into which large ships may enter, and load and unload close to the ware houses.

Among the most remarkable public buildings are 1st, The great War-tow Hospital in the west quarter of Old Copenhagen, containing upwards of 300 beds for the sick and poor, each of whom has his lodging gratis, and a weekly allowance of half a rix dollar. Close to this hospital is a small church, so contrived, that the bed-ridden may hear divine service in their beds.—2d, The Orphan house, which takes up one entire side of the New-Market, and is a great ornament to it. 3d, The city prison, which has its particular church. 4th, A large edifice, in the strand quarter of the old city, in the first story of which is the Arsenal; in the second the king's library; in the third the picture gallery, the royal cabinet of curiosities, and the cabinet of medals; and in the fourth the cabinet of models. Between Christian-Hafen and Copenhagen is a high pillar, erected in the middle of the water, on which is the statue of a naked woman, with a swan on her left side, that extends its neck behind her back, and bringing its head over her right shoulder, puts its bill into her mouth.

The inhabitants of this city are mostly Lutherans—the Calvinists have a church to themselves: The Jews have their synagogues; and the Roman Catholics resort to the chapels of the foreign ministers of their religion. The magistracy of Copenhagen consists of a president, three burgo-masters, and some vice-burgo-masters, and common councilmen.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] If the cold and barren kingdom of Norway did not require large supplies of corn from Denmark, the latter would be able to export a considerable quantity of it. Sleswic, Jutland, Seeland, and Leland, are very rich corn countries. Black cattle, which is in great abundance, and of great excellence in these provinces, is a most valuable article of commerce with the neighbouring provinces of Germany: Between 60 and 80,000 head of cattle are annually sold.—Denmark is rather deficient in sheep, with which the climate does not agree so well. The chief produce of Norway is wood and timber; the annual exports of masts, planks, balks, and fir-wood, amount to the value of 1,000,000 rix-dollars: This trade is chiefly carried on by the towns of Christiana, and Drontheim; one district in the government of Drontheim supplies annually 535,000 planks. Norway exports great variety of pelt, consisting of skins of bears, lynxes, wolves, ermine, grey squirrels, and several sorts of foxes, rein-deer, elks, &c. The mines of Norway are very valuable; there is but little gold found, except at Edsfort, in the government of Christiana. The mines at Kongsberg and Jarlsberg produce silver to the value of 300—350,000 rix-dollars annually; and they employ upwards of 4000 miners: Government, however, does not derive any revenue from these mines, the expenses of which exceed the profits. The iron-works in this kingdom produce an annual profit of 60,000 rix-dollars. About 4—5000 ship-pound of copper are exported; the greatest mine of this metal is

at Roraa, in the government of Drontheim. The number of miners in Norway amounts to about 8000. Norway has very valuable fisheries. According to Pontoppidan, upwards of 100 species of fishes are caught in these seas; of which the articles of cod, herrings, and whales, are valued at near two million of rix-dollars. The same author informs us, that Norway exports large quantities of train oil. The imports of Denmark consist chiefly in corn; as to Norway, only $\frac{1}{4}$ part of it is fit for agriculture; besides corn, the articles of salt, flax, linen, wool, brandy, wine, fruits, silk, spices, hardware, and luxuries, are imported. Norway being thinly peopled, and little acquainted with luxury, and possessing the above-mentioned valuable articles of exportation, has, upon the whole, the balance of trade in its favour, which is against the kingdom of Denmark. The whole of the exports of Denmark and Holstein, amounted in 1768 to 1,382,681 rix-dollars; the imports to 1,976,800 r. d. The exports of Norway, to 1,711,369, and the imports to 1,238,284 dollars. (Busching). There are at present two trading companies, an East-India, and a Guinea and West-India company; an Insurance company, and a paper-bank. The passage through the Sund, between Helsingoer and Helsingborg, is very much frequented. In 1783, 11,161 ships passed it; the number of ships is at present more than double the number of those which passed it in 1750. Manufactures do not thrive in Denmark; there are, however, several manufactures of cloth, hardware, china, gloves, &c. refineries of sugar, saltpetre-works, &c. For the encouragement and convenience of inland trade, a navigable canal has been drawn lately from Kiel, through Holstein, to the river Eyder; by means of which the Baltic and the German sea are connected. The chief commercial towns in this kingdom are, Copenhagen, Flensburg, and Kiel; and Bergen and Drontheim, in Norway. Of late the Danes have a commercial intercourse with the United States of America, whence they have received, in one year, from October 1790, in various commodities, to the amount of 277,273 Dols. 53 Cents.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper, affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. It contains several good paintings, and a fine collection of coins, particularly those of the Consuls in the time of the Roman Republic, and of the Emperors after the seat of empire was divided into the East and West. Besides artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Danish artist, who was blind, here are to be seen two famous antique drinking vessels; the one of gold, the other of silver, and both in the form of a hunting-horn: That of gold seems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, it probably was made use of in religious ceremonies; It is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 104 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocese of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they say, was presented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. This museum is likewise furnished with a prodigious number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments; some Indian curiosities, and a set of medals.

medals ancient and modern. Many curious astronomical instruments are likewise placed in the round tower at Copenhagen ; which is so contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flensburg and Sleswick, is also esteemed a curiosity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the ancestors of the bulk of the modern English.

The greatest rarities in his Danish majesty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers ; I mean those ancient inscriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and historians ; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the use of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, was known. These characters are Runic, and so imperfectly understood by the learned themselves, that their meaning is very uncertain ; but they are imagined to be historical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited specimens of several of those inscriptions.

GOVERNMENT.] The ancient kings of Denmark exercised a power limited by the very considerable rights and privileges possessed by the estates of the kingdom, viz. the nobility, the clergy and the commons. It was no longer ago than the beginning of 1661, that the estates, annoyed by dissensions among themselves, and guided by leaders indifferent to the inestimable blessings of liberty, took the rash step of surrendering their native rights to their monarch. Since this servile act of submission, the kings of Denmark have been possessed of an absolute and uncontrolled authority, subject to the conditions of their professing the established protestant religion, and preserving the dominions of the kingdom undivided. The order of succession was settled in 1665, by the Lex Regia, which renders women capable of succeeding to the throne. The law of Indigenate, which excludes foreigners, not naturalized, from holding any employment of trust or profit, was introduced by the present king. Christian V. published an excellent code of civil and criminal laws, for the use of the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway ; Iceland retaining its very ancient and peculiar customary law. The Roman or civil law is not in force in this kingdom, nor is any regard paid to other foreign systems of law. Justice is administered in the several courts with great fairness and dispatch, according to the simple and excellent regulations of the code of laws. The highest department of administration is the cabinet, or supreme council, composed, at present, of the hereditary prince and six ministers of state, presidents of the subordinate departments ; among which that of foreign affairs is considered as the most honourable. There are two chanceries, one for the Danish, and the other for the German language. Each province has a particular governour presiding over the provincial departments.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Denmark is beheading and hanging. In some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment the hand is chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. For the most atrocious crimes, such as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital punishments are not common in Denmark : And the other principal modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, and to public labour and imprisonment ;

all

all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

FINANCES.] Seven millions of dollars. In the year 1769, 6,272,000 dollars.

1. Denmark	3,106,000
2. Norway	1,600,000
3. Sleswick and Holstein	1,328,000
4. Oldenburg, Delmenhorst, and Ploen	390,007
5. West India Islands	133,000

The King's private Chatouille.

1. The custom of the Sund	700,000
2. From the town of Altona	18,000

The debts were in 1770 only about 1,400,000 dollars, and since that time they have been still more diminished.

ARMY.] According to the new plan of 1785, which has been almost executed, the number of the army will be as follows: 1. Cavalry, 6073 men. 2. Infantry, 33,475 men. 3. For Norway, 35,715. Total of the army, 75,263.

The expenses of the army will amount to only 1,663,922 rix-dollars. There is a military school at Copenhagen.

NAVY.] (1779) Sixty-one sail, viz.

Thirty-one ships of the line.

Nine ditto of 50 guns.

Twenty-one frigates, besides some sloops, bombs, and fire-ships.— Only 25 ships of the line and 15 frigates are fit for service. There have been some more built lately. There are employed in the King's ships 5000 sailors, besides a corps of marines. At Copenhagen there is a naval academy.

HISTORY.] Denmark was little known till the year 714, when Gormo was king. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original. By Scythia may be understood all those northern countries of Europe and Asia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Russians, and Tartars) whose inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued so late as the 13th century to issue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence by Sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed the northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouse of Europe.

In the eleventh century under Canute the Great, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of Dominion can give sanction to the expression. Few very interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, she formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly styled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, fell to nothing. Norway, however, still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburg, from whom

whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended. About the year 1536, the protestant religion was established in Denmark, by that wise and politic prince Christian III.

Christian IV. of Denmark, was chosen head of the protestant league, formed against the house of Austria in 1629, and died in 1648, and was succeeded by his son Frederic III; who was persuaded by the Dutch, to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, which had almost cost him his crown, in 1657. Frederic, who was a man of great abilities, both civil and military, was succeeded in 1670, by his unfortunate son Christian V. who died 1699. His successor was the brave and war-like Frederic IV. who died 1730, having, two years before, seen his capital reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son and successor Christian VI. made no other use of his power and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happiness of his subjects; whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, after guaranteeing the Pragmatic Sanction,* Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the Emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His son and successor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766. His son, Christian VII. was born the 26th of January, 1749; and married his present Britannic majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina-Matilda. In 1768, he visited England, and travelled through the principal states of Europe; And from his return from this tour, in 1769, may with propriety be dated that memorable Revolution which took place in the court of Denmark in 1772. An authentic, interesting, and affecting history of this Revolution, and of the melancholy fates of Queen Carolina-Matilda, and Counts Struensee and Brandt, was written by a "*Personage principally interested*," and translated from the German, by B. H. Latrobe, and printed for J. Stockdale, 1789. To this valuable work the curious reader is referred.

In 1780, his Danish majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the Empress of Russia. He appears at present to have such a debility of understanding as to disqualify him for the proper management of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auspices of the prince royal, some of the former old members restored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any instrument, unless signed by the king, and countersigned by the Prince Royal. †

DANISH

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to support the House of Austria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue.
 † Christian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, L. L. D. and F. R. S. was married to the princess Carolina Matilda, of England; and has issue, Frederic prince royal of Denmark, born Jan. 23, 1768; Louisa Augusta princess royal born July 27, 1771.

DANISH GERMAN DOMINIONS.

Holstein, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the Emptress of Russia (termed ducal Holstein) the king of Denmark and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubeck; but on the 16th of November, 1773, the Ducal Holstein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial sovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holstein Gottorp, is joint sovereign of great part of it now, with the Danish monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holstein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of the Danish Holstein is Gluckstadt, a well built town and fortress, but in a marshy situation on the right of the Elbe, and has some foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handsome town, of great traffic, is commodiously situated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built professedly in that situation by the kings of Denmark, that it might share in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the staple of the Danish East India company, the merchants also enjoying liberty of conscience, great numbers flock to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg itself.

HAMBURG, a celebrated imperial city, is situated on the north side of the river Elbe, in N. lat. $53^{\circ} 16'$ and E. long. $10^{\circ} 38'$ in the Duchy of Holstein, in his Danish Majesty's German dominions. It is nearly circular, and six miles in circumference. Besides its natural strength, it is as well fortified by art as a place of such magnitude can be. It has six gates and four entrances by water, two from the Elbe, and two from the Alster. The wall is defended by bulwarks, other out works, and a deep ditch. A line with other works runs from the largest bastion of the Alster to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town: And on the other side of the bastion below the town, is the Star Leonce, an almost impregnable fortification. The walls and other fortifications that lie open to view, are planted with rows of high trees in such a manner that on that side of the wall next to Altena, the houses cannot be seen. The number of houses are reckoned at more than 30,000, and the inhabitants at 180,000.

The public buildings are but indifferent. The churches which are ancient structures, stand open every day, and in some of them are booksellers shops. They have six large market places. Of the many hospitals in this city, are the Hospital for Orphans, which has a revenue of between £60 and 70,000 a year. There is a large hospital for poor travellers that fall sick; another for the relief of ancient, maimed and decayed seamen, where care is also taken of the widow, and children of those who lose their lives in the service of the public. Another for the poor old blind and dumb people; another for the venereal disease, and a pest house. The prison for malefactors is in the hangman's house. The criminal, after sentence, is carried to an upper room, where he is allowed a good bed, with all comforts suited to his melancholy condition, and is there constantly attended by one of the city Clergymen. Among the several convents, which are now Lutheran, one is obliged to offer a glass of wine to every malefactor, that is carried by it to the place of execution.

The government of Hamburg is vested in the Senate and three Colleges of burghers. The principal persons of the Republic have a right to exercise every act of sovereignty; but the management of the finances is solely intrusted to the burghers. The Hamburgers (though nominally and politically the subjects of the King of Denmark, who still lay claim to certain privileges within the walls of the city) are subject to the general laws of the Germanic body, but have neither seat nor vote in the General Diet of the Empire. They pay to the Emperor, for their protection, the annual tribute of 80,000 crowns.

Hamburg from its situation has several advantages for trade. The ships come to their doors to load and unload. Besides the Elbe, which enters the German ocean a little below the town, a canal is opened into the Trave, for the sake of a communication with Lubec and the Baltic Sea. The Elbe, and the many navigable rivers that fall into it, running through the richest and most trading parts of Germany, furnish this city with the produce and manufactures of upper and lower Saxony, Austria and Bohemia. By the Flavel and Spree rivers, it trades with the Elector of Brandenburg; and by a canal from the Spree and the Ader, its commerce is extended into Silesia, Moravia, and Poland. It has two spacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. The Hamburgers maintain 12 companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, besides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hans Towns, and still a rich and populous place, is also in this dutchy, and governed by its own magistrates. It has 20 parish churches, besides a large cathedral. Lutheranism is the established religion of the whole Dutchy.

In Westphalia, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, about 2000 square miles, they lie on the south-side of the Weser; their capitals have the same name; the first has the remains of a fortification, and the last is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the first royal ancestor of his present Danish majesty. The country abounds with marshes and heaths, but its hofses are the best in Germany.

DANISH POSSESSIONS IN THE OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE. } ASIA, Settlements in Coromandel 20,000 inhabitants.

1. Tranquebar, with the 2. Fort of Dansborg, 3. The Nicobar, or Frederick's Islands, north of Sumatra. 4. Some factories or lodges.

AFRICA. 1. Christiansbourg. 2. Fredensbourg (on the coast of Guinea.) 3. Some factories, near Axim.

AMERICA. 1. Greenland, divided into East or Old Greenland, and West Greenland, a very extensive country, of many thousand square miles, but very thinly inhabited. Crantz, and after him Fabricius, give the best description of this country. 2. The islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West-Indies. Here the Moravian brethren have useful establishments.

The whole of Denmark contains 68 towns, 22 smaller towns, or boroughs, 15 earldoms, 16 baronies, 932 estates of the inferior nobility, 7000 villages.

Norway contains only 18 towns, two earldoms, and 27 estates of the other nobility.

L A P L A N D.

L A P L A N D.

THE northern situation of Lapland, and the division of its property render it proper, that it should be here described under a distinct head.

[SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME.] The whole country of Lapland extends, so far as it is known, from the North Cape in $71^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the most valuable; and some parts in the east, to the Muscovites or Russians. It is impossible to point out the dimensions of each. That belonging to the Swedes, may be seen in the table of dimensions given in the account of Sweden: But other accounts say, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that separate Norway from Sweden. The Muscovite part lies towards the east, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea.— Those parts, notwithstanding the rudeness of the country, are divided into smaller districts; generally taking their names from rivers: But, unless the Swedish part, which is subject to a Prefect, the Laplanders can be said to be under no regular government. The Swedish Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly considered by authors in describing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the descendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lapper*, which signifies exiles. The reader, from what has been said in the Introduction, may easily conceive that in Lapland, for some months in the summer, the sun never sets; and during winter, it never rises: But the inhabitants are so well assisted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never discontinu-
 e their work on account of the darkness.

[CLIMATE.] The winters here, as may easily be concluded, are extremely cold. Drifts of snow often threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw sometimes takes place, and then the frost that succeeds, presents the Laplander with a smooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a sledge with inconceivable swiftness. The heats of summer are excessive for a short time; and the cataracts, which dash from the mountains, often present to the eye the most picturesque appearances.

[MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The reader must form in his mind a vast mass of mountains, irregularly crowded together to give him an idea of Lapland: They are, however, in some interstices, separated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of islands, some of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terrestrial Paradise: Even roses and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the summer; though this is but a short gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is excessively severe. Dusky forests, and noisome, unhealthy morasses, and barren plains cover great part of the flat country, so that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the state of the inhabitants.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as those of iron, copper and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful crystals are found here, as are some
 amethysts

amethysts and topazes; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprisngly polished by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewise been sometimes found in the rivers, but never in the seas.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We must refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries.—The *zibelin*, a creature resembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its skin, whether black or white, is so much esteemed that it is frequently given as presents to royal and distinguished personages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the most remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*, which nature seems to have provided to solace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the most useful perhaps of any in the creation, resembles the stag, only it somewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All who have described this animal have taken notice of the cracking noise that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their separating and afterwards bringing together the divisions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the same manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery bristles, which is almost the only bird that can endure the rigour of the same climate. The hoof, however, is not only thus protected; the same necessity which obliges the Laplanders to use snow shoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in passing over snow, as it prevents their sinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body rest only on a small point. This quadruped hath therefore an instinct to use a hoof of such a form in a still more advantageous manner, by separating it when the foot is to touch the ground so as to cover a larger surface of snow. The instant however the leg of the animal is raised, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the collision of the parts occasions the snapping which is heard on every motion of the rein, and probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may serve to keep them together when it is remarkably dark.—In summer, the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in the winter they live upon moss; They have a wonderful sagacity at finding it out, and when found, they scrape away with their feet the snow that covers it. The scantiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journeys which they can perform without any other support. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of sledge, shaped like a small boat, in which the traveller, well secured from cold, is laced down, with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, whose harnessing is very simple, sets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed; and is so safe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the summer months, when they live in woods. Their flesh is a well tasted food, whether fresh or dried. Their skin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and the body. Their milk and cheese are nutritive
and

and pleasant; and their intestines and tendons supply their masters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be shot at as other game. But it is said, that if one is killed in a flock, the survivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally pitched upon. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniencies.

It is difficult in summer to keep them from straggling; they are sometimes buried in the snow; and they frequently grow restive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of these carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whispering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their destination. But after all these abatements, the natives would have difficulty to subsist without their rein-deer, which serve them for so many purposes.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make use of in their Runes, a sort of sticks that they call Pistave, and which serve them for an almanack. These hieroglyphics are also the marks they use instead of signatures, even in matters of law. Missionaries, from the christianised parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Christian religion; and they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. The majority of the Laplanders, however may be called pagans. The number and oddities of their superstitions have induced the northern traders to believe, that they are skilled in magic and divination. For this purpose it is said their magicians, who are a peculiar set of men, make use of what they call a drum, made of the hollow trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a skin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jesus Christ, the apostles, the sun, moon, stars, birds and rivers; on these they place one or two brass rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to their progress the sorcerer prognosticates. These frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ship-masters are such dupes to the arts of these impostors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want. This is also a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great address on the part of the sorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted talisman. The Laplanders still retain the worship of many of the Teutonic gods; but have among them great remains of the druidical institutions. They believe the transmigration of the soul; and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called Jeahles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fishers, and Lapland mountaineers.

The

The former always make their habitations on the brink, or, in the neighbourhood of some lake, from whence they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains, and their environs. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich in comparison to the Lapland fishers. Some of them possess six hundred or a thousand rein-deer, and have often money and plate besides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into classes; so that they can perceive whether any one is strayed, though they cannot count to so great a number as that to which their flock often amounts. The Lapland fishers, who are also called Laplanders of the woods, because in summer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the forests, live by fishing and hunting, and choose their situation by its convenience for either. The greatest part of them, however, have some rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chase: And the introduction of fire-arms among them has almost entirely abolished the use of the bow and arrow. Besides looking after the rein-deer, the fishery, and the chase, the men employ themselves in the construction of their canoes, which are small, light, and compact. They also make sledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harness for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utensils, which are sometimes neatly carved, and sometimes ornamented with bones, brass, or horn. The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheese, and in tanning hides: But it is understood to be the business of the men to look after the kitchen; in which, it is said, the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents, from twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above six in height. They cover them according to the season, and the means of the possessor; some with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open asunder. A little place surrounded with stones is made in the middle of the hut for fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang the kettle upon. In winter, at night, they put their naked feet into a fur bag. The rein-deer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions; the chase and the fishery supply the rest. Their principal dishes are the flesh of the rein-deer, and pudding which they make of their blood. But the flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea dog; as well as all sorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh and fish dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw; and without any sort of dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk: They make also broths and fish-soups. Brandy is very scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a mat on the ground; and then men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion separately given him, that no person may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer: And, as soon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In the dress of the Laplanders they use no kind of linen. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed, and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this, they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, whose skirts reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the rest their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth, the close coat of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat has a collar, which comes up somewhat higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they sometimes hang chains of silver, which pass two or three times round the neck. They are often dressed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear also caps fitted to the shape of the head; and, as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenness of its soil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general considerably shorter than more southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman, who was suckling her child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and a half; they make, however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-shaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaisant, chaste, often well-made, and extremely nervous; which is also observable among the men, although more rarely.

When a Laplander intends to marry ~~himself~~ he, or his friends, court her father with brandy; when with some difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or some other eatable, which she rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchased from her father by her lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtship sometimes for three years. The priest of the parish at last celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to serve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be said of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, baskets and toys; with some dried pikes, and cheeses made of rein-deer milk. They receive for these six-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, tobacco, and other necessaries.— Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their

their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. And the reader may make some estimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty squirrel skins, or one fox skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one rix-dollar, but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greatest part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the security of their property, few disputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable aversion to war; and, so far as we know, are never employed in any army.

S W E D E N.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles. Degrees.
 Length 600 } between } 50 and 70 North latitude.
 Breadth 500 } } 10 and 30 East longitude.
 BOUNDARIES. } HIS country is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the south; by the impassable mountains of Norway, on the west; by Danish or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muscovy, on the east.

DIVISIONS AND POSSESSIONS.] An authentic account of these is contained in the following table.

DIVISIONS, POSSESSIONS.	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Popula. for ev. sq. mile.	CHIEF TOWNS. Number of Inhabitants.
SWEDEN	270,428	3 millions.		
Divided into Sweden, properly so called, and Gothland. Both together	64,000	2,100,000	33	
A. SWEDEN contains Upland, Soedermanland, Westmanland, Nerike, Dalecarlien				Stockholm, about 80,000. Uppsal Univerf, and second in rank. Nykeeping.
B. GOTHLAND contains, Ologothland, Smoland, Oeland and Gotthland, Westgotland, Wermeland, Dahländ, Bohlehn, Sotgotthland, viz. Schonen, Halland, Blekingen				Falun, a famous mining place, 7,000 Norkioeping, 8,150. Lynkioeping. Calmar, trading town, Gothenburg, 12,800.
C. NORDLAND	95,472	150,000	not yet a	Land, on security. Helsingborg, near the Sund. Custroos, Admiralty seat. Torseea.
D. LAPPLAND, divided into districts, called <i>Mucken</i> , viz. Jemtland, Lappmark, Afele, Umea, Pitea, Leth, Torseea, Keud				
E. FINNLAND	48,780	624,000	12	Abö, university, 8,750.
F. The Swedish Part of Pomerania, viz. Pomerania, Island of Rugen, the District of Wilmur.	1,440	100,550	70	Stralfund, 10,840. Griefswald, university. Bergen (Isle of Rugen) 4,492. Wilmur, 6,000.
G. In the West India, Sweden obtained in the Year 1785, from France, the Island of St. Bartholemi	30			The whole Kingdom contains only 100 towns, 80,250 villages, and 1,500 estates of the nobility.

The face of Sweden is pretty similar to that of the neighbouring countries; except that it has the advantage of them in navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.] The same may be said with regard to this article. Summer burfts from winter; and vegetation is more speedy

speedy than in southern climates; for the sun is here so hot, as sometimes to set forests on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is so intense that the noses and extremities of the inhabitants are sometimes mortified; and in such cases, the best remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with snow.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } A few leagues from Gotten-
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } burg there is a hideous precipice, down which rushes a dreadful cataract of water with such impetuosity, and into such a depth of water, that large masts, and other bodies of timber, that are precipitated down it, disappear, some for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered: The bottom of this water has never been found, though sounded by lines of several hundred fathoms. A remarkable slimy lake, which sings things put into it, has been found in the southern part of Gothland: And several parts of Sweden contain a stone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with several streaks of white, as if composed of gold and silver, affords sulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. The Swedes pretend they have a manuscript copy of a translation of the Gospels into Gothic, done by a bishop 1300 years ago.

SEAS.] Their seas are the Baltic, and the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the west of Sweden are the Categate sea, and the Sound, a strait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

These seas have no tides, and are frozen up usually four months in the year; nor are they so salt as the ocean, never mixing with it, because the current sets always out of the Baltic sea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] These differ little from those already described in Norway and Denmark. The fishes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the same with those in other northern countries, and taken in great quantities. Their pikes particularly are salted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the seals, taken in the Gulf of Finland, is a considerable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] There is a great diversity of characters among the people of Sweden. Their peasants are strong and hardy, and appear to have no other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families. The mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. One could, however, form no idea that the modern Swedes are the descendants of those, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hospitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. The dress, exercises, and diversions of the common people, are almost the same with those of Denmark: The better sort are infatuated with the French modes and fashions. The women, plough, thresh, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry.

RELIGION.] Christianity was introduced here in the ninth century. The established religion in Sweden is the Lutheran, which the sovereign must profess, and is engaged to maintain in the kingdom. Calvinists, Roman Catholics and Jews are tolerated. The superior clergy

clergy of Sweden have preserved the dignities of the Roman Catholic church ; it is composed of the archbishop of Upsal, of 14 bishops, and of 192 presidents. The jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters is in the hands of 19 consistories. The number of the inferior clergy, comprehending the ministers of parishes, &c. amounts only to 1387. No clergyman has the least direction in the affairs of state ; but their morals, and the sanctity of their lives, endear them so much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of ecclesiastical laws and canons direct their religious economy.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swedish language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and resembles that of Denmark. The Swedish nobility and gentry are, in general, more conversant in polite literature than those of many other more flourishing states. They have of late exhibited some noble specimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature ; witness their sending at the expense of private persons, that excellent and candid natural philosopher, Hasselquist, into the eastern countries for discoveries, where he died. This noble spirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family ; and her Swedish majesty purchased, at no inconsiderable expense, for that country, all Hasselquist's collection of curiosities. That able civilian, statesman and historian, Puffendorf, was a native of Sweden ; and so was the late celebrated Linnæus, who carried natural philosophy, in some branches at least, particularly botany, to the highest pitch. The passion of the famous queen Christina for literature, is well known to the public ; and she may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midst of the late distractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, sculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a considerable height in that kingdom ; and the character given by some writers, that the Swedes are a dull, heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great measure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents. The importance of Sweden is greatly diminished, since the unfortunate wars of Charles XII, by which it lost its richest provinces. And notwithstanding all the encouragement given to agriculture, mining and commerce, the population is yet so thin, and the climate so severe, that this kingdom is not likely to receive soon any considerable and rapid additions of power. The fate of the sciences in Sweden has been much more fortunate. Good schools are established in every part of the kingdom ; there are three very useful universities at Upsal, Lund and Abo ; and the German university of Grietswald, in the Province of Pomerania. At Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Upsal, there are royal societies of sciences ; academies for antiquities, the belles lettres, painting, and music, are established in the capital. There is also a particular and very valuable institution for promoting the study of Swedish geography and topography, called Landmeter college ; and a physiographical society at Lund. Sweden has many men of learning, distinguished for their knowledge of natural philosophy, chemistry, political economy, &c. The ancient annexion of this kingdom with France has been confirmed by the late king, who opened forever a free harbour to the French in consideration of the island

Island of St. Barthelemi, in the West-Indies, ceded to him by France, in the year 1784. The neighbouring states of Russia and Denmark are very attentive to the motions of Sweden, which in former times proved to them an enemy of the greatest consequence.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] Though Sweden is by no means favoured with respect to climate, though the greater part of it is barren, (the uncultivated parts being estimated at upwards of 110,000 square miles) yet the industry of the inhabitants, in arts and agriculture, has raised Sweden to the rank of a secondary European power. However, notwithstanding the great encouragement given to agriculture, Sweden is still obliged to import 300,000 tons of corn, and 4,535 hog-heads of spirituous liquors. It imports, likewise, hemp, flax, salt, wine, beef, silk, paper, leather, and East and West-India goods. The exports consist chiefly in wood and minerals. In 1781, Sweden exported 27,819 dozen of planks, 795 beams, and 1,358 balks of beech, 95,657 tons of tar, and 15,868 tons of pitch; some cod, upwards of 150,000 tons of herrings, of which England bought for more than 12,000l. sterling; blubber or train-oil to the value of 28,468 silver dollars.—Of the produce of the whale fishery, there was exported, in 1781, 606 tons of train-oil, and 68,000 pounds of whale-bone. The most valuable among the productions of Sweden are its minerals, principally copper and iron. Gold is found at Adelfort, in the province of Smaaland, to the amount of 850 ducats; but the expenses of working this mine exceed the profits: A small quantity of gold is found in Westmanland. The mines at Sala, in the same province, produce silver to the amount of upwards of 600 lb. there are also silver mines in Dalecarlia and Northmanland. The total amount of the silver obtained from the Swedish mines, in 1774, was 2,700 lb. The copper mines at Falun and Garpénberg, in Dalecarlia, are very rich: The exportation of copper does, however, not exceed 6,000 ship-pound. Of the iron found in Nerike, Upland, Dalecarlia, &c. 320,000 ship-pound are exported. No less than 450 forges, hammering mills, and smelting houses, are employed in the iron manufacture.—Sweden produces 35,000 lies-pound of salt-petre, 5,500 tons of alum; and it has likewise vitriol and sulphur works. The value of the whole of exported minerals amounts to 2,300,000 German dollars. The exportation of wood is valued at 1 million; and that of tar, pitch, and pot-ash, at 300,000 German dollars. Sweden exports also, peltry, or furs of grey squirrels, bears, wolves, foxes, ermine, martins, rein-deer, gluttons, &c. in great quantities. All the exported goods amounted, in 1768, to upwards of 13 millions, and the imports to little more than 10 millions of silver dollars. The Swedestrade to all parts of Europe, to the Levante, the East and West-Indies, to Africa and China. There is a Swedish East-India Company, who have advanced 3 millions of dollars to the crown, and pay a duty to the king on every voyage: There is likewise a Levante-Company. The bank of Sweden is a loan and paper bank: Its profits are estimated at between 2 and 3 millions of dollars annually. The crown owed to this bank, in 1772, upwards of 45 millions of silver dollars. There are 38 commercial towns in the kingdom, among whom Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Marstrand, are the principal. Sweden has endeavoured to avoid paying the disagreeable duty in the Sound, by joining the inland lakes with the sea, by a canal beginning not far from Stockholm, from the gulf of Bothnia, and extending to the German ocean near Gothenburg; but the attempt has not yet succeeded.

GOVERNMENT.]

GOVERNMENT.] Since the memorable revolution in the year 1772, Sweden may, with great propriety, be called a monarchy. The senate it is true, claims still some share in the administration; but its members are chosen by the king himself. On coming to the throne, the sovereign engages to observe the fundamental laws of the kingdom: He has the absolute disposal of the army, and has the power of calling together as well as of dissolving the assembly of the states; but he cannot impose any new tax without consulting the diet, whose consent is necessary to levy them from the subject. The senate is the highest court or council in the kingdom, and is composed of 17 senators or supreme counsellors. The diet is formed by the deputies of the four estates, or orders of the nation, viz. the order of the nobility, the clergy, the citizens and the peasants; each order has its speaker, who presides over the respective deputies. The senate is divided into two departments; one of them has the supreme inspection over the administration of justice, over the mines, being the chief source of the national wealth, and the revision of all public accounts: The other department transacts all other branches of public and foreign business. The provinces are under governors, called provincial captains. Justice is administered in every town by the civil magistrates. The whole kingdom is divided into 82 districts of jurisdiction, each of which has its own court of justice, called *Herradsting*: In these country courts the judge is assisted by a jury of twelve peasants. From the decisions of these courts, their lies appeal to 21 superior courts, called *Lagmansting*; and from the latter to four supreme courts of judicature, established at Stockholm, Jönköping, Abo, and Wasa. The Roman, or Civil law, is not in force in Sweden: Justice is administered, without the delays usual in other countries, according to the regulation of the code of laws published in the year 1736. Other departments for the transaction of public business are the following: The War Office, the Exchequer, the Court of Admiralty, the Chancery, the Board of Trade, and the Board of Mines.

FINANCES.] The revenue amounted, in 1772, to 11,089,122 silver dollars, the public expenditure, to 11,166,125 silver dollars; and the national debt, exceeded, at that time, the sum of 60 millions. Since the late revolution, the revenue has been increased, by appropriating to the crown the lucrative monopoly in spirituous liquors, which is valued at upwards of 7 millions of silver dollars. Mr. Tunberg estimates the ordinary revenue, in 1784, at 4 millions of rix-dollars. The revenue accruing from the German province of Pomerania, amounted, in 1781, to 234,287 German dollars; and, in 1782, that of Pomerania and Wisnar to 249,000 German dollars. The chatouille; or private purse of the king, is estimated at 200,000 rix-dollars.

ARMY AND NAVY.] In 1784, it consisted of 50,421 men. The Swedish forces are divided into national troops, and levied troops, who are mostly foreigners: The first, being supplied by the Swedish nation, and consisting of country people, who serve only during the season of the reviews, have some resemblance to a national militia: They are, however, much better disciplined than militias commonly are. The infantry must be supplied and maintained by the order of the peasants, the cavalry by the order of the nobility. The levied troops, most of whom are foreigners, are perpetually on duty, and receive continual

S W E D E N.

NATIONAL TROOPS,

Infantry.

22 national regiments of different strength,			
1 battalion	1,284	} together	
1 ——— of Chasseurs	128		25,225

Cavalry.

Horse Guards		1,505
The noble Guard (6 companies)		395
5 regiments		5,000
Dragoons, 2 regiments		2,000
besides		
1 Escadr. of Dragoons of		400
1 ———		300
1 Comp.		100

LEVIED, OR STANDING TROOPS.

Infantry.

King's Guards		2,800
7 regiment, some of 1,260 men, some of less		5,960
Sawolax Chasseurs		400

Cavalry.

Muffars		300
Light Dragoons		200

Artillery.

5 Brigades		3,230
5 ——— (Fortificats.)		2,706

50,421

N A V Y.

25 ships of the line.

12—14 frigates.

50 galleys.

15—17,000 Seamen.

Two regiments of marines, together 1400 men. Some new ships of the line have been lately built, so as to make up the number of 30.

CAPITAL.] Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, and the residence of the king, is situated in N. lat. 59°. 20', and E. long. 19°. 30'. 760 miles N. E. from London. Standing at the junction of the Baltic sea, and the Lake Maler, it has the convenience both of salt and fresh water. It is built, partly on islands and partly on peninsulas, and its circuit is computed at 12 miles. Most of the streets are broad, and the market places spacious. In the quarter of the town properly called the city, are above 5000 houses, most of them standing on piles. They are built entirely of stone, and are four or five stories high; but some are covered with copper or iron plates, and others with tiles. The islands on which this city is built are six, viz. Stockholm, on which among other public buildings, are the new-palace, the senate-house, the town house and the bank—Ritterholm, on which is St. Francis' Church, where lie interred, many of the Swedish kings and Queens—Schiffsholm, on which is the dock yard—Helgandsholm, or the island of the Holy Ghost—Ronigholm—Landugard-island, on which is the king's orchard, park and orangery, and an orphan house, founded by Free-Masons, in 1750.

All

All parts of this city are connected by bridges. It affords a fine prospect of the Lake Maler, on one side, and of the harbour, on the other. The number of inhabitants who pay taxes, is computed at 60,000.

In this city are, a Board of Admiralty, an Office of the Revenue, a National Bank, with a capital of £ 466,666,134 sterling, a Custom-house, a Naval-office, an Insurance-office, an Office where goods manufactured in the kingdom are examined, and disputes between manufacturers decided—a commodious dock, various kinds of manufactories—a Royal Academy of Sciences, a College of Physicians, a Royal Library, a chemical and mechanical Elaboratory, an Academy for Painting and Sculpture, and others for Military Architecture and Land Surveying.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Sweden is beheading and hanging; for murder, the hand of the criminal is first chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after beheading, instead of being quartered, are burned. No capital punishment is inflicted without the sentence being confirmed by the king. Every prisoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjust condemnation, and in such a case demands a revival of the sentence; or else prays for pardon, or a mitigation of punishment. Malefactors are never put to death except for very atrocious crimes, such as, murder, housebreaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in some countries are considered as capital, are chiefly punished by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, imprisonment and hard labour, either for life, or for a stated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confession till the reign of the present king; but, in 1773, his Swedish majesty abolished this cruel and absurd practice.

ROYAL STYLE.] The king's style is king of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonien, Pomeran, &c.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] These are, the order of the *North Star*, consisting of 24 members; the order of *Vasa*, and the order of the *Sword*; the last created in 1772.

HISTORY.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of subduing the Roman empire, and all the southern nations of Europe. The introduction of Christianity by Ansgarius, bishop of Breacm, in 829, seems to present the first certain period of the Swedish history.

The history of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the first ages of Christianity, is confused and uninteresting, and even doubtful; but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes an appearance more regular, and affords wherewith to recompense the attention of those who choose to make it an object of their studies.

Magnus Ladulus, crowned in 1276, seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority; and to succeed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ablest princes who

who had ever sat on the Swedish throne; by his art and address he prevailed upon the convention of estates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the support of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increase of the regal power. The successors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and several commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great disorder and confusion, and the government was for a long time in the most unsettled state.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because, like Semiramis, she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to this last in 1394. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North, by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Several revolutions ensued after the death of Margaret; and at length Christian II. the last king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was also king of Sweden, engaged in a scheme to render himself entirely absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this design no less barbarous, proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility. This horrid design was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden, but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had already signalized his arms against the king of Denmark. An immense price was laid on his head. The Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity and address he eluded all their attempts, and escaped, under the disguise of a peasant, to the mountains of Dalecarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues; how to prevent his discovery he wrought in the brass-mines, how he was betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence, and in fine, surmounting a thousand obstacles, engaged the savage, but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia, to undertake his cause, to oppose, and to conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were mostly destroyed. Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his person. He was created therefore first administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the universal consent, and with the shouts of the whole nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles, had rid him of those proud and haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful and dangerous; but the opinions of Luther,

er, which began at this time to prevail in the North, the force with which they were supported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country; and the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the severest penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when poisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were soon visible: Arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties or deliberations.

Gustavus died in 1569, and was succeeded by his son Eric, who was deposed 1569. His brother John succeeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Russia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-establish the Catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made strong efforts for that purpose, and even reconciled himself to the pope, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual. John's son Sigismund, was, however, chosen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to restore the Roman Catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, a strenuous protestant, was chosen administrator of Sweden; and afterwards crowned in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigismund, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Gustavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the states, though then only in his eighteenth year. Gustavus, soon after his accession, found himself through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Russians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite disadvantages; all which he surmounted. He had almost become master of Russia; but the Russians were so tenacious of their independency, that his scheme was baffled. In 1617 he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a sum of money besides.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen a vast deal of military service, and he was assisted by the counsels of La Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than historians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the house of Austria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprising spirit, and supported his ancient implacable enemy Sigismund, whom Gustavus defeated. In 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzick, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the protestant cause placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of

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the most rapid and wonderful successes: Even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is sufficient to say, that after taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence in 1690, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous count Tilly the Austrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a battle; which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

The amazing abilities of Gustavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared so fully as after his death. He left behind him a set of generals, trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish army with most astonishing valour and success. His chancellor Oxenstiern, was as consummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Christina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with such success, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, 1648, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new system.

Christina was but six years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court, Descartes, Salmasius, and other learned men. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654. He died of a fever in 1660. His son and successor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the island of Bornholm, and Drontheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. The history of no prince is better known than that of this hero. Soon after his accession, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, formed a powerful confederacy against him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head against them all; and besieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but such was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Russians, and raised the siege. Such were his successes, and so numerous his prisoners, that the Russians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled, if they did not excel, those of Gustavus Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus king of Poland; but stained all his laurels, by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raised Stanislaus to the crown of Poland in 1705, and his name carried with it such terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and among

among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidst the full career of her successes against France. His stubbornness and implacable disposition, however, were such, that he cannot be considered in a better light than that of an illustrious madman; for he lost in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himself with 300 Swedes against 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worse than frantic. The Turks found it however convenient for their affairs to set him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madness; and after his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-shot, as it is generally said, at the siege of Fredericshall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-six years of age. It has been supposed, that Charles was not in reality killed by a shot from the walls of Fredericshall, but that a pistol from some nearer hand, from one of those about him, gave the decisive blow, which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is said to be very prevalent among the best informed persons in Sweden. And it appears, that the Swedes were tired of a prince, under whom they had lost their richest provinces, their bravest troops, and their national riches; and who yet untamed by adversity, pursued an unsuccessful and pernicious war, nor would ever have listened to the voice of peace, or consulted the internal tranquillity of his country.

Charles XII. was succeeded by his sister, the princess Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. Adolphus Frederic, married the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia; and ascended the Swedish throne in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, and much harrassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and opposition which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February, 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus the Third. He possessed abilities greatly superior to those of his father, and had much more ambition. He was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden; his understanding had been much cultivated, he had an insinuating address, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, from whence he wrote in the most gracious terms to the senate, repeatedly assuring them that he designed to govern according to the laws. In consequence of the death of his father, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majesty solemnly signed, and swore to observe twenty-four articles, relative to his future administration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promises before God to support the government of the kingdom as then established; to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the liberties and security of all his subjects.

and

and to reign with justice and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was established in the year 1720, and conformably to the present act of capitulation. In consequence of the declaration of the states, the king shall regard any person, who shall openly or clandestinely endeavour to introduce absolute sovereignty, as an enemy of the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, and every person must take an oath respecting this matter, before he can take possession of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the senate, the king promises to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, which are to be directed always by a majority of votes, and never to do any thing therein without, and much less against, their advice. To the end that the council of state may be so much the more convinced of the inviolable designs of his majesty, and of his sincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely disengaged from their oath of fidelity, in case that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And lastly, the king threatens any person with his highest displeasure, who shall be so inconsiderate as to propose to him a greater degree of power and splendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majesty desires only to gain the affection of his faithful subjects, and to be their powerful defender against any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

But scarcely had the king taken these solemn oaths to rule according to the then established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed the plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. And he made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. At his first arrival at Stockholm he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him: It was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them; he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct made him considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the warmth of their gratitude they forgot that motives of ambition might have some share in forming a conduct which to them appeared to proceed from principles of the purest benevolence. At the same time that he laboured to render himself generally popular, he also endeavoured to persuade the leading men of the kingdom, that he was sincerely and inviolably attached to the constitution of his country, that he was perfectly satisfied with the share of power the constitution had allotted to him, and he took every opportunity to declare, that he considered it as his greatest glory to be the first citizen of a free people. He seemed intent only on banishing corruption, and promoting union; he declared he would be of no party but that of the nation; and that he would ever pay the most implicit obedience to whatever the diet should enact. These professions lulled the many into a fatal security, though they created suspicions among a few of greater penetration,

tration, who thought his majesty promised too much to be in earnest. In the mean time, there happened some contentions between the different orders of the Swedish states; and no methods were left untried to foment these jealousies. Embassaries were likewise planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpose of sowing discontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them disaffected to the established government, and of exciting them to an insurrection. At length, when the king found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers* into his interest, on the 19th of August, 1772, he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber, in which the senate were assembled, and made all the members of it prisoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the transaction in which the king was engaged, till the scheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers stood over these with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a passport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The senators were then confined in separate apartments in the palace; and many others who were supposed to be zealously attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arrest. The remainder of the day the king employed in visiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magistrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were also tendered the next day to the people in general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring, that his only intention was to restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness, overturning the aristocratic form of government; reviving the old Swedish liberty, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," said he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred absolute power, or what is called sovereignty, esteeming it now, as before, my greatest glory to be the first citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town, to proclaim an assembly of the states for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet should absent himself, he should be considered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21st of August, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take possession of the square, where the house of nobles stands. The palace was invested on all sides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the states were to be assembled. These were not only charged, but soldiers stood over them with

* The fidelity which was manifested by a private soldier on this occasion, deserves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king being desirous of visiting the arsenal, went thither, and ordered the sentinel to admit him. The latter refused. "Do you know who you are speaking to?" said the king. "Yes," replied the soldier; "but I likewise know my duty." *Vid.* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, published by Charles Francis Sheridan, Esq; who was secretary to the British envoy in Sweden, at the time of the revolution; and is now secretary at war in Ireland.

with matches ready lighted in their hands. The several orders of the states were here compelled to assemble by the king's orders, and these military preparations were made in order to assist their deliberations. The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, he ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. This extraordinary transaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of psalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the assembly. He afterwards gave them to understand, that he intended in six years time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The Swedes, at some periods, have discovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have seemed fitted only for slavery; and when they were labouring to render themselves free, they have wanted that sound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the proper methods for securing their future freedom. The most capital defect of the Swedish constitution was the total want of all balance of its parts: And the division of the Swedish nation into three distinct classes of nobles, burghers, and peasants, whose interests were perpetually clashing, has been a circumstance very unfavorable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much restrained; but no sufficient regulations were adopted for securing the personal freedom of the subject. These defects in the Swedish constitution paved the way for the late revolution: But it is notwithstanding a just subject of surprise, that a bold and hardy people, who had so cautiously limited the power of their prince, should, at once, without a struggle, suffer him to proceed to so great an extension of his authority. It appears, however, that the exorbitant power which Gustavus the Third thus assumed, he exercised with some degree of moderation.

Gustavus, of Holstein-Gottorp, late king of Sweden, was born in 1746. He was married in 1766, to Sophia Magdalene, the princess-royal of Denmark, by whom he had issue a prince, Gustavus Adolphus, born Nov. 1, 1778.

Gustavus III. the Swedish Monarch, died, March 29th, 1792, *Ætat.* 45, of the wounds he received from Capt. Aukensstrom, a most daring and desperate assassin—who discharged the contents of a pistol into his body, on the 16th of March, at the Opera House.—The Prince Royal, who is but 14 years old, and has promising abilities, immediately on his father's death, was proclaimed King of Sweden, by the name of Gustavus Adolphus IV. The Duke of Sudermania, in compliance with his late Majesty's will, was declared "sole regent," or guardian of the young King, till he attains his majority, which is fixed at the age of eighteen.

MUSCOVY,

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Length unknown. } Miles. Degrees.
 Breadth 1500. } between { 23 and 180 East longitude;
 { 44. 40' and 72 N. latitude.

THIS immense Empire stretches from the Baltic sea and Sweden on the west, to Kamtschatka and the Pacific Ocean on the east: And from the Frozen Ocean on the north to about the 44th degree of lat. on the south, on which side it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caspian Seas, Great Tartary, Chinese Tartary, and other unknown regions in Asia.

The country now comprised under the name of Russia or the Russias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the rest of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander, or both put together.

Russia is, at present, divided into 42 governments, which are comprehended again under 19 general governments, viz.

A. European Part of Russia.

30 GOVERNMENTS.

TOWNS.

1. Government of St. Petersburg, divided into 7 Parts or Circles		Petersburg	170,000 inhab.
		Narya	191,000 (1784)
		Kronstadt	126,700 (Coxe)
			3,580
			5,000
2. Government of Wiburg, divided into 6 Circles		Wiburg	
		FriedrichsHam	
3. Government of Riga, properly of Livonia		Riga	27,938
		Dorpt	
		Pernau	
4. Government of Reval, properly of Estland		Reval	10,000
5. Government of Moskow divided into		Moskow	277,000 (Coxe)
			12,550 houses, and 153,000 inhabitants
		Kolomna	
6. Government of Wolodimer	14	Wolodimer	
7. ———— of Pereflaw		Pereflaw-Saleskoi	
8. Government of Kaluga, divided into 12 Circles.		Kaluga	
9. ———— of Tula	12	Tula	20,000 inhab.
10. ———— of Jarasslaw	12	Jarasslaw	
11. ———— of Kostroma	15 divisions.	Kostroma	
12. ———— of Nowogorod, 15 Circles.		Nowogorod	6,000
13. ———— of Twer	13	Twer	10,000
		Wologda	8,000
14. ———— of Wologda	19	Archangel,	
15. ———— of Nishnei Nowogorod		Nishnei Nowogorod	

13.

TOWNS.

16. Gov. of Woronesh	15	Woronesh	
17. ——— of Tanbow	14	Tanbow	
18. ——— of Kuisk	15	Kuisk	
19. ——— of Orel	13	Orel	
20. ——— of Charcow	15	Charcow	
21. ——— of Kiew (Cofac Coun- try, on the Ukraine) about 1 million of people	11	Kiew	
22. ——— of Tshernigo	11		Tshernigo
23. ——— of Nowogrod Sewersk	11	Nowogrod Sewersk	
24. ——— of Smolenik (White Russia)	13	Smolenik	4,000
25. ——— of Pleikow	10		Pleikow
26. ——— of Polotzka	11	Polotzka	
27. ——— of Mohilow	12	Mohilow	
28. ——— of Ekatarinoflow (New Russia)	20	Pultawa Charfon Aflow	
29. ——— of Tauria (or Crimea)	7		Caifa
30. ——— Wietka	10	Wietka	

B. ASIATIC RUSSIA.

12 GOVERNMENTS.

TOWNS.

1. Govern. of Caucasia (Kuban)		Tamou	
2. ——— of Casan, divided into 13 Circles		Casan, 2,5000	
3. ——— of Permia (Catainb.) 16 Circles			Perm
4. ——— of Penfa	7	Penfa	
5. ——— of Sinbirsk	12	Sinbirsk	
6. ——— of Saratow	9	Saratow	
7. ——— of Astrachan		Astrachan	70,000
8. ——— of Orenburg		Orenburg	
9. ——— of Ufa		Gurjew Ufa	
10. ——— of Tobolsk, 3 Divisions		Tobolsk 2000 houses Jeniscik	
11. ——— of Irkutzk, 17 Circles		Irkutzk 1,113 Jakutzk 600 Kiechta Oihötz	
12. ——— of Kolywan	5	Kolywan Tomsk 2,000	

C. Tributary ISLANDS in the Great South Sea, between Asia and America.

1. The ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.
2. The ANDREAN ISLANDS.
3. The FOX ISLANDS.
4. The KURILIAN ISLANDS.

Whole RUSSIA	Square Miles.	Population.	Popu. for every Square Mile.
A and B	4,880,000	24,000,000	5
A	1,194,976	20,000,000	26
B	3,695,024	4,000,000 for the ancient limits	1
Livonia	10,000	525,000	32
Estonia	6,400	200,000	31
Crimea	24,368	200,000, according to some accounts only	8 or only
By the Division of Poland, Russia acquired	31,000	1,200,000	57

According to the former division into governments, which is preferred in most of the maps, the European part of Russia contains only 1,008,000 square miles.

The superiority of the European part over the vast but uncultivated provinces of Asia, is striking.

The provinces acquired by the division of Poland, are highly valuable to Russia, to which the acquisition of Crimea is by no means comparable in value.

This immense empire comprehends upwards of fifty different nations. They may be reduced to the following classes: 1. Slavonian nations, viz. Russians, Polanders, Cossaks. 2. Lettonian (in Livonia.) 3. Finnish, viz. Laplanders, Thorkis, Estonians, Lieffs, Wotjaks, Tchermites, Tihowathes, Permekian, Wogolian, Mordunes, Samojedes, Osiaks, Yuraks. 4. Tartarian, viz. Nogaitz, Tihulym, Bashkirians, Kirgis, Yakutes, Bazabins, &c. Tartars. 5. Mongolian, viz. Kalmucs, Burats, Teleuts, &c. 6. Tungusian, Koriakes, Kamtskadaly, Kurilian, &c. 7. Migrated Europeans from every part of Europe, chiefly Germans. 8. Armenians, Indians, Persians. It is supposed, that the number of languages cannot well be less than the number of different nations.

CLIMATE.] In the southern parts of Russia, or Muscovy, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the most northern, the sun is seen in summer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muscovy a vast diversity of climate, and that the extremes of heat and cold are felt in this vast empire.

The severity of the climate, however, in Russia properly so called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who resided eleven years in Russia, observes, that the cold in St. Petersburg, by Fahrenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below freezing point; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. The same writer remarks, that it is almost difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold so great. But it may help to give some notion of it to inform the reader, that when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water

freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-lashes. As the common peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice. But, even in that state, the beard is found very useful in protecting the glands of the throat: And the soldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to supply their place. All the parts of the face, which are exposed, are very liable to be frozen: Though it has often been observed, that the person himself does not know when the freezing begins; but is commonly told of it first, by those who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual way to thaw it. It is also remarked, that the part, which has once been frozen, is ever after most liable to be frozen again. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly: And drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. When the thermometer has stood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water, thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King, frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been frozen in an hour and a half: But in this substance there was about a tea-cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy or spirits of wine. But notwithstanding the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means and provisions to guard against it, that they suffer much less from it than might be expected. The houses of persons in tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houses in Russia is by an oven constructed with several flues, and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. These ovens consume a much smaller quantity of wood than might be imagined; and yet they serve at the same time for the ordinary people to dress their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and suffer it to burn only till the thickest black smoke is evaporated; they then shut down the chimney to retain all the rest of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly so warm, they sit with very little covering, especially children, who are usually in their shirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very small, that as little cold may be admitted as possible: In the houses of persons of condition, the windows are caulked up against winter, and commonly have double glass frames. In short, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactness, opening or shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable, that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage which the Russians derive from the severity of their climate is, the preserving provisions by the frost. Good housewives, as soon as the frost sets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of snow between them, and then take them out for use as occasion requires.

squires : By which means they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburg, is esteemed the finest they have ; nor can it be distinguished at the table from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are by this means supplied in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible ; and it is not a little curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia, is by immersing them in cold water : For when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it seems to occasion a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction : But when produced by cold water, the ice seems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as fresh as if just gathered out of the garden ; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes so rancid and strong that it cannot be eaten. Vegetation in Russia is very rapid.

[WEALTH AND COMMERCE OF RUSSIA.] In to vast a tract of country as the empire of Russia, spreading under many degrees of latitude, watered by more than eight rivers, which run through the space of 2000 miles, and crossed by an extensive chain of mountains, we may expect to find an infinite number of natural productions, though we must make some allowances for the great deserts of Siberia, and the many other parts of this immense empire not yet thoroughly investigated by natural historians. The species of plants peculiar to this part of the globe, which have been already discovered, amount to many thousands. The soil contains almost all minerals, tin, platina, and some semimetals excepted, which have not yet been found. Yet in the mines of all these large provinces not half the number of miners is employed, nor even half as many mines have been explored as in Germany or even in England. Animals of every species are here likewise in such abundance, that a great quantity of them remain undescribed. As to the useful productions of the animal kingdom, Russia can boast of the greatest variety of the finest furs, as it has plenty of sables, martins, ermine, black, white, blue, and red foxes, white and common lynxes, bears, wolves, and several animals of the spotted cat kind. It abounds likewise in camels, horses, asses, and cattle both wild and tame ; it has innumerable flocks of more than one species of hares and squirrels, wild and tame sheep, wild goats, different sorts of deer, rein-deer, elks, the musk animal, the musk beaver, different antelopes, &c. The following data may give the reader a general idea of their value to the country. In 1781, there were exported, from the harbour of Petersburg alone, 428,877 skins of hares, 36,904 skins of grey squirrels, 1354 of bears, 2018 of ermine, 5639 of foxes, 300 of wild cats, besides those of wolves and of the *fustic* (a beautiful animal of the rat kind) exclusive of the exportation of the same articles from Archangel, Riga, and the Caspian Sea. In one year there were exported from Archangel 783,000 pud of tallow (a pud is equal to 40 lb.) 8602 pud of candies, and 102 pud of butter. In 1781, from Petersburg, 48,099 pud of red leather, 10,885 pud of leather for soles, 530,646 pud of candles, 50,000 pud of soap, 27,416 pud of ox bones, 990 calve-skins. The sheep of some Russian provinces are very profitable to their owners ;

the

the most esteemed on account of their wool and skins, are the sheep of the Calmucks and Kirgis Tartars. These nations sell the skins of the young, and even of the unborn lambs, which are the softest in the world, and feel like fatten. The Kirgis and Bashkires carry on a great trade in horses and camels, the former of which are much valued; there are individuals among them who possess sometimes 2000 horses. The cattle of the Ukraine are reckoned the best in Europe. In the year 1768, wax was exported to the value of 72,000 rubles; yet the vast quantity of honey, produced by the wild bees of Astrachan, Casan, and Orenburg, is not sufficient for the inland consumption of this article, which in Russia is very generally used instead of sugar. Birds are very plentiful in Russia; but the advantages to be derived from them do not seem to have been sufficiently attended to, as Russia continues to import feathers, goose-quills, and down. The fisheries of the Baltic and Caspian Sea, of the lakes Onega and Ladoga, are of great importance. The different sorts of sturgeon caught in great plenty in these waters, viz. the common sturgeon, the beluga, the sterlid, &c. serve not only for food, but supply also the fish-gum, of which there were exported 2000 pud from Petersburg in the year 1781. From the spawn of these fishes caviar is made; one single beluga contains sometimes 125 lb. of spawn. The caviar is prepared in different manners, and is mostly exported. The seals, walrosses, and cod, caught in the Russian seas, are likewise very important articles.

Of the productions of the vegetable kingdom, the most valuable to Russia are its immense forests of fir-trees. Oaks and beeches do not commonly grow to a useful size beyond the 60th degree of north latitude. In 1758, the value of timber exported amounted to 585,000 rubles, of pitch and tar to 82,000 rubles, pot ash to 37,000 rubles, masts to 59,000 rubles. In 1760, an English merchant contracted with the Russian government for leave to export annually, for the space of 30 years, 250,000 large pieces of timber, 10,000 masts, 10,000 smaller pieces of timber, 200,000 planks, 5000 fathom of birch-wood, and 200,000 small beams. This branch of trade is carried on chiefly by the towns of Petersburg, Wiburg, Narva, Archangel, and Kola. The plant kalm, *Salsola Linudi*, from which alkali is extracted, grows near Astrachan and Aflow.

The European part of the Russian dominions, and chiefly the province of Livonia, is distinguished for the quantity of corn of all sorts it produces. The value of the rye and wheat exported annually amounts to upwards of 754,000 rubles. Tobacco is cultivated in several parts of Russia. Hemp, flax, and sail-cloth, Russia exports to the amount of 600,000 rubles. In 1768, Russia received for hemp-seed exported 93,000 rubles; for hemp-oil, commonly called linseed-oil, 255,000 rubles; for flax-seed 493,000 rubles. Archangel sent abroad in 1777, 62,043 cwt. of flax-seed, 71,783 pud of hemp, 105,928 arschijn (yards) of linen, and 3210 ropes.

The mineral stores of this empire would be much more valuable, if there was a greater population and more liberty: Yet the gold mines near Catharineburg produce annually no less than 240 lb. of gold-dust. Among the richest mines are those of Kolivan, which yielded some years ago from 200 to 400 pud of silver, but of late from 400 to 800 pud, or about 30,000 pounds of silver; every 100 lb. of silver containing 3 lb.

3 lb. of gold. The silver mines at the Schlangenbergl, and the copper, lead, and iron mines, (especially those of the Altai, and of the several branches of the Ural,) produce great riches. The mines in the neighbourhood of Nertschinsk, near the borders of China, yield annually 16,000 pounds of silver and some quick-silver. In 1781, there was exported from Petersburg 3,589,869 shippound of iron, and 280,000 shippound of copper; lead to the value of 96,000 rubles, and sugar of lead (saccharum Saturni) to the value of 6000 rubles. There are several manufactures of sulphur in the empire; one of them, established at Sernoi Gorodoc, near the river Wolga, produces 1500 pud. Salt abounds in Russia, but as there is not a sufficient number of salt-works, a considerable quantity of salt is still imported. Hinglass (mica membranacea, Cronstact) is a famous mineral production of Russia; it is found in Siberia, especially in the neighbourhood of Irkutsk in the Ural mountains, and in the island of Solowezkoï, in the government of Alt-mihen; the largest and most valuable plates are found in the province of Wologda, 3037 pud of it were exported from Petersburg in 1779. There are besides many sorts of jasper, marble, and granit; the latter being found in very large masses, is of great use in ornamental architecture.

The whole of the exports of Russia amounted in 1783 to near 13 million of rubles; the imports did not much exceed the sum of 12 millions. So much has commerce been encouraged of late, that in the course of five years the value of the exports increased at the rate of nearly a million each year. The imports consist chiefly of wine, spices, fruits, fine cloth, and other manufactured commodities and articles of luxury. The English, and next to them the Dutch, have the most considerable share in the Russian trade. The value of the exports from Russia into Great-Britain amounted in 1785 to 1,606,688l. the value of the imports from Great-Britain, &c. to 233,998l. sterling. (Custom-house Account, presented to the House of Commons 1787.)

The commerce of the Black Sea has considerably increased since the late war with the Turks. The value of the imports in the several harbours on the Black Sea, amounted in 1785 to 806,330 piasters, the piaster computed at 40 paras each, nearly equal to 241,819l. sterling. The exports from the same harbours amount to 735,117 rubles.

It is apparently owing to the want of hands that there are at present no more than 484 manufactures in the whole empire. Some of them, however, are brought to a degree of perfection, which proves the skill and ingenuity of the nation. As the manufacture of musquets and other arms at Tula, which employs 6000 people, and supplies the Russian dominions,

There are some useful canals, viz. that of Ladoga, Twcr, and others.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY,] Russia is in general a flat, level country, except toward the north, where lie the Zimnopoulos mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphaei of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the western side of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Mount Caucasus borders a range of vast plains extending to the sea of Oral. And here we may observe, that from Petersburg to Peking, one shall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary, and from Pe-

tersburg to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburg, and Amsterdam, we scarcely can perceive the smallest hill.

The most considerable rivers are the *Wolga*, or *Volga*, running east and south, which, after traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and winding a course of 3000 English miles, discharges itself into the Caspian sea: It is not only reckoned the largest, but one of the most fertile rivers of Europe: It produces all kinds of fish; and fertilizes all the lands on each side, where grow the richest trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long course there is not a single cataract to interrupt the navigation, but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, multiplies its quantity of isles, as it divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: And all these arms divide themselves into others still less, which join and meet again, so that the *Wolga* discharges itself into the Caspian sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian sea. The *Don*, or *Tanaïs*, divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia; and in its course towards the east, comes so near the *Wolga*, that the late czar had undertaken to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal: This grand project, however, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its turnings and windings, discharges itself into the *Palus Mæotis*, or sea of *Asoph*, about four hundred miles from its rise. The *Borysthenes*, or *Dnieper*, is among the largest rivers in Europe, and runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourne, near *Oczakew*; it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the two *Dwina*, one of which empties itself at *Riga* into the Baltic; the other has its source near *Ustiaga*, and dividing itself into two branches near *Archangel*, there falls into the White Sea.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the foregoing table, Russia contains 24,000,000 inhabitants. As her imperial majesty of all the Russias possesses many of the countries from whence the prodigious swarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire issued, there is the strongest reason to believe, that her dominions must have been better peopled formerly than they are at present:—twenty-four millions, are but a thin population for the immense tract of country she possesses. As the like decrease of inhabitants is observable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reason in natural causes, which we cannot discuss here.

The Russians, properly so called, are in general a personable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for a long time of the year is continually present to their eyes. Their officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour; but in the late war with the king of Prussia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks they greatly distinguished themselves. They are

are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; they endure extreme hardships with great patience; and can content themselves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness; no less than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people but many of the boyards, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity presented themselves upon the streets, while the court of Moscow was by far the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of those, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, little better than beasts of burden to support the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Russians, before his days, had hardly a ship upon their coasts. They had no conveniences for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion; and they entertained a sovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present, a French or English gentleman may live as comfortably and sociably in Russia, as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the present emperors, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain. It is, however, said that they are yet addicted to intemperance.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts. The Russian nobility, however, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majesty even interests herself in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign services.

It is said that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families, as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they thought themselves ill-treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themselves; and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is examined stark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defects they find in her person. On her wedding-day she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even among the lowest ranks;

ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which extended even to scourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded against by the laws of the country, or by particular stipulations in the marriage contract.

FUNERALS.] The Russians entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for his soul, to purify it with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, the company returns to the deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication; which lasts, among the better sort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a priest every day says prayers over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer, in his long journey, to the place of his destination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Russians are remarkable for the severity, barbarism and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, hundreds, nay thousands, at a time. The single and double knout were lately inflicted upon ladies,* as well as men of

*A particular account of the manner in which this punishment was inflicted upon a Russian lady, is given in *Monif. L'Abbé Chappe D'Austeröche's* journey into Siberia. Madame Lapouchin was one of the finest women belonging to the court of the empress Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign ambassador, then engaged in a conspiracy. This lady, therefore, being suspected to be concerned in the conspiracy, was condemned, by the empress Elizabeth, to undergo the punishment of the knout. She appeared at the place of execution in a genteel undress, which contributed still to heighten her beauty. The sweetness of her countenance, and her vivacity, were such as might indicate indiscretion, but not even the shadow of guilt; although I have been assured by every person of whom I have made inquiry, that she was really guilty. Young, lovely, admired, and sought for at the court, of which she was the life and spirit, instead of the number of admirers her beauty usually drew after her, she then saw herself surrounded only by executioners. She looked on them with astonishment, seeming to doubt whether such preparations were intended for her. One of the executioners then pulled off a kind of cloak which covered her bosom; her modesty taking the alarm, made her start back a few steps; she also turned pale, and burst into tears. Her clothes were soon after stripped off, and in a few moments she was quite naked to the waist, exposed to the eager looks of a vast concourse of people profoundly silent. One of the executioners then seized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, so as to raise her a few inches from the ground: The other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs, with his rough hands hardened at the plough, and, without any remorse, adjusted her on the back of his companion, in the proper posture for receiving the punishment. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down; sometimes, like a butcher going to slay a lamb, he seemed to soothe her, as soon as he had fixed her in the most favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip called knout, made of a long strap of leather prepared for this purpose; he then retreated a few steps, measuring the requisite distance with a steady eye; and leaping backwards, gave a stroke with the end of the whip, so as to carry away a slip of skin from the neck to the bottom of the back; then striking his feet against the ground, he took his aim for applying a second blow parallel to the former; so that in a few moments all the skin of her back was cut away in small slips, most of which remained hanging to the shirt. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and she was directly banished into Siberia. In 1762, she was recalled from banishment by Peter III.

quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders; and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking him upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewise practised in Russia; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though she prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia, except in the case of high treason; But when this matter is thoroughly investigated, there is much less humanity in it than has been supposed. For there are many felons who die under the knout, and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines; so that there is reason to believe, that not fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries wherein capital punishments are authorized by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei Voloshok, and other places: But the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerzhink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at these mines. The greatest part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married: The latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themselves and families.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expense very trifling. The Russians perform the longest and most uncomfortable journeys, with the greatest facility and dispatch. Like their Scandinavian and Lapland neighbours, they travel in sledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way towards February, becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the sledges, in which they may lie at full length, and so sleep and travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Petersburg and Moscow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majesty, in her journeys, is drawn in a house which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies for four people, by 24 post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA.] As the present subjects of the Russian empire, in its most extensive sense, are the descendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, so we find among them a vast variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the discov-

eries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but they now make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Tscheremisses and Morduars; a peaceable industrious people. The Baskirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kasan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmuks occupy the rest of the tract to Astrachan and the frontiers of the Usbecs; and in consideration of certain presents they receive from her imperial majesty, they serve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Cossaks*, who lately made a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circaska, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects of the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossaks approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation choose a chief, whom they call *hauptman*, and he resides at Circaska; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the *hauptman* holds his authority during life. He acts as superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own *hetman*, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely under Peter the Great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Cossaks of the Ukraine put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their *hetman* Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles. He brought over, however, some of the Zaporovian Cossaks, who were settled about the falls of the river Nieper, but most of them were cut in pieces.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kasan, and of those derived from them, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristic
mark

marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well-made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of a very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion, rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: From their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kasan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has a chapel, school, priest, and school-master; though some of these priests and school-masters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, Tobolsk, and Astrachan, which are under the direction of the Gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the boors; and their merchants, besides what these little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, with the antiquities of each. Such as choose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kasan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter: Coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but, as they extend their connexions by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kasan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England, Morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. These villages were at first composed of troops of wandering shepherds; but being drawn gradually closer together by successive population, they found themselves under the necessity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow; for which reason they use more manure than the Russians. They are much attached to the cultivation of bees; many of them are perfect masters of this part of rural economy, and reap great profit from it. Most of the villages also contain tanners, shoe-makers, taylors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters. The laborious females spin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation.

The moveables of these Tartars are, for the most part, only such as are necessary to the real wants of life. Their catalogue of kitchen and table furniture is very short; and they have but few utensils of agriculture and mechanics. A chest or two, some carpets and pieces of felt, mats made of the bark of trees, with which they cover broad benches that they use instead of beds, with a few chairs and tables, are commonly all the furniture to be seen in their houses; though some of the principal people have stuffed cushions and pillows on their sleeping

sleeping benches. But chairs and tables are only seen in towns; and even there, never but in the houses of such as have business with foreigners. They commonly make four meals a day, at which their bench serves them for table and chairs; for on this they place themselves round the dishes, each person sitting on his heels, after the oriental manner. They make ablutions, and say prayers, at the beginning and end of all their meals. The Tartars of Kafan, as well as most of the Mahometan Tartars, are very polite, both among one another and towards strangers. Old men, who have maintained good characters, are held in great veneration among them: And a grey beard is considered as naturally entitling a man to respect. They are fond of asking advice of their old men, who have always preference and precedence, and are the arbitrators in all disputes.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages of Astrachan are perfectly similar to those of the Tartars of Kafan. In the city of Astrachan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and several shops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, and Bougharians: And their manufactories of Morocco leather, cottons, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The *Fins* are of Asiatic origin, and have a close resemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civilized, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have schools and academies, and make some progress in the arts and sciences. They profess the Lutheran faith, and use the christian era in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exercise most of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting and fishing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a considerable degree of freedom, as the Russian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Wotjaks*, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viatk, in the government of Kafan. This nation was one of those who were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but, since it has been subjected to Russia, it has preferred the quiet and security which agriculture affords, to the ambulatory life of herdsmen and shepherds, and fixed habitations to their ancient tents. The *Wotjaks* are of a middle stature, and generally red haired; they are honest, peaceable, and hospitable; but superstitious, and very credulous. They are assiduous in rural economy, neglecting neither the culture of bees, nor the chase; in the latter they use indifferently the bow or fire-arms. In their leisure hours many of them employ themselves in making all sorts of turnery, such as cups, spoons and shuttles; and others varnish all kinds of cups and bowls. The women are employed in sewing, in making linen, coarse cloths, and ornaments of embroidery. Some of the *Wotjaks* are Christians, but a great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The *Oshaks*, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. As these people divide themselves

any of them are allowed, they choose their chiefs from among the nobles. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the case with other Finnish nations. These people have a singular custom, that the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the presence of her father-in-law; nor is the son-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law till his wife has had a child. They are most of them idolaters; and one of their opinions is, that bears enjoy after death a happiness at least equal to that which they expect for themselves. Whenever they kill one of these animals, they sing songs over him, in which they ask his pardon for the injury they have done him. They also hang up his skin, to which they shew many civilities, and pay many fine compliments, to induce him not to take vengeance on them in the world of spirits. Indeed, it appears that bears are in great estimation among all the Pagan nations of the north and north-east.

The *Wogolians* are rather below the middle stature, have generally black hair, and a scanty beard. They are of a gay disposition, honest, laborious, and acute; but slovenly and fickle, and inclined to be extremely passionate. Their women are well made, robust, civil, and laborious. They are unacquainted with the use of letters, as well as some of their kindred nations: They do not reckon their time by years, though they mark the months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature which they observe in their forests. They distinguish themselves into tribes or races: And a *Wougoul* village is commonly composed only of one family, whose chief or elder performs the functions of staroste, or magistrate of the village. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover much eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tschouwafches* dwell along the two sides of the *Wolga*, in the governments of *Nischni-Nowogrod*, *Kasan* and *Orenberg*. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that, on the wedding night, the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. A late writer says, "Among the *Tschouwafches* the husband is master of the house; he orders every thing himself; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply: A custom calculated to prevent domestic broils. Accordingly quarrels are very uncommon in the families of the *Tschouwafches*."

The *Kirghisians* have a frank and prepossessing air, similar to that which characterizes the *Tartars* of *Kasan*. They have a sharp, but not a fierce look, and smaller eyes than those *Tartars*. They have good natural sense, and are affable; and high-spirited; but fond of their ease, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deserts in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitute their principal occupation. As their courses are regulated by necessity, in summer they traverse the northern deserts, and in winter the southern parts. It is only when they have nothing else

to do that they follow hunting and fishing, by unknown to them. Their troops of horses, camels, cows, goats, and sheep, which supply them both with food and ment. Camels are of great service to them throughout their whole economy, carrying their huts and furniture at every change of station which they do to the weight of nine hundred pounds. The Kirgians dress in the eastern manner, but their clothes are for the most part better than those worn by the other Tartars. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons; they having generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children, all smoke, and take snuff: They keep the latter in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children and slaves.

The *Tungusians* form one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle stature, well made, and of a good mien. Their sight and hearing are of a degree of acuteness and delicacy that is almost incredible; but their organs of smelling and feeling are considerably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their usual perambulations; and they can even describe a course of some hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such descriptions. They also discover the tracks of the game by the compression of the grass or moss. They learn foreign languages with ease, are alert on horseback, good hunters and dexterous at the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat that the skull of a Kalmuc may easily be known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, their complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. The women are of the same shape and make with the men, and the skin of their face a wholesome white and red; they are lively, agreeable, and industrious. The standing character of this tribe is rough, but less dissolute and base than they are commonly supposed to be. They are much attached to their chiefs or masters, but their active spirit, and their improvidence and carelessness, make them thievish and dirty. In their robberies, they use more stratagem than violence, and as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's spirits, they are seldom accompanied with murder. They are superstitious about good and bad days, and have written laws which are founded on reason, custom, and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females, and never looks upon a woman as the author of any crime. A rape and adultery is punished with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their speech is a mongrel dialect with many Tartarian words, but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The sole profession among them is the breeding of cattle; they pursue the chase as an amusement; their dwelling is in tents, or courts of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Russians *hibitka*, and much resemble the Kirgians. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads

are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food consists of animals tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, and let it sink ever so much; so that in every herd the flesh market hath the appearance of a layfall of carrion; they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually. During the summer they keep to the north, and in the winter to the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The *Kamtschadales* have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with fables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert in fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. Their nets are made of the stamina of nettles. When they are not engaged in hunting and fishing, they sometimes employ themselves in building huts, forming different wooden utensils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows: But much of their time is passed in absolute idleness; for they are generally extremely indolent. Poverty gives them no concern; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chase. They live in villages, consisting of a few small houses, and situated in general near some river. When a village becomes too populous, they separate and form a new village. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtschadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance; and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this wide and forlorn region, that was so long unknown to Europe, some new mines have lately been discovered, which, upon their first opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine silver, and which is said to have been obtained with little difficulty or expense. But Kamtschacka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia, and here some of the greatest criminals are sent.

RELIGION.] The religion established in the Russian empire is the Greek. The most essential point in which their profession of faith differs from that of the Latin church, is the doctrine, that the Holy Ghost proceeds from the Father only. The Greek church keeps Lent and other days of fast, which are very numerous, with the utmost strictness; its liturgy in Russia continues to be read in the old Slavonian language; and its form of worship is at least as much overloaded with

with rites as the Roman Catholic. Saints are held in veneration; painted images of them, but no statues are suffered in the churches. There is a sect of dissenters, who call themselves Christians of the old faith, but who are called apostates by the orthodox church; the differences between them relate chiefly to ceremonies. The church has been governed since the time of Peter the Great by a national council, called the Holy Synod, composed of a president, two vice-presidents, and nine other members. The Russian clergy consists of three metropolitans, viz. those of Kiew Tobolsk, and the new-appointed metropolitan of Georgia; of 28 bishops, independent of the metropolitans, and subject only to the authority of the Synod, who preside over dioceses called Eparchies, and of protopopes, popes, and deacons. Marriage is forbid to the archbishops and bishops, but is allowed to the inferior clergy. There are 479 convents for men, and 74 for women, containing about 70,000 persons; the convents of monks are governed by presidents, called Archimandrites; those of nuns by women, called Iguenias. Above 900,000 peasants belong to the estates in possession of the clergy.

Besides the Greek religion, all other religious professions are tolerated, and enjoy the free exercise of their worship. Livonia and some other provinces, which formerly belonged to Sweden, are of the Lutheran religion. The Roman Catholics in the Polish provinces, in which the order of Jesuits is still tolerated, are under the government of the Catholic Archbishop of Mohilow. The Jews are tolerated only in or near the Polish provinces. The Armenians have a bishop of their own, residing at Astrachan. In the province of Saratow there are several flourishing settlements of Moravian brethren. Of the Asiatic nations belonging to this vast empire, some are Mahomedans, others worship the Delai Lama of Tibet, or the great Kutuchtu of the Calmucks, and others, as the Kamskadales and Kurilians have a form of Pagan superstition peculiar to themselves.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Russia is a mixture of the Polish and Slavonian; their priests, however, and the most learned of their clergy, make use of what is called modern Greek; and (it is said) those who know that language in its purity, are at no loss for understanding it in its corrupted state. The Russians have thirty-six letters, the forms of which have a strong resemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING, &c.] Sciences and arts, introduced by Peter the Great, are highly encouraged by the present empress. There are in Russia three universities, at Petersburg, Moscow, and Kiew; the latter of which is merely a seminary for the clergy; an academy of sciences, an academy of arts, and an academy of the Russian language. The present empress is actually employed in founding a number of schools, for the education of the lower classes of her subjects, throughout the best inhabited parts of the empire; an institution of the most beneficial tendency, which, if rightly executed, will entitle the great Catharine, more than any of her predecessors, to the gratitude of the Russian nation.

GOVERNMENT.] The emperor, or autocrat of Russia, (the present empress styles herself autocratrix) is absolute. He must be of the Greek church by the ancient custom of the empire. The only written
fundamental

fundamental law existing is that of Peter the First, by which the right of succession to the throne depends entirely on the choice of the reigning monarch. Some writers, however, consider the indivisibility of the empire as a second fundamental law of the monarchy. The nobility and gentry have no rights and privileges to protect them against the arbitrary will of the sovereign, who has unlimited power over their lives and property, as well as over all the rest of his Russian subjects. Yet some of the conquered provinces, as Livonia and Esthonia, enjoy, by the peace of Nyftadt, some valuable privileges. The Cossacks and some other Asiatic nations are likewise in a state of less servile subjection.

The management of public affairs is entrusted to several departments. At the head of all those concerned in the regulation of internal affairs (the synod or ecclesiastical convocation excepted) is the senate, under the presidency of a chancellor and vice-chancellor. The sovereign himself nominates the members of this supreme court, which is divided into six chambers, four of which are at Petersburg, and two at Moscow. The provinces are ruled by governors appointed by the sovereign; each government, containing on an average 400,000 subjects, has two courts of justice, one of which is appropriated to civil and the other to criminal causes. Under the control of the senate are the following departments: The war department; the board of admiralty; the supreme court of appeals at Moscow, of which the court of judicature at Petersburg is a branch; The latter has the control of the civil magistrates in the cities, and of the court of Relief, established for the benefit of those who have not the means of suing for redress in the other courts. From all courts of justice there lies an appeal to the senate. The other departments are: The board of the treasury; the board of commerce; the board of the mines, including the inspection of the mint; the board of manufactures; the court of exchequer (or chamber of finances); the board of revision of all public accounts; the salt-revenue office; the post-office; the medical court; the department of police, and the chamber of seizures and forfeitures.

FINANCES.] The public revenue in 1765 amounted to only 20 millions. The present revenue is a very large one, considering the low price of all the necessaries of life, which are at least four times cheaper than in England: The revenue commonly exceeds the expense of the government.

This sum is raised, 1. From a capitation tax, which at present has been extended to the provinces of Livonia, Esthonia, and Finland, contrary to the privileges granted to them by Peter the Great. The produce of this tax in 1768 was seven millions of rubles, but it is since greatly increased. 2. From the customs, amounting to upwards of three million of rubles, and increasing with the extension of commerce. 3. From the monopoly invested in the crown of vending all sorts of spirituous liquors, which yields likewise upwards of three million of rubles. 4. From the salt works, which produce one million and a half. 5. From taxes on lands, on sales of gentlemen's estates, fisheries, and licences of public houses. 6. From the profits of the mint. 7. From the mines.

The public debts are computed to amount to about 40 million of rubles.

ARMY.] The army is generally calculated to amount to from 400 to 450,000 men; according to Busching they amounted in 1772, to above 600,000.

Regular and Irregular, 1783.

	Men.
Regular cavalry	56,000
Irregular cavalry	48,000
Regiments of infantry	160,000
Garrisons	87,000
Militia cavalry	26,000
Artillery of the camp	8500
of the garrisons	8500
Train	3000
	<hr/>
	397,800

The army in 1784 amounted to 368,901, viz.

Guards	7201
Cavalry	59,662
Infantry	249,886
Artillery	29,662
Garrisons	87,000
Cossacs, &c.	30,000
	<hr/>
	Total 368,901

NAVY.] Sixty-three armed ships, of which 24 are of the line, 20,000 sailors. It has been related, that (in 1785) there were 48 ships of the line at Cronstadt, and 12 ships of the line in the Black Sea. By other accounts the strength of the Russian navy is much less considerable.

The chief harbours are, 1. Cronstadt, not far from Petersburg, on the gulf of Finland, where there is a fine dock-yard. 2. Reval, in the province of Livonia, on the Baltic Sea. 3. Archangel, on the White Sea. 4. Cherfon, on the Black Sea, in the province of Ekatarinoslow. The admiralty consists of one high-admiral, three admirals, three vice-admirals, and four countre admirals.

The whole army was, in the year 1784, divided into nine different divisions and three corps, the Caucasian that of Orenburg and of Siberia. All the war affairs are under the war department of Petersburg, where there is also founded an academy for cadets and for artillery. Tulo, the capital of the province of the same name, is famous for its great manufacture of muskets. The expenses of the whole army amount only to about two millions of rubles.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, } Petersburg naturally takes the lead
AND OTHER BUILDINGS. } in this division. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in N. latitude 59°. 57' and E. long. 31°; but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed that it stands on both sides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small fishing huts, on a spot so marshy, that the ground was formed into nine islands; by which,

which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are still divided. Without entering into too minute a description of this city, it is sufficient to say, that it extends about six miles every way, and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war and commerce, that are to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe. There is but one bridge over the Neva, which joins the Dock yard to Basil's island.—It is constructed with flat bottomed boats, which in the spring are laid across the river, and removed in autumn before the frost begins. There is a convent which deserves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the empress's expense; 200 of them of superior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradesmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements suitable to their conditions of life, and those of the lower class are presented with a sum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themselves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a Foundling Hospital, assistant to that noble one established at Moscow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then after the utmost attention to her, she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Peterburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer time is surprising. In winter, 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It is supposed, that there are 170,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almost every sect of the Christian religion is tolerated. It also contains five palaces, some of which are superb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that side next the sea by the Fortrefs of Cronstadt; which, considering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is sufficient to guard it on that side from the attempts of any enemy. Peterburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes. All the neighbourhood of this city is covered with country houses and gardens.

The city of Moscow, formerly the capital of this great empire, stands on a pleasant plain, in N. lat. 55° 40' E. long. 38° 14' 14 miles N. E. of London. The river Moskwa running through it in a winding course, and several eminences, interspersed with gardens, groves and lawns, form most delightful prospects. It seems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not attested by the most unquestionable authors: But we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated state of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater lustre in the eyes of a traveller. Busching speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be 16 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moscow contains 1600 churches, among which are 11 Cathedrals, and 271 parish churches. Around the exchange, according to Busching, are about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city displays a greater contrast than Moscow, of magnificence and meanness

means in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world: It stands in the Kremlin, one of the interior circles of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure-house, and stables, a visiting-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver: The architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would scarcely suffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble structures. The public is not unacquainted with the barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Basilides, ordered the architect of the church of Jerusalem to be deprived of his eye-sight, that he might never contrive its equal. The story is improbable, and might take its rise from the arbitrary disposition of that great prince. I shall have occasion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moscow. The inhabitants are so distractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the Virgin Mary, in the Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is seen at the famous Holy House of Loretto in Italy. Voltaire says, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow at the time he was building Petersburg; for he caused it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling Hospital at Moscow is an excellent institution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the present empress, and is supported by voluntary contributions, legacies and other charitable endowments. It is an immense pile of building, of a quadrangular shape, and contains 3000 foundlings: When the establishment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen, they have the liberty of choosing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpose there are different species of manufactures established in the hospital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeship, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of setting up for themselves: A sum of money is bestowed upon each foundling for that purpose, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Russian empire. This is a very considerable privilege in Russia, where the peasants are slaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permission of their masters.

Nothing can be said with certainty as to the population of Moscow. When lord Carlisle was the English ambassador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compass, and the number of houses was computed at 40,000. Voltaire says, that when he wrote,

Moscow

Moscow was twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000 : Later and more authentic accounts say, that the number of inhabitants in Moscow is about 150,000 : consisting of noble families, merchants, priests, monks, mechanics, labourers, carriers, sledge-drivers and servants, belonging to the church.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Russia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many stupendous monuments of the public spirit of her sovereign ; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old sepulchres of an unknown nation, whose instruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural history at Petersburg, is a rhinoceros dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his skin, and the hair upon it perfect. I have already hinted at the passion the Russians have for bell-ringing ; and we are told, that the great bell of Moscow, the largest in the world, weighs 443,772 pounds. It is 19 feet high, and 23 in diameter ; and was cast in the reign of the empress Anne ; but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large peice is broken out of it ; so that it lately lay in a manner useless. Mr Bruce, in his late Memoirs, mentions a bell at Moscow, founded in Czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, 64 in circumference, and two in thickness, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Petersburg, and raising it of a sudden from a few fishing-huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curiosity hardly to be paralleled since the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The same may be said of the fortress of Cronstadt, in the neighbourhood of Petersburg, which is almost impregnable. This fortress and city employed, for some years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day ; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little assistance from some German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raised to his people, at the time when they could hardly be said to have possessed a ship in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in person in all these amazing works, with the same assiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

GENERAL REMARKS.] Russia is indebted for its present flourishing state to the efforts of two great monarchs, succeeding each other at no great distance of time. Had the intermediate sovereigns between Peter the Great and Catharine the Second, who filled up the interval of 37 years, been capable of following the steps of the first of these monarchs, who found, about 90 years ago, his native country uncivilized and desolate, this rising empire would have been much farther advanced in wealth and prosperity. The present condition of this country requires, that the increase of its population should be the principal object of the attention of government. It is the obvious policy of Russia to avoid wars, to encourage marriages, and to promote agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Though its provinces are of an enormous extent, though its army is the largest in Europe, the Russian empire is not yet become formidable to the other great European powers. Its vast dominions, peopled in the more remote parts by numerous, fierce, and restless barbarians, contain as many

many domestic enemies, who, in a great measure, engage the attention and occupy the power of the state. The neighbouring Persian and Turkish dominions, easily provoked to hostilities, require large bodies of troops to guard the frontiers, which cannot be withdrawn without endangering the safety of the whole empire.

The present Empress of Russia, notwithstanding the very unfavourable circumstances which attended her taking possession of the government of that empire, has, since the commencement of her reign, filled her high station with distinguished reputation and ability. She has encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her subjects: Though the extreme despotism of the Russian government is a great impediment to the progress of the arts and sciences, and to the real prosperity of this empire. Her imperial majesty has, however, effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police of her vast empire, and particularly in the courts of justice. One of these is, the abolition of the use of torture; and she has also adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. The new code of laws, for which she hath given her instructions, is yet wanting to give political felicity to an oppressed people. But one of the most remarkable transactions of her reign, is her establishment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from belligerent powers. By the code of maritime law, which her imperial majesty has endeavoured to enforce, neutral ships are to enjoy a free navigation, even from port to port, and on the coasts of belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the subjects of belligerent powers are looked upon to be as free, on board such neutral ships, excepting only such goods as are expressly stipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great Britain. It was in 1780 that her imperial majesty invited the powers not at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Those who engaged in it were to make a common cause of it at sea, against any of the belligerent powers who should violate, with respect to neutral nations, these principles of maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, the same year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States-General.

Catherine II. Empress of all the Russias, princess of Anhalt Zerbst, was born in 1729, and ascended the throne in 1762, upon the deposition and death of her husband. She was married to that prince whilst duke of Holstein-Gottorp, in 1745, by whom she had issue Paul Petrowitz, great duke of Russia, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and by his present duchess, the princess of Wirtemberg, has had two sons, Alexander and Constantine, and a daughter Alexandrina Pawlodna.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.
TABLE.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.			
Areas in Square Miles.		Population.	Population for each single Sq. Mile.
92,294	Kitchin	According to some Authors only	
104,701	{ Guthrie, or Templeman	9,000,000	115
106,928		St. Ueb. Probably	11,000,000
		21,000,000	109
A. GREAT-BRITAIN.			
Extent and Divisions.	Areas in Sq. Miles.	Population.	Population for every square Mile
Long. 2° east, 6° 20' W.	Kitchin 70,096	9,300,000 but more probably 8,300,000	105
Lat. 49°—58° 50'—the Shetland Islands to above 61°.	St. U. 79,772		
ENGLAND and WALES	54,112	8,000,000 5,500,000 Dr. Price 8,447,200 Chalmer 7,000,000 the most probable statement	129
In England are: 28 Cities, above 650 Towns, & 1,586,000 Dwellings.			
CHALMER.			
SCOTLAND	25,600	1,300,000 1,500,000 according to others	51
B. IRELAND.			
	21,216	2,500,000 2,161,514 B.	117

ENGLAND is divided into the following 40 Counties or Shires.

CHIEF TOWNS.

1. Middlesex	London	800,000 inhab. 900,000 accord. to Entick.	Houfes 130,000 & is constantly increasing.
2. Surrey	Southwark	1,000,000 Busching 750,000 Wendeborn	
		862,500 medium.	3.

3. Essex	Colchester, Harwich
4. Hertfordshire	Hertford
5. Kent	Canterbury, Dover
6. Sussex	Chichester, Winchelsea
7. Buckinghamshire	Buckingham
8. Bedfordshire	Bedford
9. Huntingdonshire	Huntingdon
10. Cambridgeshire	Cambridge, 6000 Ely
11. Suffolk	Ipswich, Bury, Newmarket
12. Norfolk	Norwich, Yarmouth
13. Oxfordshire	Oxford
14. Berkshire	Reading, Windsor
15. Gloucestershire	Gloucester
16. Worcestershire	Worcester, 25,000
17. Monmouthshire	Monmouth
18. Herefordshire	Hereford
19. Shropshire	Shrewsbury
20. Staffordshire	Stafford, Lichfield
21. Warwickshire	Warwick, Coventry 25,000, Birmingham 50,000
22. Leicestershire	Leicester
23. Derbyshire	Derby
24. Nottinghamshire	Nottingham, 17,000
25. Lincolnshire	Lincoln
26. Rutlandshire	Okeham
27. Northamptonshire	Northampton
28. Somersetshire	Bath, Bristol, 90,000
29. Wiltshire	Salisbury
30. Hampshire	Winchester, Portsmouth, Southampton
31. Dorsetshire	Dorchester
32. Devonshire	Exeter, Plymouth
33. Cornwall	Launceston
34. Yorkshire	York, Hull, Halifax, Leeds
35. Cheshire	Chester, 14,000
36. Durham	Durham
37. Lancashire	Lancaster, Manchester 28,000, Liverpool 40,000
38. Westmoreland	Appleby
39. Northumberland	Newcastle, 40,000
40. Cumberland	Carlisle, Whitehaven

WALES contains 7011 square miles, and about 300,000 people. It is divided into 12 counties: Pembrokeshire, Carmarthenshire, Glamorganshire, Brecknockshire, Cardiganshire, Radnorshire, Montgomeryshire, Merionethshire, Flintshire, Denbighshire, Carnarvonshire, Anglesea.

SCOTLAND is divided into 31 shires and two stewardships; 18 counties belonging to South Scotland, 15 to North Scotland. Their names are the following: 1. Midlothian (or Edinburg) 2. West Lothian. 3. East Lothian. 4. Merse or Berwick. 5. Roxborough. 6. Selkirk. 7. Peebles. 8. Dumfries. 9. Galloway. 10. Ayr. 11. Lanerk. 12. Dumbarton. 13. Renfrew. 14. Stirling. 15. Clackmannan. 16. Fife. 17. Kinross. 18. Bute. 19. Argyle. 20. Perth. 21. Forfar. 22. Kinkardine. 23. Aberdeen. 24. Bamff. 25. Nairne. 26. Elgin.

26. Elgin. 27. Inverness. 28. Cromartie. 29. Ross. 30. Sutherland. 31. Caithness, and the two stewardies. 32. Kirkcubright, and 33. Orkney and Shetland Islands. The chief towns are Edinburg, 81,865 inhabitants, Glasgow 30,000, Perth 11,000, Aberdeen 18,000, Inverness 11,000, Dumfries 5000.

IRELAND is divided into four provinces, those of *Leinster, Ulster, Connaught,* and *Munster*. Leinster contains the following 12 counties: 1. Dublin. 2. Louth. 3. Wicklow. 4. Wexford. 5. Longford. 6. East Meath. 7. West Meath. 8. King's County. 9. Queen's County. 10. Kilkenny. 11. Kildare. 12. Carlow. Ulster contains nine counties: 13. Down. 14. Armagh. 15. Monaghan. 16. Cavan. 17. Antrim. 18. Londonderry. 19. Tyrone. 20. Fermanagh. 21. Donegall.—To Connaught belong 5 counties: 22. Leitrim. 23. Roscommon. 24. Mayo. 25. Sligo. 26. Galway.—Munster contains 6 counties: 27. Clare. 28. Corke. 29. Kerry. 30. Limerick. 31. Tipperary. 32. Waterford. The chief towns of this kingdom are the following: Dublin, the capital of Ireland, contains about 160,000 inhabitants; (See Kutner's Letters) Corke 87,000, Limerick 32,000, Waterford and Galloway.

British Possessions beyond the Seas,

1. In EUROPE the fortress of Gibraltar, on the coast of Spain, 3,200 inhabitants.

2. In AFRICA, Cabo Corse, on the coast of Guinea, and some other forts there and near the Gambia, and the island of St. Helena.

3. In ASIA the extensive countries of Bengal, Bahar, and part of Oriza: The capital of Bengal is Calcutta, or Fort William, the residence of the governor-general of the English East-India Settlements. These territories are computed to contain 10,000,000 inhabitants, and to be in extent near 150,000 square miles. 2. Large settlements on the coast of Coromandel, of which Madras is the capital, containing 80,000 inhabitants. 3. The settlements of Bombay and Surat, on the Malabar coast, and many other forts and factories on the continent of India, and the islands of Sumatra, Bally, Banca.

4. In AMERICA the extensive provinces of Canada, 1. Nova Scotia; settlements in Labrador and Hudson's Bay, the islands of Newfoundland, Cape-Breton, and St. John. 2. In the *West-Indies*, the Bahama islands, Bermudas, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Montferat, Nevis, Grenada, and the Grenadines, Barbuda, Dominica, St. Vincent, Anguilla. These appendages to the British Empire, we shall describe more particularly in their proper places, and shall proceed to consider separately the three grand divisions of the British Empire, ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and IRELAND.

E N G L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees
Length 380	} between	{ 50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth 300		{ 2 East and 6-20 West longitude.

CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES.] THE longest day in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the shortest in the southern, near 8 hours. It is bounded on the north, by that part of the island called Scotland; on the east, by the German Ocean; on the west, by St.

St. George's Channel; and on the south, by the English Channel, which parts it from France.

The insular situation of England, renders it liable to a great uncertainty of weather, so that the inhabitants on part of the sea coasts are often visited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the same degree of latitude, are subject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, especially those who live on a dry soil. To this situation likewise is to be ascribed that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occasioned by refreshing showers and the warm vapours of the sea.

NAME AND DIVISIONS ANCIENT AND MODERN.] Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country; others, and with more probability, from *Anglen*, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which furnished a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island. In the time of the Romans, the whole island went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, signified painted or stained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: Other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The western tract of England, which is almost separated from the rest by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called *Wales*, or the *land of strangers*, because inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were strangers to the old natives.

The Romans divided England into,

1. *Britannia Prima*, which contained the southern parts of the kingdom.
2. *Britannia Secunda*, containing the western parts, comprehending *Wales*; and,
3. *Maxima Cæsariensis*, which reached from the Trent, as far northward as the wall of *Severus*, between *Newcastle* and *Carlisle*, and sometimes as far as that of *Adrian*, in *Scotland*, between the *Forth* and *Clyde*.

To these divisions some add the *Flavia Cæsariensis*, which they suppose to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England about the year 450, and when they were established in the year 587, their chief leaders appropriated to themselves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republick, consisting of seven kingdoms. But in time of war, a chief was chosen out of the seven kings; for which reason it has been called a political republick, its constitution greatly resembling that of ancient Greece.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, usually stiled the Saxon Heptarchy.

- | Kingdoms. | Counties. |
|--|---|
| 1. Kent founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823. | { Kent |
| 2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600. | { Sussex
{ Surry |
| 3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793. | { Norfolk
{ Suffolk
{ Cambridge
{ With the Isle of Ely |

E N G L A N D.

Kingdoms.	Counties.
4. West Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1066.	Cornwall Devon. Dorset Somerset Wilts Hants Berks Lancaster York
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792.	Durham Cumberland Westmoreland Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh
6. East Saxons, founded by Ercewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Essex. Middlesex, and part of Hertford The other part of Hertford Gloucester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Rutland Northampton
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 682, and ended in 874.	Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Buckingham. Oxford Stafford Derby Salop Nottingham Chester.

We preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progress of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits are: 1. Home circuit. 2. Norfolk circuit. 3. Oxford circuit. 4. Midland circuit. 5. Western circuit. 6. Northern circuit.

Middlesex is not comprehended; and Cheshire is left out of these circuits, because, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits. The circuits of Wales are: 1. North-East circuit. 2. North-West circuit. 3. South-East circuit. 4. South-West circuit.

I N E N G L A N D.

40. Counties, which send up to parliament	80 knights.
26 Cities (Ely none, London four.)	50 citizens.
167 Boroughs, two each	334 burgesses.
5 Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham Ferrars, and Monmouth, (one each))	5 burg-esses.
2 Universities	4 representatives.
8 Cinque ports Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, & their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford, two each.	16 barons.

W A L E S.

12 Counties	12 knights.
12 Boroughs (Pembrok two, Merioneth none) one each	12 burgesses.

S C O T L A N D.

33 Shires	30 knights.
67 Cities and Boroughs	15 burgesses.

Total 558

Besides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex; the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester, and the towns of Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle upon Tyne, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie. The same may be said of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its jurisdiction a small territory of two miles on the north-side of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained; for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is so called, because it sends up burgesses to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and some not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they still send burgesses to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at present hath, a bishop, for if the bishopric be dissolved, yet the city remains. To have suburbs proves it to be a city. Some cities are also counties, as before mentioned.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The soil of England and Wales differs in each county, not so much from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, as from the progress which the inhabitants of each country have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world if we except China. If no unkindly seasons happen, England produces corn, not only sufficient to maintain her own inhabitants; but to bring large sums of ready money for her exports. No nation exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to such perfection, that the rarest of foreign fruits have been cultivated.

cultivated here with success. If any farther proof of this should be required, let it be remembered, that London and its neighbourhood, though peopled by about 1,000,000 inhabitants, is plentifully supplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within 12 miles distance.

The soil of England seems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houses of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peasants, are delightful and astonishing.

The air in many places is loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly winds; but they are ventilated by winds and storms, so that in this respect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, more disagreeable than unhealthy. It cannot, however, be denied, that in England the weather is so excessively capricious, and unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries for health.

The spring begins sometimes in February, and sometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoary frost instead of blossoms. The beginning of June is sometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer rises in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even August has its vicissitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average September, and next to it October, are the two most agreeable months in the year. The natives sometimes experience all the four seasons within the compass of one day, cold, temperate, hot and mild weather. The inconstancy of the seasons, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at most three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: And it is hardly ever observed that the inhabitants suffer by a hot summer. Even the greatest irregularity and the most unfavourable appearances of the seasons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very seldom with scarcity.

The champain parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains of water; though a discerning palate may perceive, that they frequently contain some mineral impregnation. The constitutions of the English, and the diseases to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquisitive after salubrious waters, for the recovery and preservation of their health; so that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The most celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Bristol in Somersetshire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyshire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epsom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS.] The industry of the English has in a good degree supplied the absence of those favours which nature has so lavishly bestowed upon some foreign climates. The cultivated parts of England abound in the most beautiful scenes. Barren spots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than observing that some of the pleasanter counties in the kingdom are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Perhaps it may be safely affirmed, that no country in Europe surpasses England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though

Though England is full of delightful hills and rising grounds, yet it contains few mountains. The most noted are the peak in Derbyshire, and the Endle in Lancashire; Wales, and the northern parts may be called mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence. The Thames, a noble river, rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little S. W. of Cirencester, and after receiving the many tributary streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wokingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor. From thence to Kingston, where formerly it met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster bridge, is said to flow no higher than Richmond; thence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, it widens in its progress, till it falls into the sea at the Nore, whence it is navigable for large ships to London bridge: For many ages, there were but two bridges over the Thames, those of London and Kingston. The great increase of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is however now multiplying them, and for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, those lately erected at Westminster and Black Friars, are equalled perhaps by none in the world.

The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welch-Pool; and discharges itself into the Bristol channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ships which cannot get up to Bristol. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running south-east by Newcastle-under-Lyne, divides that county into two parts; and being joined by the Ouse, and several other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the sea south-east of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England, are the Ouse (a Gaelic word signifying *water* in general) which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tinmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from west to east on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from south to north through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from east to west through Cumberland, and passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish sea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from east to west through Lancashire, and passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey, which runs from the south-east to the north-west through Cheshire, and then dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish sea a little below that town; and the Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish channel below Chester.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from history and antiquity, and indeed, in some places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining, are Soham mere, Wittesca mere, and Ramsay mere, in the isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire. All these meres in a rainy season are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Westmoreland, and some small lakes in Lancashire go by the name of Derwent waters.

FORESTS.] The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests for the benefit of hunting, and these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves: So that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the forest laws; and justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New Forest, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before that of the Christian Era; and since the English have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immense benefit to the nation. An ore called Mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till about 70 years ago; Sir Gilbert Clark, discovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is said now to bring in 150,000*l.* a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making brass. These tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners are said to amount to 100,000. Some mines of copper have lately been discovered in Wales, which are of considerable extent, yield great profit, and have much reduced the price of that metal. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the English lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of freestone are found in many places. In Northumberland and Cheshire are allum and salt pits. The English fullers earth is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the bishopric of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article.—See article *Wealth and Commerce*.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] Nothing can be said with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain growing

growing in this kingdom. Excellent institutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England, and their members are so public-spirited as to print periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments, which serve to shew that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher state of perfection than they are in at present. Honey and saffron are natives of England. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred by judicious palates, to French white wine. The English have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot beds, and other means of forcing nature. The English pine-apples are delicious and now plentiful. The same may be said of other natives of the East and West Indies, Persia, and Turkey.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing, however, have the English been more successful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, saintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating grasses for the soil.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, we shall begin with the quadrupeds. The English oxen are large and fat, but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch and the Welch cattle after grazing in English pastures. The English horses are among the best in the world; whether we regard their spirit, strength, swiftness, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improvement of the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the success has been answerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, Spanish, and other foreign horses. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry, render them superior to all others in war: And an English hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or stag chase. Those which draw equipages on the streets of London, are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horses has of late become a considerable article of commerce. The breed of asses and mules begins likewise to be improved and encouraged in England.

The English sheep are of two kinds; those that are valuable for their fleece, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. The large fat sheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually, which, at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000*l*.

The English mastiffs and bull-dogs are said to be the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world.

With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the rest of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } For the population of England the reader is referred to the Table.

Englishmen, in their persons are generally well sized, regularly featured, commonly fair rather than otherwise, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be presumed, that the vast numbers of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a cast to their persons and complexions different from those of their ancestors 150 years ago. The women, in their shapes, features,

tures, and complexion, appear graceful and lovely. But beside their external graces, they are still more to be valued for their thorough cleanliness, and all the engaging duties of domestic life.

The English are remarkable for their cleanliness. Their nerves are very delicate, and people of both sexes are sometimes even mortally affected by imagination. This over-sensibility has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities, which so strongly characterize the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution, or constancy of mind. A groundless paragraph in a news-paper, has been known to affect the stocks, and consequently public credit, to a considerable degree; and their credulity goes so far, that England may be termed the paradise of quacks and empirics, in all arts and professions. In short, many of the English feel, as if it really existed, every evil in mind, body, and estate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals, they are sensible of this absurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, striving to banish it by dissipation, riot, intemperance, and diversions. They are fond, for the same reason, of clubs and convivial associations; and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cures for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The same observations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which have undergone a remarkable change since the accession of the House of Hanover, especially of late years. The English nobility and gentry of great fortunes, now assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourse than did their forefathers. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they visit, under the tuition perhaps of a despicable pedant, or family dependant; but they travel for the purposes of society, and at the more advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This has enlarged society in England, which foreigners now visit as commonly as Englishmen visited them, and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Such of the English noblemen and gentlemen, as do not strike into those high walks of life, affect rather what we call a snag, than a splendid way of living. They study and understand convenience in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates, and they spare no cost to purchase it. It has, however, been observed, that this turn renders them less communicative than they ought to be: But, on the other hand, the few connexions they form, are sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits descend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often discernible among tradesmen. This love of snugness and convenience may be called the ruling passion of the English people, and is the ultimate end of all their great application, and severe labours and fatigues. A good œconomist, with a brisk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from business; that is either to purchase an estate, or to settle his money in the funds. He then commonly resides in a comfortable house in the country, of-

ten his native country, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his style of living is judiciously suited to his circumstances.

Wendeborn in his view of England observes that "There are in no country such large contributions raised for the support of the poor, as in England; yet there is no where so great a number of them; and their condition, in comparison with the poor of other countries, appears truly the most miserable: They never seem to be apprehensive, or to think of making any provision for a time of want. In Germany and other northern countries of Europe, the poor keep always in mind, that it is cold in winter, and that no harvest or fruits can be reaped from the earth, while it is covered with snow. On this account, they consider in time the warmer clothing they will then require, and lay up such a store of provisions as their circumstances allow, in order to prepare themselves in the best manner possible, for the inclemency of that season. But in England, it seems as if the poor and necessitous never looked forward, or would not trouble themselves to think of what may happen to them in future. They neither foresee the winter's cold, nor the scarcity of that season; and, therefore, when it arrives, are the most forlorn beings imaginable. The lower class of people have no disposition to be frugal or provident: When trade becomes dull, and employment scanty, they who maintained themselves by their labour, must either beg, or obtain support for themselves and their families, from the parish. The watermen of the Thames, whose gains are very sufficient for their livelihood, when the river is frozen or covered with shoals of ice, are often seen dragging a boat or little ship through the streets of London, and begging alms of the public. In those counties and towns where manufactures are carried on, there is, for this very reason, the greatest number of poor; for as soon as any particular branch of them is on the decline, the workmen, who were employed in it, are threatened with want, and in danger of starving. The number of the poor in such counties, raises the poor-rates very high, and consequently makes both land and houses less eligible to purchase; for according to the value or rent of houses, the poor rates are levied; so that the tenant of a middling house of about forty pounds yearly rent, in a county where four shillings in the pound are demanded for the support of the poor, must pay a yearly tax of eight pounds for poor-rates.

In Germany, there is a great difference, as to value, between the dresses of the different ranks of people: But in England, this distinction holds in a much smaller degree. The clothing manufactured for the poor and common people, is in small proportion to their number; and few or none of them like to wear it. Even in country places, it is but little used; and in London or the great towns, it is seldom or never to be seen. All do their best to wear fine clothes; and those who cannot purchase them new, buy the old at second-hand, that they may at least have the appearance of finery. Servants in general, live nearly as well as their masters and mistresses; and when servant men or maids marry, they frequently begin the married state with a life of more expense, or rather profusion, than their circumstances will admit, and continue the same, until children and want force them to apply for bread to their parish. The English thieves and rogues usually say,

"we can be but hanged at last." In like manner, servants and others, who, by their extravagance and mismanagement, bring poverty upon themselves, feel as little contrition, and say, "the parish must maintain us." Such instances, however, of worthlessness and depravity, render the wealthy and industrious not very willing to contribute to the support of the poor: And the poor themselves generally thank neither God nor man, for the charity that feeds them.

The number of those who are born poor, and of those who from misfortune or misconduct become so in time, is very great. The first are brought up by charities; the latter are maintained, and at last buried out of the same fund. No person, therefore, need wonder that the taxes which are yearly collected under act of parliament for the support of the poor, shoud, in England alone, amount to three millions sterling; * a sum which must appear altogether extraordinary, when it is considered, that the revenues of many kingdoms do hardly, by half, amount to so much. At the same time it ought to be remembered that the extremely necessitous poor only, are supported by it; that the streets of London, notwithstanding all this, are crowded with beggars; that the poor blind, led by dogs, beg charity, and that this is equally the case, in proportion, in the country.

It is supposed, that a million of poor people are maintained at the public expense; but I should think there were a great many more. Their number increases every year. From a very accurate calculation, made in the year 1660, it appears, that the annual sum, requisite to provide for the poor, amounted to 665,392 pounds sterling. In the year 1764, it had risen to upwards of 1,200,000 pounds; and, in the 1773, it exceeded, as before-mentioned, three millions; but even this sum was not sufficient for the purpose.

People who live on the continent, when they see a traveller who speaks either good or broken English, generally suppose him to be a Briton, whose pockets are lined plentifully with money. They bow to him, and make him pay, if an opportunity offers, accordingly. But I can assure my countrymen, if what I have said before has not already altered their opinion, that there are numbers of British-born subjects, such as the inhabitants of some of the western islands, who are unacquainted with any coin; nay, others, who, perhaps, during their whole lives, never tasted a morsel of bread. An old man from one of the Orkneys, arrived on the northern coast of Scotland, and tasting there some bread, which he found, according to his palate, very delicious, cried out, "Oh! how luxuriously the people live here!" Is there any one, even of the poorest, in Germany, of whom the same could be said, as of this old man, who, in all probability, had gone through life as happily as many London epicures, and grown old, without these distempers that attend luxury. He, according to his way of living, hardly stood a chance of becoming a beggar; and even as such, he could not be very burdensome to his community.

I am almost of opinion with doctor Franklin, that this enormous sum, collected annually for the poor in England, increases their number as well as their wretchedness, and that, perhaps, it might be for

* Sir John Sinclair, in his history of the public revenue of the British empire, page 115, speaking of the poor-rate, says it is "a grievous burden, which, it is supposed, amounts, at present, to at least three millions per ann."

the benefit of the nation, if poor-rates were entirely abolished, and the distribution of charities left to every man's own discretion."

The English are dupes in several respects. They attend to projects, and no scheme is so ridiculous that will not find abettors in England. They listen to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deserved or accidental, and generously contribute to the relief of the parties, sometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever; but they often make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value. There is among the generality of the English of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above most other considerations. Riches, both in publick and private, are often thought to compensate for the absence of almost every good quality. This offensive failing, arises partly from the people being so much accustomed to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their constitution, which makes the possession of property a qualification for the legislature, and for almost every other species of magistracy, government, honours, and distinctions.

Men of learning, and genius, while living, often meet not with suitable regard even from the Patrons of literature: And it is not unusual for them to throw aside the best productions, if they are not acquainted with the author. We scarcely have an instance, even in the munificent reign of Queen Anne, or of her predecessors, who owed so much to the praise, of a man of genius as such, being made easy in his circumstances. Mr. Addison had about 300*l.* a year of the public money to assist him in his travels, and Mr. Pope, though a Roman catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like pension from Mr. Craggs, the whig secretary of state; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when sole minister, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papist.

The unevenness of the English in their conversation is very remarkable: Sometimes it is delicate, sprightly, and replete with true wit; sometimes it is solid, ingenious, and argumentative; sometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon disgust, and all in the same person. They possess a great share of courage, and make the best of soldiers. The English are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts they excel perhaps all nations in the world. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favourite study is incredible.

All that has been said concerning the English, is to be understood of them in general, as they are at present; for it is not to be dissembled, that every day produces strong evidence of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and above all, the amazing increase of territorial as well as commercial property in the East Indies, introduced a species of people among the English, who have become rich without industry, and by diminishing the value of gold and silver, have created a new system of finances in the nation. The plain, frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed so lately as the accession of the present family to the crown, are now disregarded for tasteless extravagance in dress and equipage.

page, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the customs of the English have, since the beginning of this century, undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon pioneering occasions. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but concerts of music, and card and dancing assemblies, are common all over the kingdom. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize-fighting, though prohibited, are as frequent in England, as the shows of gladiators were in Rome. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich: For the farmers and country people destroy the game in their nests, which they dare not kill with the gun.

The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel. Few even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10*l.* in clothing, and even many beggars in the streets appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer on holidays, is commonly an indication of his industry.

RELIGION. The established religion in that part of Great Britain called England, is the episcopal church of England, a particular branch of protestantism, which in its liturgy, and still more in its government, differs from the continental protestant churches. It has preserved much more of the ancient hierarchy of the Roman Catholic church, together with its dignities and jurisdiction. The king is the head of the church, but he has no spiritual powers; he has the right of calling together and dissolving the convocation, or ecclesiastical parliament, by which the church was formerly governed, but which has, for many years past, not been allowed to meet. England is divided into two ecclesiastical provinces, that of Canterbury and York. The archbishop of Canterbury, who is primate of England, has 21 bishoprics belonging to his province; and three bishoprics are under the archbishop of York. All these prelates are lords of parliament, in which they represent the clergy; they have their seats in the House of Lords. There is, besides, the bishop of Sodor and Man, belonging to the province of York, who has no seat in the House of Peers. The other dignitaries of the church are the deans and prebendaries of the chapters, archdeacons, and rural deans; the inferior clergy consist of priests and deacons, who, according to the church benefices they occupy, are called rectors, vicars, and curates of parishes.

The revenues of the church of England are large; the present value of the sees and livings is supposed to amount to 3,000,000*l.* sterling. This income arises chiefly from the tithes, the value of which increases with the improvements of lands.

All other denominations of Christians, called Dissenters and Jews, are very liberally tolerated. There are many other Protestant sects in England, among whom the Unitarians, Baptists, Quakers, and Methodists, are the most conspicuous. The number of Roman Catholics in England is estimated at 60,000; they have about 350 priests; some peers of the kingdom, and several other ancient and opulent families belong

belong to that communion, whose exercise of religion is under great restrictions; their number is said to be decreasing. There are about 60,000 Quakers and 12,000 Jewish families. The numerous French and German inhabitants in London form several Lutheran and Calvinistical parishes.

LEARNING.] With respect to the state of knowledge and science, England is entitled to an eminent rank among the first nations of Europe. It must, however, be owned, that its superiority with respect to sciences was more conspicuous in the beginning of the present century than now; though it has, upon the whole, not gone backwards in the sciences, it has not been able, amidst the great exertions of other countries, to leave them behind at the same distance. England has but two universities, or rather collections of universities, at Oxford and Cambridge, in which the wealth and splendour of the foundations is deserving of admiration, and is a proof of the estimation in which learning has always been held in this country. It cannot be denied that these universities, though gradually much reformed, preserve still too much of the spirit of the age of Alfred, and that they have lost, long ago, the lead in science and national literature, which is at present transferred to the metropolis. Schools are very numerous in England: Besides some colleges of ancient foundation, there are many private schools and academies. As government does not in the least concern itself in the education of youth, any person, however qualified, is at liberty to open a school, a liberty which does often a great deal of mischief. The lower classes of people are much neglected in their education, and much more so in England than in Scotland. To this source of corruption we must trace the frequency of crimes, equally injurious to the prosperity and glory of this great nation; an evil which is constantly increasing, and which the horrors of Newgate and Botany Bay will not be able to counteract. The zeal of many well-meaning persons, in establishing charitable institutions of education, called Sunday schools, is very laudable; and it is to be hoped these and other charity schools will be improved into permanent and effectual remedies of the evil beforementioned.

London has, besides the Royal Society of Sciences, an Antiquarian Society, a Society for promoting Arts and Manufactures, an Academy of Painting and Sculpture, a grand collection of natural curiosities, books, and MSS. called the British Museum. Oxford and Cambridge possess large libraries; of which the Bodleian library, at Oxford, is the most celebrated. England abounds with magnificent seats of noblemen and gentlemen, adorned with excellent collections of masterpieces of painting, and surrounded by parks and gardens, which, both by nature and art, form some of the most beautiful pieces of scenery in Europe. [*For the names of the most distinguished literary characters, which England has produced, the reader is referred to the List of learned men at the close of this work.*]

UNIVERSITIES.] We have already mentioned the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the seminaries of great numbers of learned men for many ages, and rank amongst the highest literary institutions in Europe. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in splendour and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners,

professors, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to the British parliament, and their chancellors and officers have even a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities. In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: The former are very liberally endowed; but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. The university is of great antiquity: It is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden says that "wise antiquity did, even in the British age, consecrate this place to the Muses." It is said to have been styled an university before the time of king Alfred; and the best historians admit, that this most excellent prince was only a restorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar.

The number of officers, fellows, and scholars, maintained at present by the revenues of this university, is about 1000; and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge is usually about 2000; the whole amounting to 3000 persons, besides a great number of inferior officers and servants, belonging to the several colleges and halls. Here are four terms every year for public exercises, lectures, and disputations, and set days and hours when the professors of every faculty read their lectures; and in some of the colleges are public lectures, to which all persons are admitted.

There are libraries belonging to the several colleges, but besides these, there are two other public libraries, the university library, and the Radcliffe library. The university library is usually called the Bodleian library, from Sir Thomas Bodley, its principal founder. It is a large lofty structure, in the form of a Roman H, and is considered as one of the finest libraries in Europe, from the number and value of its books. The original library has been prodigiously increased, by many large and valuable collections of Greek and Oriental manuscripts, as well as other choice and curious books. The Radcliffe library is a sumptuous pile of building; and was built at the sole expense of that eminent physician, Dr. John Radcliffe, who bequeathed forty thousand pounds for this purpose. The theatre at Oxford is also a very magnificent structure, which was erected by Sir Christopher Wren, at the expense of Archbishop Sheldon. In this edifice are held the public acts of the university; and when the theatre is properly filled, the vice-chancellor being seated in the centre of the semi-circular part, the noblemen and doctors on his right and left-hand, the proctors and curators in their robes, the masters of arts, bachelors, and under graduates, in their respective habits and places, together with strangers of both sexes, it makes a most august appearance.

The whole number of fellows in the university of Cambridge are four hundred, and six hundred and sixty-six scholars, with about two hundred and thirty-six officers and servants of various kinds who are maintained upon the foundation. These, however, are not all the students of the university; there are also two sorts of students called pensioners, the greater and the less; the greater pensioners are sons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-

fellow-commoners, because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows; the lesser pensioners dine with the scholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expense. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who wait upon the fellows and scholars, and the pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained: But the number of pensioners and sizars cannot be ascertained, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

The senate-house at Cambridge is a most elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost sixteen thousand pounds. Trinity college library is also a very magnificent structure; and in Corpus Christi college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of the monasteries, and given to this college by archbishop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. The antiquities of England are NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, and Anglo-Norman; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, which probably were places of worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles and two ovals, which are thus composed: The upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their position. Some of these stones are vastly large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with the chisel, and sometimes tapered; but the transomes, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The outside circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter; between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the same kind are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, and other parts of England, as well as Scotland, and the isles.

The Roman antiquities in England, consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. The private cabinets of noble men and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulae, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Firth, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts, and towers at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication.

with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military highway to the south. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to strike the Scots and Picts with terror, than to give any real security to the Roman possessions. In some places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly discernible; and the latter serves as a foundation for a modern work of the same kind carried on at the publick expense.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying-place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected together by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. The British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon characters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective spoils.

All England is full of Anglo-Norman monuments so called because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman origin, yet the expense was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. Yorkminster and Westminster hall and abbey, are perhaps the finest specimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals, and old churches in the kingdom, are more or less in the same taste, if we except St. Paul's.

The natural curiosities of England are so various, that we can touch upon them only in general; as there is no end of describing the several medicinal waters and springs which are to be found in every part of the country. They have been analysed with great accuracy and care by several learned naturalists, who, as their interests or inclinations led them, have not been sparing in recommending their fabulous qualities. The most remarkable of these wells have been divided into those for bathing and those for purging. The chief of the former lie in Somersetshire; and the Bath waters are famous through all the world both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry, and at Achn and Isington in Middlesex. There also are many remarkable springs, where some are impregnated either with salt, as that at Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire; and a dropping well in the west-riding of Yorkshire. Also, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancashire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any smell; yet there is so strong a vapour of sulphur issuing out with the stream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasts several hours,

and

and emits so fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The food itself will not burn when taken out of the well.*

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Eldon Hole, about four miles from the same place: This is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 88 yards of line after it, whereof the last 80 were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for several paces, is very low, but soon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension; a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding stream, resonance on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the sides have an amazing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fountains, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Catterton, which is from its hideousness named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who seem in a great measure to assist by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and then is thought impassable. The vault, in several places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various coloured stones.

Some spots of England are said to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkshire are found certain stones, resembling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken, do commonly contain the form and likeness of serpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In some parts of Gloucestershire, stones are found, resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals. Those curiosities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER } This head is so very extensive, }
EDIFICIES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } five, that we can only touch upon objects that may assist in giving the reader some idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London,† the metropolis of the British empire, naturally takes the lead in this division. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time,

and

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been since dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.

† London is situated in 51° 31' north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1260 north-west of Constantinople, and 1,414 south-west of Moscow.

and soon after became the capital of the island. It was first walled about with hewn stones, and British bricks, by Constantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: He also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London in its large sense, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex is a city of a very surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connexion with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from whence they are again sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed; and from hence arises that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a prosperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head, and the most distant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witness their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a noble and elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river, which though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall, almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ships, for the use of the merchants, besides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards lower down the river for the building of men of war. As this city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, it enjoys by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of fresh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the legislature to the property of the subject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extension.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from east to west, is generally allowed to be above seven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth in some places three, in others two; and in others again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost 18 miles; or according to a modern measurement, the extent of continued buildings, is 36 miles two furlongs and 39 rods. But it is much easier to

form

form an idea of the large extent of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion.

Of these, besides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Westminster, here are 102 parish churches, and 69 chapels of the established religion; 21 French protestant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 26 independent meetings, 34 presbyterian meetings; 20 baptist meetings; 19 Roman Catholic chapels, and meeting houses for the use of foreign ambassadors; and people of various sects; and 3 Jews synagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religious worship, in the compass of this vast pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-parishes usually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodist tabernacles.

There are also in and near this city 100 alms-houses, about 20 hospitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public prisons, 15 flesh markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public squares, besides those within single buildings as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public schools, called free-schools; and 131 charity-schools which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee houses, 5975 alehouses; 1000 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late estimate, consume annually the following articles of provisions.*

Black Cattle	—	—	—	98,244
Sheep and Lambs	—	—	—	711,123
Calves	—	—	—	194,760
Swine	—	—	—	186,932
Pigs	—	—	—	52,000
Poultry, and wild fowl	innumerable			
Mackarel sold at Billingsgate	—	—	—	14,740,000
Oysters, bushels	—	—	—	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above those brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and salt-fish				1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	—	—	—	16,000,000
Cheese, ditto, about	—	—	—	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	—	—	—	2,000,000
Barrels of strong beer	—	—	—	1,172,494
Barrels of small beer	—	—	—	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	—	—	—	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled waters, above	11,000,000			
Pounds weight of candles, above	—	—	—	11,000,000

London Bridge consists of 20 arches, and is 900 feet long, 60 high and 74 feet broad. London Bridge was first built of timber, about the year 994, by a College of Priests—it was repaired or new-built in 1163. The stone bridge was begun by king Henry, in 1176, and finished

* "The population of London has been greatly over-rated, and is not yet exactly determined; but it is probable that the residents in London, Westminster, Southwark and all the out parishes, fall short of 600,000 souls."

finished by king Jehn, in 1209. The architect was Peter of Colechurch, a priest.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad, which is above 300 feet broader than at London bridge. On each side is a fine ballustrade of stone with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large, and two small arches, all semi-circular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones, are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000*l.* in stone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expence of 389,000*l.* defrayed by the Parliament.

Black-friars-bridge, situated near the centre of the city, built according to a plan of Mr. Robert Mylne, is a light elegant structure. It has but 9 arches, which are very large, and of an elliptical form. The centre arch is 100 feet wide—the others decrease in regular gradation. It has an open ballustrade at the top, and a foot way on each side, with room for three carriages a breast in the middle. It has also recesses on the sides for foot passengers, each supported by two lofty Ionic columns. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expence of 152,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll upon the passengers. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which, in some respects it is superior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after he himself laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Westminster-abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taste. It was first built by Edward the Confessor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the east end of it; this is the repository of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, commanders by sea and land, philosophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 2000*l.* a year out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The Banqueting-house at Whitehall is but a very small part of a noble palace, designed by Inigo Jones, for the royal residence, and as

it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry, and ornaments are in the highest stile and execution of architecture.

Westminster-hall, though on the outside it makes a mean, and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is said to be the largest room in the world, whose roof is not supported with pillars, it being 200 feet long, and 70 broad: Its roof is the finest of its kind that can be seen. Here are held the coronation feasts of our kings and queens; also the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and above stairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is justly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a stair-case in the middle to ascend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet short of the top, from whence there are other steps, made for persons to look out at the top of all, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the monument, next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically represented in bas relief. The north and south sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful desolation,* and the other its splendid resurrection; and on the east side is an inscription, showing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Christopher Wren, in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000*l*.

The Royal Exchange is a large noble building, and is said to have cost above 80,000*l*.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the finest prospects in the world.

We might here give a description of the Tower, † Bank of England, the new Treasury, the Admiralty-Office, and the Horse-Guards at Whitehall,

* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Christ, 1666, Sept. 2. eastward from hence, at the distance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only watted the adjacent parts, but also very remote places, with incredible cracking and fury. It consumed 89 churches, the city gates, Guildhall, many public structures, hospitals, schools, libraries, a vast number of stately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houses, and 400 streets. Of the 26 wards it utterly destroyed 15, and left eight others shattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the Tower by the Thames side to the Temple church; and from the north-east along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the estates and fortunes of the citizens it was mercifull, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things resemble the last conflagration of the world. The destruction was sudden; for in a small space of time the city was seen most flourishing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human counsels and endeavours, in the opinion of all, it stopped, as it were by a command from heaven, and was on every side extinguished."

† In examining the curiosities of the Tower of London; it will be proper to begin with those on the outside the principal gate; the first thing a stranger usually goes to visit is the wild beasts; which, from their situation, first present themselves: For having entered the outer gate, and passed what is called the spur-guard, the keeper's house presents itself before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell, and paying six pence each person, you may easily gain admittance.

The next place worthy of observation is the Mint, which comprehends near one-third of the Tower, and contains houses for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On passing the principal gate you see the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, square, irregular stone building, situated almost in the centre, no one side answering to another, nor any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike.

Whitehall, the Mansion-house of the lord mayor, the Custom-house, Excise-office, India-house, and a vast number of other public buildings, besides Montague-house,* in Bloombury, with a number of others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish officers,

alike. One of these towers is now converted into an observatory. In the first story are two noble rooms, one of which is a small-armoury for the sea-service, it having various sorts of arms, very curiously laid up, for above 10,000 seamen. In the other room are many closets and presses, all filled with warlike engines and instruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms; the other with arms and other warlike instruments, as spades, shovels, pickaxes, and chevaux de frize. In the upper story, are kept match, sheep skins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little room, called Julius Cæsar's chapel, are deposited some records, containing perhaps the ancient usages and customs of the place. In this building are also preserved the models of the new-invented engines of destruction, that have from time to time been presented to the government. Near the fourth-west angle of the White Tower, is the Spanish armoury, in which are deposited the spoils of what was vainly called the Invincible Armada; in order to perpetuate, to latest posterity, the memory of that signal victory, obtained by the English over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You are now come to the grand store-house, a noble building to the northward of the White Tower, that extends 245 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. On the left side of the uppermost landing place is the workshop, in which are constantly employed about 14 furniblers, in cleaning, repairing, and new-placing the arms. On entering the armoury, you see what they call a wilderness of arms, so artfully disposed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright and fit for service; a sight which it is impossible to behold without astonishment; and beside those exposed to view, there were before the late war, 16 chests shut up, each chest holding about 1,000 muskets. The arms were originally disposed by Mr. Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gunsmith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a pension from the crown for his ingenuity.

You now come to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reversing the order of chronology; so that in following them we must place the last first.

In a dark, strong Room, about 20 yards to the eastward of the grand store-house, or new-armoury, the crown jewels are deposited.

The record-office consists of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept.

* The British Museum is deposited in Montague-house. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British Museum; for its being established by parliament, was only in consequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000*l.* to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000*l.* to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleyan manuscripts collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Metals, and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals, 265. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 522. Antiquities 1,125. Precious stones, agates, jasper, &c. 2,256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,724. Crystals, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1,045. Minerals, sulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Fossils, mica, &c. 238. Corals, sponges, &c. 1,221. Testacea, or shells, &c. 5,842. Echini, echinidae, &c. 659. Artificial teeth, entomochi, &c. 241. Crustacea, crabs, lobsters, &c. 362. Some marine, like fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1,552. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and nests of different species, 1,772. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,036. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,437. Vegetables, 12,567. Hercules ficus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humans, as anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things, natural, 2,028. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these pipes are no sooner opened than there are vast quantities of water to supply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage, it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire. The premium is small, and the recovery in case of loss, is easy and certain. Every one of these officers keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and who are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants of that time, was productive of consequences, which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals; a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it is ever to be lamented (such was the infatuation of those times) that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan of the great Sir Christopher Wren, was totally disregarded and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property. Views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themselves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been asserted, must have been the result; the metropolis of this kingdom would incontestably have been the most magnificent and elegant city in the world.

In fine, London unites in itself all the benefits arising from navigation and commerce, with those of a metropolis at which all the public business of a great nation is transacted; and is at the same time the mercantile and political head of the whole Empire. It is also the seat of many considerable manufactures. The most important of its peculiar manufactures is the silk weaving, established in Spital fields by refugees from France. A variety of works in gold, silver, and jewelry; the engraving of prints; the making of optical and mathematical instruments, are likewise principally or solely executed here, and some of them in greater perfection, than in any other country. The porter brewery, a business of very great extent, is also chiefly carried on in London. To its port are likewise confined some branches of foreign commerce, as the vast East-India trade, and that to Turkey and Hudson's Bay.

Bristol city, in Somersetshire, is situated at the conflux of the river Avon, with the small stream of the Frome, at the distance of about 10 miles from the place where the Avon empties into the Severn's mouth, in point of wealth, trade and population has long been reckoned second to London, within this kingdom. The great trade of Bristol is supported by its extensive inland communications with the Severn and all its branches, the Avon, the Wye, and various other streams. Hence it enjoys the export and import traffic of a large part of the kingdom, and is enabled to find a market for a great variety of its own
manufactures,

manufactures, such as glass ware, hard soap, hats, leather, white lead, gun-powder, earthen ware, &c. The refining of sugar, which they import from the West-Indies, is one of the principal manufactures of Bristol. They have 70 or 80 ships constantly employed in the West-India trade. The city is compactly built; but is now extending itself, like other large cities, into its suburbs, by new and more airy streets.

The city of York has always been considered as the capital of the north, and in point of rank, as the second in the kingdom. Its minister or cathedral is one of the most elegant gothic structures in the kingdom. From its top is seen a vast extent of country. This city has a stone bridge, with five arches over the river Ouse. Though in wealth and populousness, this city falls behind several newer trading towns, it still supports a considerable degree of consequence, and is inhabited by many genteel families. It is in the county of Yorkshire.

Exeter, the capital of Devonshire, is the principal city for size and consequence in the west of England, and the seat of an extensive foreign and domestic commerce. The trade of Exeter consists principally in the exportation of coarse woollen goods manufactured in the counties of Devon, Cornwall, and part of Somerset. These are sold as they come from the loom, to the merchants at Exeter, who procure them to be milled, dyed and finished, and then export them. These goods consist chiefly of articles little consumed in England, as druggets, duroys, longells, and serges. The markets for them are first Italy, then Spain, Germany, Holland, Portugal, and lately France. The average annual value exported is reckoned at £ 600,000 sterling. Besides which £ 105,000 worth of longells are purchased by the East-India company. For making these woollens, about 4000 bags of wool are imported from Kent.

Gloucester, the capital of Gloucestershire, stands on a pleasant hill, and has lately been much improved. Its four principal streets have been much admired for the regularity of their junction in the centre of the town. A pin-manufactory affords the principal employment to the inhabitants of this city. It has also several glass houses. The river Severn washes it on one side, by which it carries on a considerable traffic.

Birmingham, is situated in the north-western part of Warwickshire, and is noted for its vast variety of useful and ornamental articles, such as metal buttons, buckles, plated goods of all kinds, japanned and paper ware, and other hard ware manufactures; in consequence of which it has risen to be superior in populousness to any other of the modern trading towns in England, and has filled the surrounding country with its industrious inhabitants. It is plentifully supplied with coals by means of a canal to Wednesbury in Staffordshire; and it has a communication with the great trunk from the Trent to the Severn, by means of a branch passing by Wolverhampton. The Birmingham goods are dispersed about the kingdom, but chiefly sent to London, by land carriage. They are exported in great quantities to foreign countries, where, in point of cheapness and show united, they are unrivalled; so that Birmingham has become, according to the emphatical expression of a great Orator, the *toy-shop of Europe*.

Poole, in Dorsetshire, is situated on a peninsula, projecting into a capacious bay, branching into many creeks, and forming several islands.

The harbour admits vessels of moderate size only, but for them it is very secure. Poole rose to some consequence several centuries ago, when the ancient town of Wareham fell into decay. It now ranks high among the seaports of England, and its trade and population are rapidly increasing. The principal branch of business here, is the Newfoundland fishery, to which it sends annually a large number of vessels, which carry out provisions and commodities, and bring back cargoes of fish, caught on the great cod banks, which are carried to Spain, Portugal and Italy. This port has also a large importation of deals from Norway, and a general commerce to America, and various parts of Europe. Great quantities of corn are sent from it in coasters, and it imports Newcastle coal for all the eastern part of the country. Near the mouth of Poole harbour lies an Oyster bank, upon which are employed, during the season, a number of smacks, which carry away vast quantities of them, to be fattened in the Essex and Thames Creek for the London market.

Burton, upon the river Trent, at the head of its navigation, in Staffordshire, is noted for the excellence of its malt liquor, great quantities of which are sent down the river to Hull, and thence exported to other parts of the kingdom and abroad. The longest bridge in England is that over the Trent at this place, built by Barnard, Abbot of Burton, in the 12th century. It is all of squared free-stone, and 1515 feet long, consisting of 34 arches. This, however, comes far short of the wooden bridge over the Drave, a river of Germany, which, according to Dr. Brown, is 5 miles long.

Dover, in the county of Kent, formerly a place of the greatest importance, and accounted the key of the island, is at present known chiefly as the station of the French and Flemish packets, and the shortest passage to the continent. The distance from Dover to Calais is but 27 miles; and in the narrowest part of the straits the two lands are only 21 miles apart. The harbour of Dover is formed by a gap in the cliffs, which are here of sublime height, though somewhat exaggerated in the most picturesque description of Shakspeare. Dover is the principal of those ancient port towns, called *Cinque ports*, formerly of great consequence, now become almost insignificant. The country inland from Dover, consists chiefly of open downs, excellent for the feeding of sheep.

The city of Bath took its name from some natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. The seasons for drinking the Bath waters are the spring and autumn: The spring season begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn season begins with September, and lasts till December, and some patients remain here all the winter. In the spring, this place is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure, when at least two-thirds of the company, consisting chiefly of persons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amusements of the place. In some seasons there have been no less than 8000 persons at Bath, besides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's Square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, and the Circus.

No nation in the world can shew such dock-yards, and all conveniences for the construction and repair of the royal navy at Portsmouth (the

(the most regular fortification in England) Plymouth (by far the best dock-yard) Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence.

WEALTH, COMMERCE, REVENUE AND } The two divisions of Great-
 NAVIGATION OF GREAT-BRITAIN. } Britain; England and Scot-
 land, differ exceedingly with respect to their natural fertility and to
 the wealth of their inhabitants. South-Britain, or England, abounds
 with all the useful productions of those countries of Europe which
 are situated in the same climate with it, wine, silk, and some wild ani-
 mals excepted. The genius and industry of the inhabitants have in-
 creased and improved many of the natural productions to a degree
 which leaves the efforts of all neighbouring nations at a distance.
 Agriculture, the art of gardening, the cultivation of all those plants
 which are most useful for feeding cattle as well as breeding horses and
 sheep, are carried in England to an astonishing height. Of about
 42,000,000 acres, which England contains, only 8,500,000 produce
 corn: the rest is either covered with wood, or laid out in meadows,
 gardens, parks, &c. and a considerable part is still waste land. Yet
 out of the crops obtained from the fifth part of the lands, there have
 been exported, during the space of five years, from 1715 to 1750,
 quantities of corn to the value of 7,600,000*l.* sterling. About the
 year 1766 it was found, that the exportation of corn was carried too
 far, and proved prejudicial to the country; it was consequently en-
 tirely prohibited, and the importation of corn permitted. The net
 produce of the English corn-land is estimated by Mr. Young at
 9,000,000*l.* sterling: the rents of pasture-ground, meadows, woods,
 commons, &c. at 7,000,000*l.* the number of people engaged in and
 maintained by farming is stated by him to amount to 2,300,000 per-
 sons. Among the other useful plants, hops, saffron, wood, and
 madder, are become very important articles of commerce. Malt-
 liquor and cyder are brought in England to a very high degree of
 perfection, and render wine a superfluity: yet luxury deems the latter
 essentially necessary.

The counties of Cheshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Leicestershire,
 Derbyshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Kent, Gloucestershire, and Somers-
 setshire, are most distinguished for their excellent cattle. The city of
 Chester exports annually 22,000 tons of cheese, 12,000 of which are
 sent to London. One of the greatest sources of the riches of England
 is wool, the great staple commodity of this country. The flock of
 the best sort of the present English sheep came over from Spain: Le-
 ward the IVth had 3000 Spanish sheep brought over, which he or-
 dered to be distributed among the several parishes of England; and
 ever since that time, great care has been taken to continue and to im-
 prove the breed: There are instances, that a single ram, of extraordi-
 nary beauty and strength, has been purchased with 100 guineas. The
 counties of Herefordshire, Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, Hampshire,
 Dorsetshire, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Lincolnshire, Durham, and
 the East-riding of Yorkshire, are most famous for their large and ex-
 cellent flocks. At the beginning of the present century, the number
 of sheep was computed to amount to 12 millions, and there is no
 doubt but that this number has been greatly increased since that time.

In the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, the value of the woollens exported from England amounted to upwards of 10,500,000*l.* sterling, exclusive of the woollens of Yorkshire, the value of which, in the same period of time, amounted to upwards of 3,000,000*l.* sterling. The English horses, the breed of which as before observed, has been much improved by Arabian, Spanish, and Barbary horses, are famous all over Europe for their beauty and swiftness. The best race-horses run $32\frac{1}{2}$ feet in one second, or nearly an English mile in one minute.

Though neither gold nor silver is found in the English mines, or only in quantities too insignificant to be mentioned, yet the other minerals are great sources of wealth. Copper, tin, lead, and iron, are found in great abundance, and the first two metals of the very best quality. The copper annually obtained from the mines of Cornwall is estimated at 4000 tons; the number of Cornish miners is said to amount to 80,000 people. The tin of Cornwall is valued at 200,000*l.* sterling annually. Northumberland, Durham, Lancashire, Cumberland, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Wales, and Devonshire, produce large quantities of iron, which is, however, of an inferior quality to the iron of Sweden, Stiria, Carinthia, and Russia; it is therefore necessary to import from these countries upwards of 25,000 tons, for the manufactures of finer tools and hardware. The most important manufactures of the latter sort are at Sheffield, where it is supposed upwards of 40,000 workmen are employed by about 600 owners and manufacturers. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropshire use every day 300 tons of coals in their works. In Great-Britain there is made every year 50—60,000 tons of pig-iron, and 20—30,000 tons of bar-iron.

England possesses a very great treasure in its inexhaustible coal mines, which are worked chiefly in the northern counties, from whence they are conveyed by sea and by the inland canals to every other part of the kingdom. The mines of Northumberland alone send every year upwards of 600,000 chaldron of coals to London, and 1500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that harbour, along the eastern coast of England. This trade and navigation is one of the great nurseries of seamen, and, in that respect, of the utmost importance to the commerce and preservation of the empire.

Manufactures in England have been carried to higher perfection than in any other country. An enumeration of them would comprehend almost every contrivance of mechanism in its most improved state, which ever was invented by the ingenuity of any age or country for the convenience and use of man. Their surprising perfection must be accounted for from many circumstances, which no where coincided so happily to promote their progress as they do in this island. It seems they are nearly equally indebted to the national character, to the situation of the country, and the excellence of its constitution. Nothing could be more favourable to the progress of the mechanical arts, than the English reflection and perseverance, and the exclusive attention they are able to bestow on favourite pursuits, often with the neglect of every other concern, and their enterprising spirit, not desponding under the bad success of first trials, animated by the prospect of ample rewards, and by the certainty of enjoying the glory and the fruits of their labours. The insular situation of England taught

taught its inhabitants to consider the surrounding ocean as the bulwark of their safety, the theatre of their power, and the source of their wealth. Navigation with its appendages, distant acquisitions and colonization, gave an astonishing extent to commerce, and an air of grandeur and importance to the occupations of a merchant, which flattered ambition as well as the love of gain. The mere natural productions of the country were insufficient for so large a market; it was deficient in articles of luxury and the precious metals. Manufacturing industry was therefore called forth, in order to supply materials for commerce; and every new invention of mechanical genius found liberal support and encouragement from the great number of people who had acquired wealth. The English government, favourable to liberty and to every exertion of genius, has provided by wise and equitable laws for the secure enjoyment of property acquired by ingenuity and labour, and has removed obstacles to industry, by prohibiting the importation of such articles from abroad which could be manufactured at home. Next to the woollen manufactory, that of cotton is the most considerable, as it is reckoned to employ in the northern and middle counties not less than 500,000 persons, women and children included.

Among the advantages the British islands are possessed of, with respect to navigation, the following are worthy of attention: The great extent of the coasts, the sea-line of which, including both Great-Britain and Ireland, extends near 3800 miles, whereas the sea-coast of France has but 3000 miles; the neighbourhood to the continent; the number of excellent harbours; the number of navigable canals which form a communication between the sea-ports on the eastern and western coasts of England.

The constant increase of this immense commerce is astonishing. In the years 1783 and 1784, the ships cleared outwards, amounting to 950,000 tons, exceed the number of tons of the ships employed 24 years ago (1760) by upwards of 400,000 tons. The value of the cargoes exported in 1783, amounted to upwards of 15,000,000. sterling; and the net customs paid for them into the Exchequer were upwards of 3,000,000. sterling; and even this sum was exceeded the following year, 1785, by upwards of 1,000,000.

The balance of trade in favour of England is estimated by some authors at 3,000,000. sterling. Far more considerable is the inland trade, valued at upwards of 42,000,000. sterling.—As the quantity of circulating specie may in some measure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increase of the latter, by comparing the sums which the three last monarchs found necessary to coin. By George I. 8,725,921. sterling were coined. In the long reign of George II. 11,966,576. sterling, and in the first 24 years of his present majesty's reign, the sums coined amounted to 33,089,274. sterling.

The coasting trade is said to give employment to about 100,000 people; but this number seems to be exaggerated. Yet some branches of the fisheries require a great number of hands. About 10,000 people are employed in the oyster fishery along the coasts of England. On the coasts of Scotland great fisheries are carried on; there have been sometimes upwards of 300 vessels employed in the herring fishery. About 40,000 tons of herrings are annually imported into the port of Yarmouth by 1100 vessels: the whole annual quantity of

salt-herrings and cured pilchards amounts to 150,000 tons. From Newfoundland there have been carried to foreign markets 591,276 quintals of fish in 1785; this fishery is another great nursery of seamen. The English whale-fishery on the coasts of Greenland employs more ships than are sent thither for the same purpose by the Dutch.

By far the most important part of foreign commerce is carried on by privileged trading companies, among which the East-India Company is the most distinguished, by its very brilliant and extraordinary success, and by its influence on the general interests of the whole empire. It dates its origin from the time of queen Elizabeth; its progress was for a long time gradual and disputed by a rival company, with which it was at length incorporated, and obtained the sanction of parliament for an exclusive trade to the East-Indies and China, for a limited number of years, in consideration of a large sum advanced to the public. These privileges were afterwards renewed. Within these last thirty years the company has made vast territorial acquisitions in India, which increased in an extraordinary manner the trade, power, and importance of this company. Its trade employs 110 ships and about 8000 men; the articles exported to Asia consist in woollens of all sorts, bullion, hardware, lead, and quicksilver; the imports in gold, diamonds, raw silk, spices, tea, saltpetre, arrack, and China porcelain. The revenues of the company are said to amount to upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling annually; but the expense of governing and defending their acquisitions; the wars in which they are often involved, and the peculations of their servants, have been very great drawbacks upon their profits. The affairs of the East-India Company are under the management of 24 directors, residing in England, and chosen by the court of proprietors of East-India stock. The directors formerly appointed their servants abroad; but the conduct of these servants, and the large dominions acquired by the company, covering upwards of 280,000 square miles, and containing 50 millions of inhabitants, rendered an alteration in the constitution of this great commercial body, and the interference of government in its affairs, necessary. An act of parliament, passed in 1773, among other regulations, gave the presidency of Bengal a superiority over the other presidencies in India, vested the right of nominating a governor-general in the crown, and established a court of justice in India. Yet this regulation was found insufficient to answer the intended purposes, and to repress the enormous abuses committed by the company's servants. After the failure of Mr. Fox's plan for the government of the East-India Company in 1783, an act of parliament passed in 1784, which established a board of control in England, to be nominated by the crown, which was calculated to connect the civil and military government in India with that over the whole empire, to superintend the regulations and orders made by the directors of the company, and to call the conduct of its servants to account. Time must shew, whether the provisions of Mr. Pitt's bill will be an adequate cure of the evils which have affected the prosperity and stability of this extraordinary commercial society.

The Levant Company is at present of no great consequence, as the trade to the Levant has been laid open, and as the French have acquired a great superiority in the commerce of the Mediterranean.

The South-Sea Company is only nominally a commercial company; it is rather an incorporated society of stockholders, to whom government is indebted. Its affairs are managed by a governor, two sub-governors, and one and twenty directors.

The Hudson's-Bay Company carries on an extensive trade in peltry with very considerable profits: But in all probability its interests will be materially affected by the separation of the American colonies from Great-Britain, and by the late commercial schemes of the French in the Pacific Ocean, especially between Kamtkaska and North-America.

The Bank of England was incorporated in 1694: this company deals, by the sanction of parliament, in bills of exchange, it buys and sells bullion, and manages government annuities paid at its office. The credit of this company is the most extensive of any company in Europe. It is one of the principal creditors of the nation: and the value of the shares in its stock runs very high. There are besides eight insurance companies in England.

State of the Trade of England at different periods with the several Nations of the World. • [Extracted from Playfair's Tables.]

I R E L A N D.			Guern. Jerf. & Ald.		G E R M A N Y.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	270.000	240.000	30.000	9.000	575.000	995.000
1710	300.000	270.000	25.000	25.000	610.000	895.000
1720	335.000	370.000	20.000	27.000	620.000	1.000.000
1730	340.000	600.000	18.000	45.000	680.000	1.105.000
1740	475.000	760.000	39.000	50.000	700.000	1.155.000
1750	660.000	950.000	55.000	40.000	715.000	1.405.000
1760	870.000	1,450.000	57.000	50.000	705.000	1,615.000
1770	1,230.000	1,870.000	51.000	46.000	680.000	1,820.000
1780	1,470.000	1,890.000	61.000	61.000	670.000	1,240.000
Baltic & the East Country.			Denm. & Norway.		S W E D E N.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	136.000	110.000	70.000	35.000	197.000	57.000
1710	130.000	85.000	81.000	59.000	160.000	46.000
1720	188.000	86.000	96.000	76.000	154.000	35.000
1730	198.000	118.000	97.000	65.000	183.000	29.000
1740	230.000	133.000	93.000	67.000	180.000	33.000
1750	250.000	154.000	90.000	79.000	196.000	30.000
1760	210.000	175.000	79.000	115.000	212.000	25.000
1770	220.000	135.000	85.000	163.000	200.000	57.000
1780	280.000	72.000	93.000	185.000	198.000	95.000
R U S S I A.			GREENLAND.		H O L L A N D.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	169.000	135.000	—	—	570.000	2,150.000
1710	140.000	100.000	—	—	510.000	2,100.000
1720	105.000	50.000	100	100	590.000	1,900.000
1730	235.000	45.000	2.000	50	510.000	1,840.000
1740	235.000	75.000	2.800	—	420.000	2,200.000
1750	440.000	85.000	10.000	200	370.000	1,930.000
1760	570.000	68.000	10.000	30	400.000	1,810.000
1770	800.000	123.000	20.000	60	480.000	1,760.000
1780	1,135.000	290.000	28.000	50	410.000	1,570.000

STATE OF THE TRADE OF ENGLAND CONTINUED.

F L A N D E R S.			F R A N C E.		Portugal & Madeira,	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	7,000	80,000	20,000	30,000	250,000	630,000
1710	20,000	150,000	50,000	75,000	275,000	700,000
1720	51,000	245,000	40,000	175,000	350,000	800,000
1730	125,000	270,000	51,000	255,000	305,000	1,070,000
1740	150,000	290,000	57,000	305,000	340,000	1,140,000
1750	70,000	345,000	31,000	285,000	350,000	1,200,000
1760	70,000	420,000	55,000	275,000	300,000	1,210,000
1770	175,000	810,000	80,000	165,000	360,000	680,000
1780	225,000	1,050,000	45,000	155,000	370,000	590,000
S P A I N & C A N A R I E S.			S T R A I G H T S.		Venice and Italy.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	225,000	220,000	2,000	250,000	22,000	15,500
1710	280,000	320,000	25,000	300,000	32,200	17,500
1720	420,000	565,000	70,000	475,000	46,500	18,000
1730	480,000	650,000	135,000	625,000	52,500	14,500
1740	190,000	450,000	20,000	675,000	50,000	14,300
1750	90,000	400,000	80,000	535,000	56,000	18,500
1760	525,000	1,150,000	60,000	425,000	64,000	50,000
1770	510,000	1,040,000	20,000	50,000	71,000	72,500
1780	440,000	860,000	300	85,000	15,500	81,000
T U R K E Y.			A F R I C A.		E A S T - I N D I E S.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	250,000	170,000	14,000	11,000	440,000	140,000
1710	287,000	165,000	18,000	7,000	595,000	95,000
1720	295,000	230,000	30,000	12,000	880,000	120,000
1730	270,000	185,000	50,000	18,000	965,000	145,000
1740	187,000	155,000	32,000	15,000	970,000	300,000
1750	155,000	100,000	27,000	16,000	930,000	700,000
1760	137,000	83,000	43,000	20,000	1,005,000	880,000
1770	126,000	80,000	53,000	48,000	1,515,000	1,330,000
1780	142,000	109,000	73,000	53,000	1,550,000	810,000
W E S T I N D I E S.			Spanish W. Indies.		B E R M U D A.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	580,000	30,000	—	—	500	600
1710	700,000	335,000	—	—	600	1,000
1720	1,000,000	435,000	34,000	84,000	1,900	3,000
1730	1,260,000	450,000	37,000	83,000	1,500	2,200
1740	1,260,000	515,000	12,000	11,000	800	1,500
1750	1,460,000	770,000	—	—	1,600	7,200
1760	2,100,000	865,000	13,000	1,000	1,800	10,000
1770	2,995,000	1,100,000	26,000	3,000	1,700	13,000
1780	2,210,000	1,220,000	28,000	7,000	1,700	15,000

upon; the few who were, with those who voluntarily tendered themselves, passed their accounts for millions, before a deputy or clerk, appointed by an auditor, who always considered his own office as a sinecure. To remedy this evil, an act was passed in 1785, for better examining and auditing the public accounts of the kingdom; since which, they have been examined with attention and scrupulous exactness.† The effects of this law will not, however, be felt in its full extent, till a period, which it is to be hoped is a very distant one, when we may have the misfortune to be again embarked in a war. Sums beyond all belief to persons not experienced in such matters, would have been saved, if such an institution had been provided previous to the two last wars.*

“It must be in the recollection of every one,” continues this writer, “how universal a persuasion prevailed, that the separation of the American Colonies from Great-Britain would be felt as a great and severe wound, injuring our resources, and lessening our navigation. We cannot, therefore, but contemplate with some degree of pleasure on the effects produced by the measures before alluded to, and by various other causes which have contributed to the general prosperity of the country. To compare the revenue at different periods, before and since the separation, would not alone be admitted as a criterion, when new taxes have been since added to a large amount; although it is no unequivocal proof of the energy of the country, that, under an immense accumulation of debt and taxes, it has been able to effect most successfully what was never before attempted, the gradual and certain reduction of the debt.

A more direct argument will however arise from an inquiry into the state of our navigation and commerce during the years of our greatest prosperity in the last peace, and at this time. In this inquiry there occurs some difficulty as to the navigation; it is to be lamented, that previous to 1786, no ships were registered in Great-Britain, except those which traded to the Plantations: Entries of ships outwards were till then made very loosely; there was no sort of check on the master or owner, who invariably represented the vessels of a less burthen than the real tonnage; to live the payment of light duties and other charges; notwithstanding which, a tolerable judgment may be formed of the increase of our navigation, by comparing the numbers of the ships cleared out at the different periods, having in view that, previous to the separation of the Colonies from Great-Britain, all American shipping was deemed British, and that the size of our ships is now larger than at that time.

Number

Services, who remained accountable to the Public for the sum of £438,933,920;—of the latter, 127 have rendered Accounts to the new Board of Commissioners for taking and auditing the Public Accounts, to the amount of upwards of £. 32,000,000; besides all the Accountants in the ordinary course.—It is not however meant to suggest, that by much the greater part of the Totals stated by the late Commissioners for Public Accounts, though not accounted for, were not in a great proportion properly expended; the Fact probably is, that they were so; But on the other hand it is highly improper, that the whole should not have undergone a regular Investigation in due time; and it is incontrovertibly true, that large sums have been lost to the Public, from the Parties, who failed to account for the same, having in some Instances become insolvent; and in others, from their property having descended in a manner not now to be traced, which in most of the Cases would render any Attempt, at this time, to recover the balances due, perfectly desperate.

† Sums amounting in the whole to £. 751,000 have been re-paid into the Exchequer by Accountants, or their Representatives, between January 5, 1784, and January 5, 1792, arising from the Investigation of the new Board of Accounts, and of the Comptrollers of Army Accounts; including some Balances re-paid by Agents in consequence of a strict Examination made by three Gentlemen appointed for that Purpose.

Number of British Ships entered Inwards to Great-Britain.

* Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1772 - 7,698	- 757,800	1772 - 9,403	- 928,811
1773 - 8,259	- 756,000	1773 - 9,396	- 874,042
1774 - 8,587	- 800,000	1774 - 9,524	- 808,004
1775† - 9,247	- 943,000	1775 - 9,719	- 888,864

Number of British Ships cleared Outwards from Great-Britain.

Ships.	Tonnage.
1787 - 11,762	- 1,211,109
1788 - 12,986	- 1,414,689
1789 - 13,648	- 1,515,041
1790 - 12,762	- 1,424,912

Total Value of Imports into Great-Britain.

1772 - £.14,500,000	1787 - £.17,800,000
1773 - 12,675,000	1788 - 18,027,000
1774 - 13,846,000	1789 - 17,821,000
1775 - 14,816,000	1790 - 19,130,000

Total Value of Exports from Great-Britain.

Foreign Manufactures.	British Manufactures.	Total.
1772 - £.6,746,000	- £.10,973,000	- £.17,719,000
1773 - 7,114,000	- 9,417,000	- 16,531,000
1774 - 6,729,000	- 10,556,000	- 17,285,000
1775 - 6,252,000	- 10,072,000	- 16,325,000

Foreign Manufactures.	British Manufactures.	Total.
1787 - £.4,815,000	- £.12,054,000	- £.16,869,000
1788 - 4,747,000	- 12,724,000	- 17,471,000
1789 - 5,561,000	- 13,779,000	- 19,340,000
1790 - 5,199,000	- 14,921,000	- 20,120,000

* The proportion of these ships, in the last peace, belonging to the Provinces (now the United States of America) was very large; but it is impossible to ascertain the number of them, with any degree of accuracy.

† From this year they continued diminishing till 1782, when there were only 4,452.

The following Abstract shows the comparative situation of Great-Britain, in respect to the particulars mentioned, at the periods annexed—Taken from the fore-mentioned pamphlet.

Price of £.3 per Cents Consol.	January 27th, 1784.	—	—	Price of £.3 per Cents Consol.	February 10th, 1792.
	£.55.	—	—		£.93 $\frac{1}{4}$
Price of India Stock, January 27th, 1784.	—	—	—	Price of India Stock, February 10, 1792.	—
	£.121.	—	—		£.197 $\frac{1}{4}$
Value of Imports, 1783.	—	—	—	Value of Imports, 1790.	—
	£.13,325,000.	—	—		£.19,130,000
Value of Exports, 1783.	—	—	—	Value of Exports, 1790.	—
British Manufactures, Foreign Produce.	£.10,409,000	Total.	£.14,741,000	British Manufactures, Foreign Produce.	£.5,199,000
	£.4,332,000				£.20,120,000
No. of British Ships entered Inwards to Great-Britain in 1783.	7,690.	No. of British Ships entered Inwards to Great-Britain in 1790.	12,294.		
No. of British Ships cleared Outwards from Great-Britain in 1783.	7,329.	No. of British Ships cleared Outwards from Great-Britain in 1790.	12,762.		
Amount of the Permanent Taxes in 1783.	£.10,194,259.*	Amount of the Permanent Taxes in 1791.	£.14,232,000		
In 1783 the whole of the Revenue (including the Land and Malty) below the Expenditure on a Peace Establishment.	£.2,000,000	In 1791 the whole of the Revenue above the Expenditure on the reduced Peace Establishment.	£.1,900,000		

* Including a postponed payment of the India Company for Duties which were not paid till a subsequent year.

NATIONAL DEBT.] The National Debt of Great-Britain in 1755, previous to the French War was £72,389,000; the Interest £2,654,000

In January 1776, before the American War it was £123,964,000; ditto £4,411,000

In 1786, till which time the whole Debt of the last War was not funded, it was £239,154,000;* ditto £9,275,000

No permanent provision had ever been made for the progressive and certain reduction of this immense Debt, until 1786—when Parliament had the wisdom and the firmness to pass an Act for vesting unalienably, in Commissioners, the sum of one million annually; in which Act every possible precaution was taken that could be devised for preventing the surplus from being diverted at any future time, and for carrying to the account of the Commissioners for the purposes of the Act, the interest of such stock as should be purchased, and such temporary annuities as should fall in. Under the provisions of this Act, *Eight Millions Two Hundred Thousand Pounds* of the capital of the debt has been purchased;† and the amount of the annual sum, now applicable for the reduction of it is £1,360,000.

* Exclusive of a capital of £1,091,000 granted by Parliament to Loyalists, as a compensation for loss of property in America.

† And Loyalists debentures have been satisfied to the amount of £686,000, which may be considered as a further reduction of the debt to that amount.

REVENUE.] The state of the Revenue will appear from the following Report of the Select Revenue Committee, &c. 1785,

1.	Total net payments into the Exchequer, from January 5, 1785, to January 5, 1786,	£. 2,199,916	
	Deduct therefrom the repaid duties paid by the East-India Company	£. 401,118	
	Excess beyond the future amount of the window duties	56,101	
		<u>457,219</u>	
2.	Further produce of the window duty, imposed by the 24th Geo. III.	£. 12,012,697	
3.	Further produce of the duty on two-wheel and four-wheel carriages	253,534	
4.	To complete the former duty on male servants	107,186	
5.	Further produce of the duties on horfes, waggons, and carts	42,444	
6.	taxes imposed in 1784	73,610	
7.	taxes imposed in 1785, including the improvement of the medicine duty	22,000	
8.	Paid at the Excise and Alienation Office, in part of civil list	242,000	
9.	Produce of the land and malt	14,000	
		<u>2,600,000</u>	
		16,397,471	

EXPENDITURE.

10.	Interest and charges of the public debts	£. 9,275,769	
11.	Exchequer bills	258,000	
12.	Civil list	64,600	
13.	Charges on the aggregate fund	1,800,000	
14.	Navy	1,600,000	
15.	Army	348,000	
16.	Ordnance	91,000	
17.	Militia	73,274	
18.	Miscellaneous services	66,538	
19.	Appropriated duties	<u>14,478,181</u>	
		Annual surplus	£. 919,290

What

What has been the total improvement of the Revenue from the year 1783 to the present time, will appear from the following statement :

Produce of all the PERMANENT TAXES.

From 5th January 1783 to 5th January 1784	-	*	10,194,259
1784 to - - - 1785	-		10,856,996
1785 to - - - 1786	-	†	12,104,798
1786 to - - - 1787	-	‡	11,867,055
1787 to - - - 1788	-		12,923,134
1788 to - - - 1789	-		13,007,642
1789 to - - - 1790	-		13,433,068
1790 to - - - 1791	-		14,072,978
1791 to - - - 1792	-		14,132,000

From the above it appears, that the revenue has almost gradually risen, in the course of the last nine years, from £.10,194,259 to £.14,132,000.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Great-Britain may be called a limited monarchy. It is a combination of a monarchical and popular government. The king has, or at least is understood to have, only the executive power ; the legislative is shared by him and the parliament, or more properly speaking, by the people. Notwithstanding the limitations of regal power provided by the constitution, the prerogative of the king is still very great. In consequence of possessing the executive power of the state, he appoints his privy council and his ministers, by whom the national business is to be carried on ; he has the right of calling together and dissolving the parliament ; he can withhold his assent from any bill which has passed both houses, and by that means prevent it from passing into a law ; his person is sacred and inviolable ; he cannot, in the eye of the law, do wrong, but the blame of his measures falls always on his ministers and advisers ; he nominates all the great officers of the state and church ; he confers honours, dignities, and titles, especially that of the peerage ; he pardons criminals ; he is the supreme commander of the army and navy, and the head of the church. His income is very ample, amounting annually to 900,000l. sterling.

The crown is hereditary ; both male and female descendants are capable of succession. By a fundamental law the king must profess the Protestant religion.

The legislative power belongs to the king and parliament, or the great senate of the nation. This parliament is composed of the peers and commons, and divided into two assemblies, called the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Lords is composed, 1. Of the temporal peers, or the hereditary nobility of the kingdom of England, distinguished by the different ranks of dukes, marquises,

* The actual payments into the Exchequer in this year were £.523,053 less than this sum ; but it is added here, as duties of customs to that amount, due by the East India Company, were postponed.

† Deducting £.401,118 duties of customs paid by the East India Company within this year, which became due in a former one.

‡ Deducting £.522,500 of ditto.

|| £.233,098 of custom duties due by the East India Company had been suspended in 1782. From this sum should be deducted £.193,000, being the amount of a 53d Weekly payment, which would leave the produce of the year £.13,879,000.

marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons; who have by birth-right or creation, a seat in the House of Lords; and are hereditary counsellors of the king. 2. Of the spiritual lords, or the two archbishops and 24 bishops of England, who have seats in the house by virtue of their dignities. 3. Of 16 Scotch peers, the representatives of the peerage of Scotland. The House of Commons is composed of such persons of fortune and interest as are chosen representatives for the several counties, cities and boroughs of the kingdom. The number of these representatives is 558, chosen in the following manner :

For the 40 counties of England, two members for each	80
For the 12 counties of Wales, one for each	12
For the counties of Scotland	30
For the cities in England	50
For the boroughs in England	339
For the two universities	4
For the cinque ports	16
For the boroughs of Wales	12
For the boroughs of Scotland	15
	<hr/>
	558

This plan of representation, founded on the ancient state of the kingdom, is at present liable to many objections. Among the places which are represented in parliament, there are many which were formerly flourishing, but which are at present sunk into insignificance; and many towns, now opulent and populous, which at that time were not yet risen into consequence, have not acquired the right of sending representatives. Several boroughs are become private property; in others the number of electors is very small, and of course easily influenced by powerful individuals; so that upon the whole the representation is very unequal and defective. But its present state is so nearly connected with the rights of private property and the interest of the great families, that it is a very difficult matter to render it equal and independant. The duration of parliaments is at present extended to seven years, after the expiration of which a new general election of representatives takes place. Many of those who are zealous for the rights of the people, wish to shorten the septennial parliaments, because experience teaches that they give too much influence to the crown over the members, and diminish that of the constituents over their representatives. To be chosen a representative, certain qualifications are necessary, as the possession of landed property of the annual value of 300*l.* if it be for a borough, and of 500*l.* a year if it be for a county. No foreigner, though naturalized, can be chosen a member of the House of Commons. In the House of Lords the lord chancellor presides; in the House of Commons an elective president, called the Speaker. Any member of either house has the right of bringing in a bill; which, before it can pass into an act of parliament, and obtain the force of a law, must be agreed to by a majority of both houses, and afterwards receive the assent of the king. Bills relating to taxation, revenue, and its administration, originate always in the House of Commons, who, by the invaluable privilege of granting or refusing supplies, have the power of promoting or stopping any measure

of government: The Commons have likewise the privilege, that none of their money bills can be altered or amended by the Lords. The upper house of parliament have the supreme judicial authority in the state, to which appeals may be made from the decisions of the courts of Westminster. The power of parliament is the highest in the state, and is unlimited; it has even altered more than once the established religion, and the order of succession to the crown.

In consequence of the mixed character of the English constitution, there have been, since the time of the Stuarts, two parties in the nation of opposite political principles; one of which favours the power of the crown, and the other the democratical, or aristocratical power in the constitution. They were originally distinguished by the names of Cavaliers and Roundheads; afterwards they were called Tories and Whigs, and at present the Court Party and the Opposition. The mutual jealousy of these parties, when founded in principle, is beneficial to the constitution; but their dissensions must often be attributed to private views, disappointed ambition, and struggle for power: Yet, notwithstanding the divisions of party, the influence which the king has over the parliament, by his constitutional prerogative, and the numerous favours and rewards he has it in his power to bestow, is exceedingly great.

Besides the parliament, the king has the assistance of his ministers, or privy-counsellors, nominated by himself, and responsible for their advice and conduct. Among these privy-counsellors are the great officers of the state, who hold their places during the king's pleasure, and who retain the dignity of privy-counsellors, though removed from their offices. The offices of Lord Chamberlain and Earl Marshal are hereditary to the ducal families of Ancafter and Norfolk. Among the privy-counsellors, those ministers who compose the cabinet are the principal; the Lord Chancellor, the first Lord of the Treasury, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who, when he is at the same time first Lord of the Treasury, is considered as the first minister, the two Secretaries of State for the northern and southern department, the Lord President of the Council, and Lord Privy Seal, to which must be added, the first Lord of the Admiralty: These ministers are presidents of the principal state departments. Scotland has its own officers of state and courts of justice.

The administration of justice in England is, as it may be expected in a constitution so favourable to liberty, famous for its fairness, independence, and impartiality. The laws of England have been least of any influenced by the Roman laws, the admission of which the nation has firmly opposed. They are divided into the unwritten, or common law, and the statute law: The first is not founded on any known act of the legislature, but transmitted down by tradition. Its principles are collected from the judgments which have passed according to it, from time immemorial, and which are carefully preserved under the name of records. Its legal force is, probably, founded on acts of parliament, prior to the reign of Richard I. the originals of which are now lost. The written, or statute law, is the collection of acts of parliament, the originals of which have been preserved, especially since the time of Edward III. The chief courts of common law are, 1. the Court of King's Bench, 2. the Court of Common Pleas, and 3. the

Court of Exchequer; each of these courts has four judges, who cannot be deprived of their places but on an accusation by parliament. To obtain legal remedy in cases to which the jurisdiction of the common law courts did not extend, the courts of equity have been added, viz. the Court of Chancery, under the Lord High Chancellor, and the Court of Exchequer Chamber. In important and difficult causes, the twelve judges, joined sometimes by the Lord Chancellor, meet to deliberate on the judgments passed in the courts. There are, besides many provincial and subordinate courts, the ecclesiastical courts, the courts martial, and admiralty court; into the three latter, the principles and proceedings of the Roman law have been admitted. From all courts of justice appeals can be made to the House of Lords, the highest judicial tribunal in the kingdom.

It is chiefly in the criminal judicature that the laws of England differ so greatly and so honourably from those of other countries. When a person is charged with a crime, he is first examined by a magistrate, who may discharge him if the accusation should be evidently idle or false; but if it appears to have sufficient weight, he binds the party to give bail for his appearance to answer to the charge; and, in capital cases, he commits him to prison. Before the party is brought to a trial, the accusation undergoes a second discussion by the grand jury of the county, consisting of more than 12, and less than 24, persons of character and respectability; if twelve or more of them are of opinion that the charge is well grounded, the prisoner is indicted. He is then brought to the bar of the court to take his trial, in a public manner, before the judge and petty jury. The latter is composed of twelve impartial persons of the same rank with the prisoner, any of whom, as far as twenty persons successively, the prisoner may challenge, if he has any objection to be tried by them; and this jury are finally to judge the prisoner, according to the evidence produced in the trial. When the jury have taken their oaths, the indictment is read to the prisoner, who pleads either guilty, or not guilty, to it. In the first case, no trial is necessary; in the other, the evidence of the witnesses, who are on their oath, is produced in presence of the prisoner, who is allowed to question them himself, or by his counsel, and to bring witnesses in his defence. When the evidence is before the court, the judge, in a speech, sums it up, points out the precise state of the question, and gives his opinion concerning the evidence and the point of law. By this opinion the jury are no further bound than as it coincides with their own; and they agree among themselves on the decision or verdict which they are to give, and which must be unanimous; it is either that the prisoner is guilty, or not guilty, of the fact of which he stands accused: If they acquit him, he is immediately discharged from prison; if he is found guilty, the judge pronounces the sentence of the law incurred by the crime, and the prisoner is sent back to prison till the sentence is put in execution. If any extenuating circumstances appear in the trial, the jury may recommend the convict to mercy; and the king has the power either to grant him a free pardon, or to mitigate the rigour of his punishment.

Such are the proceedings of criminal justice in England, which manifest the greatest attention to the liberty and life of the subject, which remove every fear of oppression from the poorest and weakest,
and

and which give innocence the fairest chance of vindicating itself from unjust and malicious accusation.

The laws of Scotland are different from those of England; and they partake much more of the principles and forms of the civil law. The trial by jury in Scotland may, perhaps, be considered as an improvement on that mode of trial: It differs from that in England, by requiring only a majority of two-thirds, not a unanimity of the jury, in order to give a decisive verdict.

The government of Ireland resembles, in every respect, that of Great-Britain, with which it has now no other connexion than that of being subject to the same king. Ireland has its own parliament, framed on the same plan with the British; its officers of state, courts of justice, &c. but it is protected by the British army and navy.

ARMY.] In time of peace the Army consists of about 40,000 men.

CAVALRY.

- Horse Guards, 2 troops.
- Horse Grenadier Guards, 2 troops.
- Royal regiment of Horse Guards.
- 4 Regiments of Horse.
- 3 Regiments of Dragoon Guards.
- 6 Regiments of Dragoons.
- 13 Regiments of Light Dragoons.

INFANTRY.

- 3 Regiments of Foot Guards.
- 73 Regiments of Foot.
- Artillery Regiment in England.

----- Ireland.

----- Ireland.

----- Ireland.

----- Ireland.

----- Ireland.

In time of peace, most regiments consist of only one battalion, composed of ten companies; in time of war additional companies are raised, and the number of regiments increased. The whole of the army last war, including the foreign troops in English pay, amounted to about 135,000 men. Twelve regiments of cavalry, and 20 of infantry, are usually in Ireland, and are maintained by that kingdom, amounting to about 12,000 to 14,000 men: For the service of Great-Britain, the garrisons, and colonies, about 17,000 men are voted annually by parliament, exclusive of marines.

A militia of about 40,000 men.

NAVY.] The number of Ships in and out of commission, building, &c. in 1787, were as follows, viz.

Ships of the line	—	—	157
Fifities	—	—	19
Frigates	—	—	143
Sloops	—	—	128

		Total	447

Ships actually in commission, in 1786, as guard-ships in the principal ports, and on the several stations, the Channel, North Seas, West-Indies,

Indies, America, East-Indies, Africa, and the Mediterranean, fitting out, &c.

Ships of the line	—	—	12
Frigates	—	—	27
Sloops	—	—	69

The usual complement in time of peace, voted by parliament, 18,000 seamen, including about 3,500-marines.

The principal ports of the navy are Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Chatham, where there are excellent dock-yards.

In times of war, as in 1782, the ships fit for actual service were, according to the Admiralty List,

Ships of the line	—	—	114
Fifties	—	—	11
Frigates	—	—	111
Sloops	—	—	42
Guard-Ships	—	—	24

Total 302

The whole of the fleet carried upwards of 20,000 guns, and was manned by 116,546 seamen.

The Royal Navy of Great-Britain, as it stood at August, 31, 1784.

Rates of Ships.	Guns.	No. of each rate.	Men.	Weight of Metal.						
			Men.	Metals.						
1st.	100 and upwards	5	—	875 to 850	—	42	24	12	6	
2d.	98 to 90	—	20	—	750 to 700	—	32	18	12	6
3d.	80 to 64	—	130	—	650 to 500	—	32	18	9	6
4th.	60 to 50	—	27	—	420 to 380	—	24	12	6&18	9 6
5th.	44 to 32	—	102	—	300 to 220	—	18	9	6&12	6
6th.	30 to 20	—	50	—	200 to 160	—	9	4		
			334							
Sloops, 18 to 14	—	—	143	—	125 to 110					
Bombs, Fireships, &c.			19							
			Total				496			

In commission 25 of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, and 105 sloops. When a ship of war becomes old, or unfit for service, the same name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom.

While a single beam of the old ship remains, the name cannot be changed unless by act of parliament.

The pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate. FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to Flags.

	Per day.
Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet	— £.5 0 0
An Admiral	— 3 10 0
Vice Admiral	— 2 10 0
Rear Admiral	— 1 15 0
First Captain to the Commander in Chief	— 1 15 0
Second do. and Captain to other Admirals	— 1 0 0
— to V. Admirals } if first or second Rates. to }	0 16 0
— to R. Admirals } have the Pay of such Rates }	0 13 6

HISTORY.] For this interesting article, the reader is referred to Hume, Goldsmith, Macauley or some other professed Historian. I shall

I shall here set down a chronology of English kings, from the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the person of Egbert, who subdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the island, the Saxons and Angles having about four centuries before, invaded and subdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.

300 Egbert	871 Alfred the Great	955 Edwy	} Sax. Princes.
338 Ethelwulf	901 Edward the Elder	959 Edgar	
357 Ethelbald	925 Athelstan	975 Edward the Mar.	
360 Ethelbert	941 Edmund	978 Ethelred II.	
366 Ethelred	946 Edred	1016 Edmund II. or (Ironside.)	
1017 Canute, king of Denmark	} Danish.		
1035 Harold			
1039 Hardicanute			
1041 Edward the Confessor	} Saxon.		
1065 Harold			
1066 William I.	{ (Commonly called the conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the south of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.		
1087 William II.	} Sons of the Conqueror.		
1100 Henry I.	}		
1135 Stephen, grandson to the Conqueror, by his 4th daughter Adela.	{ (Plantagenet) grandson of Henry I. by his daughter		
1154 Henry II.	{ the empress Matilda, and her 2d husband, Geoffrey Plantagenet.		
1189 Richard I.	} Sons of Henry II.		
1199 John	}		
1216 Henry III. son of John.	}		
1272 Edward I. son of Henry III.	}		
1307 Edward II. son of Edward I.	}		
1327 Edward III. son of Edward II.	}		
1377 Richard II.	{ grandson of Edward III. by his eldest son, the Black Prince.		
1399 Henry IV.	{ Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, 4th son to Edw. III.		} House of Lancaster.
1413 Henry V. son of Henry IV.	}		
1422 Henry VI. son of Henry V.	}		
1461 Edward IV.	{ descended from Edward III, by Lionel his 3d son.		} House of York.
1483 Edward V. son of Edward IV.	}		
1483 Richard III. brother of Edward IV.	}		
1485 Henry VII.	{ (Tudor) son of the countess of Richmond, of the House of Lancaster.		} House of Tudor, in whom were united the Houses of Lancaster and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daug. of Edward IV.
1509 Henry VIII. son of Henry VII.	}		
1547 Edward VI. son of Henry VIII.	}		
1553 Mary	{ Daughters of Henry VIII.		
1558 Elizabeth	}		

- 1603 James I. } Greatgrandson of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and first of the Stuart family in England.
- 1625 Charles I. son of James I.
Commonwealth, and protectorate of Cromwell.
- 1649 Charles II. } Sons of Charles I.
1685 James II. }
- 1688 { William III. nephew and son-in-law of James II.
and Mary } Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Protestant line of Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his infant son (the late Pretender) who was excluded by act of parliament, which settled the succession in the next Protestant heirs of James I. The surviving issue of James, at the time of his death, were a son and a daughter, viz. Charles, who succeeded him, and the Princess Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the Princess Sophia, who married the Duke of Brunswick Lunenburgh, by whom she had George, elector of Hanover, who ascended the throne, by act of parliament, expressly made in favour of his mother.
- 1714 George I. }
1727 George II. son of George I. } House of Hanover.
1760 George III. grandson of George II. }

W A L E S.

THE principality of Wales, long an independent and separate country from England, and still entirely differing from it in language, and, in some respects, in manners and customs, is strongly marked out by nature, as a detached district, characterised by an almost continued range of mountains more or less wild and lofty, and interjacent vallies more or less extensive and fertile. It occupies all the central part of the western coast, and the country inland to a moderate distance; having its northern and southern limits well defined by the projecting line of coast from the Dee to Anglesea on the one hand, and the wide entrance of the Bristol channel on the other. The ancient internal dimensions of Wales have been contracted, by taking from it the whole county of Monmouth, and a part of the several adjacent English counties. At present it consists of 12 middle sized counties;* six of which are reckoned to belong to north, and six to south Wales. In general population and fertility the latter division has the superiority. All the Welsh counties, except three, touch the sea coast in some part of their boundary.

E X T E N T A N D S I T U A T I O N.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 130 }	between { 51 and 54 North latitude.
Breadth 96 }	{ 2,41 and 4,56 West longitude.
Area in square miles 7011.	

* For their names, see England.

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Wales (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons) that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers by those who understand it. [For Divisions, see England.]

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in the Northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye and corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Allen, which, near Mold, sinks under ground, and is lost for a short space. These rivers furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endless to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganshire, are the most famous; and their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.} The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniencies of life. The Welsh are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better sort of the Welch speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welch.

RELIGION.] The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and English. Their poverty was formerly a vast discouragement to religion and learning, but the measures taken by the society for propagating christian knowledge, have in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were employed, to remove from place to place for the instruction of the inhabitants; and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people have distinguished themselves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print, at a vast expense, bibles, common-prayers, and other religious books, and distribute them gratis to the poorer sort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-school. The established religion is that of Eng-

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN,] Wales was a seat of learning a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales, when it was persecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the reformation.

With regard to the present state of literature among the Welch, it is sufficient to say, that some of them make a considerable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent scholars.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Wales contains no cities
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } or towns that are remarkable either for populousness or magnificence. Beaumaris, a neat well built place, is the chief town of Anglesey,* and has a harbour for ships, and a castle founded by Edward I. It has no trade. Brecknock has a trade in the woollen branches. It is moderately large, well built, and inhabited by several families of gentry. Cardigan is a large populous town, lying in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines, on the mouth of the river Towy. Caermarthen has a large bridge, is well built and populous, and is reckoned the first town in South Wales. Its river, the Towy, admits of vessels of moderate burden, which gives it a considerable trade. Pembroke, situated on a creek which communicates with Milford Haven, is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen, but on the decline, the navigation to it being injured by the rubbish of the lime stone quarries near it. A part of the country is so fertile and pleasant, that it is called Little England.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Wales abounds in remains of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } antiquity; but the remains of the Druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the isle of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Among

* The isle of Anglesey, which is the most western county of North Wales, is surrounded on all sides by the Irish sea, except on the south east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow strait, called the Menai, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water; the island is of a rhomboidal shape, and from point to point the length is about 22 miles, and the breadth 20. It contains 74 parishes. The part of the island bordering the Menai is finely wooded, recalling to the mind its ancient state, when it was the celebrated seat of the Druids, the terrific rites of whose religion, were performed in the gloom of the thickest groves. Rude mounds and heaps of stones, supposed to be Druidical remains, are yet to be seen here. A little way within, however, the whole country changes its aspect into a naked tract, without trees or even hedges, rising in small hills, watered by numerous rills, and fertile in grass and corn. The products of Anglesey are corn and cattle. In favourable seasons large quantities of barley and oats are exported by sea, and several thousand head of cattle, besides multitudes of sheep and hogs, annually cross the ferry of the Menai to the main land. Its fertility is of ancient reputation, for it had long ago acquired the title of *the nursing mother of Wales*. But the wealth and population of Anglesey have lately received a great increase from the discovery of the famous copper mine on *Pary's mountain*, the largest bed of ore of that metal probably known in the world. It is wrought not in the common manner of subterraneous mines, but like a stone quarry, open to the day; and the quantities of ore raised are prodigious. The ore is poor in quality, and very abundant in sulphur. Quantities of nearly pure copper are obtained from the waters lodged beneath the bed of ore, by the intervention of iron. A lead ore rich in silver is also found in the same mountain. In the north west part of the island is a quarry of green marble, intermixed with that curious substance, asbestos.

Among the natural curiosities of this country, are the following. In Flintshire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Winifred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock at the foot of a high hill, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch supported by pillars, and the roof is most exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. This spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions, and is now applied to the purpose of turning several mills, for the working of copper, making brass wire, paper and snuff, and spinning cotton; which branches give great employment to the town and neighbourhood, and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to sling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or scarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greatest rains. After a violent fall of rain, it becomes discoloured by a wheyish tinge. The small town adjoining to the well, is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, across the edge of which the public road lies, and occasions no small terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock seems ready every minute to crush them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and, till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road, was so dangerous that one false step was of dismal consequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular measurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleasing prospects and picturesque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the western and northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokehire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late considerable sums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknockshire are several woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and Ireland.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every shire, and a burges for every shire-town, except Merioneth.

[REVENUE.] As to the revenues, the crown has a small property, in the product of the silver and lead mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8,000*l.* a year. The land tax of Wales brought in 6 years, years ago about £.43,700 a year.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people appear never to have been entirely subdued by the Romans; though part of their country, from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. The Saxons conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, but never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Demetia, or South Wales; Powesia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England, planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppose them. They made however many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England to maintain their liberties; and even the English historians admit the injustice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a handle for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellyn, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Griffyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellyn, prince of Wales, disdainng the subjection to which old Llewellyn had submitted, Edward raised an irresistible army at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewellyn; but at last, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward from that time pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognise his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England, from this period, becomes the same. It is proper, however, to observe, that the kings of England have always found it their interest to soothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldest sons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

§ SCOTLAND.

chain of mountains, called the Pentland hills, runs through Lothian, and joins those of Tweedale. A third, called Lammar-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merle. Besides those continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, sometimes go by the Celtic word *Laws*. Many of them are stupendously high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particularized here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largest river in Scotland, is the Forth, which rises in Monteith near Callendar, and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself near Edinburgh into that arm of the German sea to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and running south east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and, running from south-west to south-east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanarkshire, and, after many beautiful serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, and falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides those capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior sort, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fishes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of those rivers go by the name of *Esk*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greatest improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in Great Britain, was undertaken at a very considerable expense, by a society of public-spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication has been opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Those called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Loch-ness, Loch Au, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fish. The Scots sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spynie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters, with a straight stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Lochness is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, 100 deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. Besides these rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coasts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, and navigable bays or arms of the sea; as the bay of Glencuce and Wigtown bay; sometimes

sometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornock.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepest morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those morasses. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth but without being of much emolument to the proprietors, being at too great a distance from water carriage.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at present boast of its gold mines, yet it is certain, that it contains such, or at least that Scotland formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, and in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been recovered.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of silver; but we know of no silver mines that are worked at present. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the east, west, and northern counties produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vast emolument of the public. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone; so that the houses of the better sort are constructed of the most beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from supplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-mosses being in many parts, of the north, especially, almost exhausted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel; however the taste for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will soon remedy that inconvenience.

Lapis lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerkshire; alum mines have been found in Bamffshire; crystal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, sea-shells, potters clay, and fullers earth. The stones which the country people call elf-arrow heads, and to which they assign a supernatural origin and use, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made use of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore both in mines and stones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to partake of the profits.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } It is certain, that the soil of
DUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } Scotland, may be rendered, in ma-
ny parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said, that
some tracts of the low countries at present exceed in value English es-
tates of the same extent, because they are far less exhausted and worn
out than those of the southern parts of the island; and agriculture is
now perhaps as well understood, both in theory and practice, among
many of the Scotch-landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Eu-
rope.

The merchants of Glasgow, who are the life and soul of that
part of the kingdom, and into whose hands a very considerable
part of the landed property has lately fallen, while they are daily in-
troducing new branches of commerce, are no less attentive to the prog-
ress of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and
the whole island in general, the most essential service. The active
genius of these people extends even to moors, rocks, and marshes,
which being hitherto reckoned useless, were consequently neglected,
but are now brought to produce certain species of grain or timber, for
which the soil is best adapted.

But the fruits of skill and industry are chiefly perceivable in the
counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agri-
culture is thoroughly understood, and the farmers, who generally rent
from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably
lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable
part of Scotland, which still remains in a state of nature, and where
the landlords, ignorant of their real interest, refuse to grant such lease-
es as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In such
places the husbandmen barely exist upon the gleanings of a scanty
farm, seldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and small,
the houses mean beyond expression, and the face of the country ex-
hibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression. Indeed
from a mistaken notion of the landed people in general, the greatest
part of the kingdom lies naked and exposed, for want of such hedge-
rows and plantings as adorn the country of England. They consider
hedges as useless and cumbersome, as occupying more room than what
they call stone inclosures, which, except in the Lothians already men-
tioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up of
loose stones, without lime or mortar, which have a bleak and mean ap-
pearance.

The soil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay,
and pasture. In the southern counties the finest garden fruits, partic-
ularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are said to fall little, if at all,
short of those in England; and the same may be said of the common
fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds
of salubrious and pleasant-tasted berries; though many extensive tracts
are covered with a strong heath. The sea-coast produces the alga ma-
rina, dulce or dulish, a most wholesome nutritive weed, in great quanti-
ties, and other marine plants.

The Scots have improved in their fisheries as much as they have in
their manufactures and agriculture: For societies have been formed,
which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection
that never was before known in that country; and bids fair to emu-
late

late the Dutch themselves in curing, as well as catching, their fish. In former times, the Scots seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and successfully as any of their neighbours. Their salmon, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and Southern markets, than the English or Irish can, are of great service to the nation, as the returns are generally made in specie, or beneficial commodities.

The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible, and formerly brought large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. This trade is now said to be on the decline, in consequence of the vast increase of manufacturers in Scotland, whose demand for butchers meat must lessen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } If we consult the most ancient
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } and creditable histories, the population of Scotland in the thirteenth century, must have been excellent, as it afforded so many thousands to fall by the swords of the English. For the present number of inhabitants in Scotland, see the General Table of Great Britain.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of a characteristic feature, that of high-cheek bones, is observable in their faces; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring spirit was chiefly owing to their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this disparity of fortune among the sons of one family prevails in England likewise; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to those of a country so narrow, and so little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

It remains perhaps a question, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted among the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmost service to many of its natives. Their literature, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the same time it drained the nation of that order of men, who are the best fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon estates of 3000. a year and upwards, they differ little or nothing in their manners, and stile of living, from their English neighbours of the like fortunes.

The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions,

to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter sagely upon any daring enterprise; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 40,000 people; and, though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500*l.* annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young Pretender after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed were it not well attested.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage with variations, under new names; but with this disadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of music, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stripped of that original simplicity, which, however irregular, is their most essential characteristic, which is so agreeable to the ear, and has such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively and merry strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress, by the fife, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited.

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness; the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time in their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the particular diversions practised by the gentlemen, is the Goff, which requires an equal degree of art and strength; it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part that strikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. The diversion itself resembles that of the Mall, which was common in England in the middle of the last century. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it in fewest strokes into a hole, wins the game. The diversion of Curling is likewise, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor. These two may be called the standing summer and winter diversions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, cricket excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen considering it as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Highlanders, especially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, is radically Celtic.

RELIGION.]

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottish historians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Christianity was first taught in Scotland by some of the disciples of St. John the apostle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the persecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publickly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch historians call Donald the First, his queen, and several of his nobles, were solemnly baptised. It was farther confirmed by emigration from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the established religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who seem to have been the first regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overseers or bishops chosen by themselves, from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence or rank over the rest of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Christianity seems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romish church, which at last prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkness which for many ages overspread Europe; though their dependance upon the Pope was very slender, when compared to the implicit subjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, notwithstanding the oppression of the Roman clergy, so late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the 14th century, when they disappeared. But it is worthy of observation, that the opposition to the old Religion in this island, though it ceased in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the same age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of abilities and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther, and John Calvin.

The reformation in Scotland began in the reign of James V. made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and in a degree was the apostle of Scotland.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is sufficient to say, that its first principle is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters; and it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. The power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised. They have been ever since the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes; but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no use of set forms in worship. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of the protestant schools erected by act of parliament in North Britain, and the Western Isles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the support

of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which we may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery, consisting of under twelve ministers, sends two ministers, and one ruling elder: if it contains between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a minister of their own body. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often of the first quality of the country.

The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets once a year; but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confusion; which the moderator, who is chosen by them to be as it were speaker of the house, has not sufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general Assembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority to the general Assembly.—They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland: But their acts are reverfible by the general Assembly.

Subordinate to the synods, are presbyteries, sixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder, chosen half-yearly out of every kirk-session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division; but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognifance of all ecclesiastical caufes and matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy, otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jura devobuto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-session is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own parish. The members consist of the minister, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and have the superintendency of the poor, and take care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial trust, and he is generally a lay person of quality or interest in the parish. They are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the minister, and to be assisting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion-table.

The

The office of ministers, or preaching presbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling-elders; they alone can preach, administer the sacraments, catechise, pronounce church censures, ordain deacons and ruling-elders, assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers, and moderate or preside in all ecclesiastical judicatories.

The other sects of dissenters in Scotland are episcopalians, a few quakers, many Roman Catholics and some Jesuaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the restoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the established church of Scotland. The partisans of the duke of York, retained the episcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the Presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of Toleration, as well attended. A Scotch episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themselves so well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the government found means, to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, still subsist, but thinly.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishopricks, St Andrews and Glasgow; and twelve bishopricks.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe for 1400 years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland; and many others since, whose bare names would make a long article. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, most unquestionably held a correspondence by letters, with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, settling, and ruling his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a seemingly paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1638, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard, and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is, to this day, the most classical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes, are incomparably the finest compositions of the times, in which they were written, and are free from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This has been considered as a proof, that classical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland, than at any other in Europe.

The discovery of the logarithms, a discovery, which in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston. And since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning, has added the colouring of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the subject is little susceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on astronomy,

tronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His Treatise on Fluxions is regarded by the best judges in Europe, as the clearest account of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician, no less famous, distinguished himself in the sure, but almost deserted track of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simion, so well known over Europe, for his illustration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and above all, his Conic Sections, are sufficient, of themselves, to establish the scientific reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not rest on the character of a few mathematicians and astronomers. The fine arts have been called sisters to denote their affinity. There is the same connexion between the sciences, particularly those which depend on observation. Mathematics and physics, properly so called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of study to which they are allied. In medicine, particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, and Whyt, hold a distinguished place.

Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson.

But of all literary pursuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and respect. The philosophy of Dr. Hutcheson, * not to mention other works more subtle and elegant, but less convincing and less instructive, deserves to be read by all who know their duty, or who would wish to practise it. Next to Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding, it is perhaps the best dissection of the human mind, that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewise the most useful supplement to that essay.

It would be endless to mention all the individuals, who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of literature; particularly as those who are alive (some of them in high esteem for historical, ethical, and sermonic composition) dispute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with unfading laurels.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews,

* Ireland also claims the honour of giving birth to this Gentleman, and upon (apparently) good authority.

† St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Professors in		
Greek,	Moral Philosophy,	Church History,
Humanity,	Natural Philosophy,	Divinity,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Medicine,
Logic	Civil History,	

This University possesses several very great advantages for the education of youth. The air is pure and salubrious; the place for exercise dry and extensive; the exercises themselves are healthy and innocent. It is situated in a peninsulated country, remote from commerce with the world, the haunt of dissipation. From the smallness of the Society, every Student

draws, founded in 1411.—Glasgow, about 1453.—Aberdeen, § 1494.—And Edinburgh, § 1582.

SOCIETY. A Society was incorporated by patent, in the year 1708, for erecting schools in North-Britain and the Isles; and in 1716, an act passed for their establishment, and a fund of £.20,005 was appropriated, and made a stock, for carrying on the design. The Society applied to George II. for an additional charter to erect work houses for employing children in manufactures, house wifery and husbandry, in the Highlands and Isles, and obtained from him not only a patent, but a revenue of £.1000 a year, and they have now upwards 100 schools, in which between 4 and 5000 boys and girls are educated.

CITIES,

Student's character is perfectly known. No little irregularity can be committed, but it is soon discovered and checked: Vice cannot gain consequence in this place, for the incorrigible are never permitted to remain the corruptors of the rest.

§ Glasgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Professors in

Greek,	Moral Philosophy,	Divinity,
Humanity,	Natural Philosophy,	Civil and Scotch Law,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Anatomy,
Oriental Languages,	Practical Astronomy,	Anatomy.
Logic,	History,	

§ Aberdeen has properly two colleges, viz. King's College, and Marischal College, King's College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

Greek,	Philosophy,	Civil Law,
Humanity,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Oriental Languages,		

Marischal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

Greek,	Natural Philosophy,	Divinity,
Oriental Languages,	Mathematics,	Medicine.
Moral Philosophy & Logic,		

|| At present (1790) the Senatus Academicus of this University consists of the following members, arranged according to the different faculties.

Faculty of Theology.

William Robertson, D. D. Principal of the College.

Andrew Hunter, D. D. Professor of Divinity.

Thomas Hardy, D. D. Regius Professor of Church History.

James Robertson, D. D. Professor of Oriental Languages, and Emeritus Secretary and Li-

Faculty of Law,

Robert Dick, Advocate, Professor of Civil Law, [brarian,

Allan Macconochie, do. do. of Public Law,

Alexander Frazer Tyler, do. do. of Universal Civil History, and of Greek and Roman An-

David Hume, do. do. of Scots Law. [tiquities.

Faculty of Medicine.

Alexander Monro, M. D. Professor of Medicine, of Anatomy and Surgery.

James Gregory, M. D. do. of the Practice of Physic.

Joseph Black, M. D. do. of Medicine and Chemistry.

Francis Home, M. D. do. do. and Materia Medica.

Andrew Duncan, M. D. do. of the Theory of Physic.

Daniel Rutherford, M. D. do. of Medicine and Botany.

Alexander Hamilton, M. D. of Midwifery.

Faculty of Arts.

George Stewart, L. L. D. Emeritus Professor of Humanity.

Adam Ferguson, L. L. D. do. do. of Moral Philosophy, and joint Professor of Mathematics.

Hugh Blair, D. D. do. do. of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres.

Andrew Dalziel, A. M. Professor of Greek, and Secretary and Librarian.

John Robison, A. M. Professor of Natural Philosophy.

Dugald Stewart, A. M. do. of Moral Philosophy.

John Hill, L. L. D. do. of Humanity.

John Bruce, A. M. Joint Professor of Logic.

John Walker, D. D. Regius Professor of Natural History and Keeper of the Museum.

William Greenfield, A. M. Professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres.

John Playfair, A. M. do. of Mathematics.

Robert Blair, M. D. Regius Professor of Practical Astronomy.

James

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDINBURGH. This city is situated in W. long. 3° , N. lat. 56° , near the southern bank of the river Forth, upon a steep hill, rising from E. to W. and terminating in a high rock, on which the Castle stands. It is the metropolis of Scotland. It has lately been embellished with a great number of fine houses in modern taste. Its chief street is the noblest in the world: It is broad enough for five coaches to pass abreast. This street is exceedingly well paved, and rises in the middle, with canals on each side. The houses are very lofty especially in the High-street; some are not less than fourteen stories in height. This is owing to their being straitened for room, which being too small for great foundations, they are forced to make up for that scantiness by the superstructures. Most of the houses being parted into tenements, they have as many landlords as stories, without dependence on one another. The excessive height of buildings has lately been prohibited. The city is watered by leaden pipes brought from a neighbouring spring. It contains besides churches, several magnificent buildings, among which are, the castle already mentioned situated at the west end of the city; inaccessible on the north, south, and west, and at the entrance from the city is defended by an outwork, and a round battery: It is furnished with water by two wells in a rock. In this place are kept the regalia and records of State.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, stands to the south-west of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Ignio Jones has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of this city; it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation; in a room near it, sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery,

James Finlayson, A. M. Joint Professor of Logic,
Andrew Coventry, M. D. Professor of Agriculture.

The number of Students during the session of the College commencing Oct. 16, 1789, and ending May 6th, 1790, was nearly as follows:

Students in Divinity,	130
Law,	300
Physic,	440
General Classics,	420

In all 1090

The old buildings having fallen into decay, have been partly taken down, and a new building is now erecting, the foundation of which was laid with great ceremony, Dec. 16, 1789. The east and west points of this pile extend 255 feet, and the south and north 358 feet. The rooms for the Library and Museum, are each to be 68 feet in length; and the dimensions of the Hall for degrees and public Exercises are about 90 feet by 30.

Encycl. Brit. article Edinburgh—now publishing in Edinburgh.

chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and in it is kept the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers.—The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with great taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scotch history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals. Adjoining to the library is the room where the public records are kept; but both it and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miserably dark and dismal. It is said that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and the papers in rooms far better suited to their importance and value.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, public offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the vast improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have begun to build a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses are to be built of stone, in an elegant taste. The fronts of some are superbly finished in all the beauties of architecture, displaying at the same time the judgment of the builder, and the public spirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town, is a narrow vale, which, agreeably to the original plan was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. But this elegant design was frustrated, through the narrow ideas of the magistrates, who, finding greater benefits by letting the grounds to inferior tradesmen upon building leases; this spot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuisance to those gentlemen who had been so liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the summit. A decision of the House of Lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally distinguished for his taste and good sense, heartily concurred) put a stop to these mean erections. At the west, or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages.

Edinburgh contains a play-house, which has now the sanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, musick-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer; annually chosen from the common-council.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are daily increasing; some of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. About four miles from Edinburgh

burgh is Rossin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, considered as one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe: Founded in the year 1446, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity, sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city of Scotland, and, considering its size, the first in Great-Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings.—The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the finest style of architecture; and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly and a matchless fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid Reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town house is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magistrates. The university is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland, and is at present in a thriving state. In this city are several well-endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns. The number of inhabitants in this city has been estimated by some, at 30,000, by others, at 50,000, and others, at 60,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population: It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the shire town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide harbour: In it are three churches, and several episcopal meeting-houses, a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well frequented university, and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile distant, though almost joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of these two places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the university of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic: It is finely situated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great-Britain, called the Carle of Gowry Dundee, by the general computation; contains about 11,000 inhabitants: It lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to foreign parts; and has three churches, Montrose, Aberbrothie and Brechinlie; also, in the county of Angus: The first has a large and increasing trade, and the manufactures of the other two are flourishing.

Two Pictish monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary construction, were lately standing in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and a stair-case without: That of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice: It consists of sixty regular courses of hewn freestone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top. If these columns are really Pictish, that people must have had among them architects that far exceeded those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman style of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand in their dominions; and some sculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Christian origin. It is not indeed impossible that these sculptures are of a later date. Besides these two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the same taste.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots, are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had amongst them a rude notion of sculpture, in which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day. There is a stone near the town of Forres, or Fortrose, in Murray, which far surpasses all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (says Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relieve are carved thereon, and some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part."

At Sandwick, in Ross-shire, is a very splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large, well cut flag stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various ornaments, in well finished carved work. The one face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central division on the reverse, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

Besides these remains of Scotch antiquities, there are many Roman, Pictish, and Danish remains, and many Druidical monuments and temples are discernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the isles, where we may suppose that paganism took its last refuge. They are easily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are so stupendous as the Druidical erections in South-Britain. There is in Perthshire a barrow which seems to be a British erection, and the most beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world; it exactly resembles the figure of a ship, with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to

to be *terra navis*, the ship of earth. It seems to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles distant from the great scene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland.—The hill of Finchaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumice or scoria of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the volcanic Iceland.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In addition to what we have said on this article in the account of England, we observe that Scotland, in respect to her commerce and manufactures, has, for some years past, been in a very improving state. The expedition of the Scots to take possession of Darien, (of which we gave some account in the general description of America) and to carry on an East and West-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (so far as it went) executed with a noble spirit of enterprise. The miscarriage of that scheme, after receiving the highest and most solemn sanctions, is a disgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languour of the Scottish commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country sustained, by the disgust the inhabitants conceived on that account, and some invasions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconsistent with the articles of union.

The bounties and encouragement granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during Mr. Pelham's administration, made them sensible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a succeeding minister, pursued Mr. Pelham's wise plan; and justly boasted in parliament, that he availed himself of the courage, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in carrying on the most extensive war that Great-Britain ever was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the British government, that the Scots have been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or posterior acts of parliament.

The increase of their shipping within these 30 years past, has been very considerable. The exports of those ships are composed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange for these, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar, and rum, from the British plantations, from the United States of America, and from other countries, their produce, to the immense saving of their nation. The prosperity of Glasgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connexion and trade with Virginia, and some other of the American States.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coast, for they have a great concern in the whale fishery, carried on upon the coast of Spitzbergen; and their returns are valuable; as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of shipping employed in that article.

The buffes, or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyleshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled.

The benefits of the fisheries are perhaps equalled by various manufactures, particularly that of iron at Carron, in Sterlingshire. The linen manufactory, notwithstanding a strong rivalship from Ireland, is in a flourishing state. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not superior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it, has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been said, some years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the British plantations, in linen, cambricks, checks, Osnaburgs, inckle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000*l.* exclusive of their home consumption; and there is reason to believe that the sum is considerably larger at present. The Scots are likewise making very promising efforts for establishing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable.

Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vast progress they have made in working the mines, and smelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is very considerable, and of late they have turned even their stones to account, by their contracts for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the English, is now diminished, it is owing to the best of national causes, that of an increase of home consumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eastern ports of the nation; but Glasgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade of mutual advantage to both parts of Scotland.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, some of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paisley alone employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a reasonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works of every kind, delf-houses, and paper-mills, are erected every where, and the Scotch carpeting makes neat furniture.

REVENUES.] See England.

GOVERNMENT.] The ancient constitution of government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind, to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppress their tenants, and the common people.

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The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises, viz.

"In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the Christian people my subjects: First, That I shall give order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the Christian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. Thirdly, In all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our element and merciful God may shew mercy unto me, and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown by military service. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of state and privy-counsellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even entrusted with the executive part of the government. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical.

The privy-council of Scotland before the revolution, had, or assumed, inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great-Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The first is, that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom.

The justice court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice general, removeable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the justice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but without any necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer, with the same power, authority, privilege, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer, in England, has over the revenues there; and all matters
and

and things competent to the court of exchequer in England relating thereto, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in such cases, is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby and the Hanse towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of Lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000*l.* a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English Inns of courts, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye government for their own regulation. Such are the different law courts that are held in the capital of Scotland.

One thing, which we must not omit to mention, proves the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions. In old times, all the Freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch constitutions, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here transacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill is probably of the same nature with the Saxon Folc-mote, and may signify no more than the hill of meeting.

[*HISTORY.*] The Caledonians were, probably, the first inhabitants of Scotland; the Picts, undoubtedly, were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourscore years before the descent of Julius Cæsar; and who settling in Scotland were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots, most probably, were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in the armies of the continent, and, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland, about the year 261 of the Christian æra, by Donald I.

Mary, daughter and successor of James V. was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her misconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. During her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation ad-

vanced in Scotland. Being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin german, the lord Darnley, whose untimely death hath given rise to much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years, and afterwards on motives of state policy beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in 1603, destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people of Scotland: James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his despotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottish and his English subjects to take up arms against him: And indeed, it was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army: They at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several bloody, but unsuccessful attempts, to restore his son, Charles II.—See Robertson's History of Scotland.

ISLANDS of SCOTLAND.

THE Islands of Scotland are the Shetland, Orcades or Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Western isles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The islands of Shetland lie north-east of the Orcades or Orkney-islands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude; and are part of the shire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Dungsby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempestuous strait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Western isles are very numerous, and some of them large; situated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of these islands, the air being keen, piercing, and salubrious; so that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney islands they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent: The rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness, and storms.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largest of the Shetland islands, which are forty-six in number (though many of them are uninhabited) is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the island does not exceed 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen, and it is the seat of a presbytery.

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The largest of the Orkney islands, which are about thirty in number (though several of them are unpeopled) is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in some places, 9. It contains nine parish churches, and four excellent harbours.

The isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is 24 miles long, and, in some places, almost as broad. It contains two parishes, and a castle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the island. The other principal western islands are Lewis, or Harries (for they both form but one island) which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth, its chief town is Stornway. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is 40 miles long, and, in some places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothsay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the Kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay is likewise a royal burgh; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute. The isles of Ila and Jura, are part of Argyleshire, and contain together about 370 square miles, but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uist contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fishing. The famous isle of Iona, was once the seat and sanctuary of western learning, and the burying place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is still famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity.

[INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, AND RELIGION.] It is not to be expected, that the inhabitants of the islands belonging to Scotland can be minutely described here. Those of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099. In the year 1163 they were in possession of Magnus of Norway, who sold them to Alexander, king of Scots. After this, they were claimed by, and became subject to the crown of Denmark. Christian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretensions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland. Men of fortune there, have greatly improved their estates of late years, and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling and other houses, in a modern taste; and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, sea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geese; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their vast intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already described, in seizing the nests of sea-fowls, who build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preserves them from any diseases known to luxury. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail-shells and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty.—

Their religion is protestant, and according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are much the same with those of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned, as to the population of these three divisions of islands. We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: For the Hebrides themselves were known often to send 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At present, their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000.—The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders.

The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but the Roman Catholic religion still prevails among some of the islanders.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] It is certain that the soil, both of the northern and western islands belonging to Scotland, has suffered an amazing alteration. It is evident, that many of these islands have been the habitations of the Druids, whose temples are still visible in most of them; and those temples were surrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The stumps of former trees, however, are discernible, as are many vestiges of grandeur, even since the admission of the Christian religion; which prove the decrease of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily shews, that if the soil of the northern and western islands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for such spots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-stuff, more than sufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and silver mines; marl, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon these islands. They are not destitute of fine fresh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the same time it must be owned, that the present face of the soil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that were reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] These are all in their infancy in these islands. The reader can easily suppose, that their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which are equal to any in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to those of the Dutch. They carry on likewise a considerable trade in down and feathers; and their sheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths; and even the linen manufactures make no small progress in these islands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and industry, with some portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render these islands at once ornamental and beneficial to their mother-country, as well as to their inhabitants.

HORSES.] The Shetland isles are famous for a small breed of horses, which are incredibly active, strong and hardy, and frequently seen in the streets of London, yoked to the splendid carriages of the curious or wealthy.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } These islands exhibit many pre-
 ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL } nant proofs, in their churches, the
 vestiges of old forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil, of what
 hath been already observed, that they were formerly more populous
 than they are now. The use and construction of some of those works
 are not easily accounted for at present. In a gloomy valley belonging
 to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of
 a stone, called a dwarf-stone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick ;
 in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a
 stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resem-
 blance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two
 men to lie on : At the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth,
 with a hole cut out above for a chimney.

The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here, give room to
 believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present.
 It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly
 catacombs, and nine silver fibulæ or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the
 Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with these parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine
 Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a
 parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and
 its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The
 three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished
 stones, embossed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shet-
 land isles, for their remains of antiquity ; and it would far exceed the
 bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted
 monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike
 purposes. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and
 ceremonies that are discernible upon this island ; and which give
 countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was
 nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scot-
 land, or rather in these islands.

But some of the most astonishing appearances in nature have re-
 mained undescribed, and, till lately, unobserved even by the natives of
 these islands. A discovery reserved for the inquisitive genius of Sir
 Joseph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides,
 in 1772, says, " We were no sooner arrived, than we were struck
 with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though
 founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundations ; the
 whole of that end of the island (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half
 a mile in breadth) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above
 fifty feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays
 or points of land formed themselves : Upon a firm basis of solid, un-
 formed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or sur-
 face of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into
 hills or vallies ; each hill, which hung over the columns below, form-
 ed an ample pediment ; some of these, above sixty feet in thickness
 from the base to the point, formed by the sloping of the hill on each
 side, almost into the shape of those used in architecture.

" Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man ?
 Mere models or play-things. Imitations as diminutive, as his works
 will

will always be, when compared to those of nature. Where is now the boast of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himself to exceed his mistress, Nature, is here found in her possession; and here it has been for ages undescribed. Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the highest ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is past all description: Here they are bars to their very bases, and the stratum below them is also visible.*

Mr Banks particularizes sundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring island, which is wholly composed of pillars without any stratum. In some parts of Staffa, instead of being placed upright, the pillars were observed to lie on their sides, each forming a segment of a circle; but the most striking object in this field of scenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks describes in the following manner: "With our minds full of such reflections, we proceeded along the shore, treading upon another *Giant's Causeway*, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers.* The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and rooted by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without; And the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who also made a voyage to these islands in the same year, had a glance of Staffa, in his passage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by stormy weather from approaching it. "On the west," says he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treasunish isles.—Nearest lies Staffa, a new *Giant's Causeway*, rising amidst the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; glossy and resplendent, from the beams of the eastern sun."—And in the isle of Sky, a considerable way northward, he resumes the subject. "We had in view a fine series of genuine basaltic columns, resembling the *Giant's Causeway*; the pillars were above twenty feet high, consisting of four, five, and six angles, but mostly of five. At a small distance from these, on the slope of a hill, is a tract of some roads entirely formed of the tops of several series of columns, even and close set, forming a reticulated surface of amazing beauty and curiosity. This is the most northern basaltes I am acquainted with; the last of four in the British dominions, all running from north to south, nearly in a meridian: The *Giant's Causeway* appears first; Staffa, &c. succeeds; the rock
Humbly

*The dimensions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks.

	Feet		Feet
Length of the cave from the arch with- out	37½	At the end	70
From the pitch of the arch		Height of an outside pillar	59
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	250	Of one at the N. W. corner	54
At the farther end	53	Depth of water at the mouth	18
Height of the arch, at the mouth	20	At the bottom	9
	117		

Humbly about twenty leagues farther, and, finally, those columns of Sky: The depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vast links of this chain."

I R E L A N D.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE Island of Ireland is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees of west longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime (where the longest day is 16½ hours) and the 24th parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longest day is 17½ hours.

It is 285 miles from Fairhead, north, to Misenhead, south; and from the east part of Down, to the west part of Mayo (where the island stretches most in opposite directions) 160 miles; and contains 11,642,642 Irish plantation acres, or about 17,900,000 acres of English statute measure.

This island is bounded on the north by the Deucalidonian Sea; on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the east by the Irish Sea, or St. George's Channel, which divides it from the western shores of Great-Britain, from which it is distant in some places, not more than 19 or 20 leagues.

DIVISIONS.] See general account of Great-Britain.

NAME.] The Irish Antiquarians generally agree, that the ancient name of Ireland was *Scotia*, and that, at different periods, it has also been called *Ierne*, *Juvertia*, *Hibernia*, &c.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The climate of Ireland, though it does not generally differ much from that of England, is however found to possess an atmosphere more moist, with more frequent returns of rain. From the reports of various registers it appears, that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the same years in England. But without the evidence of registers, it is certain, that moisture (even without rain) is not only more characteristic of the climate of this island than that of England, but is also one of its worst and most inconvenient circumstances.— This is accounted for in observing, that "the westerly winds, so favourable to other regions, and so benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on this side of America to break their force, and proving in the general too powerful for the counteraction of the shifting winds from the eastern and African Continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immense ocean. The sky is hereby much obscured; and, from the nature of rest and condensation, these vapours descend in such constant rains, as threaten destruction to the fruits of the earth in some seasons. This unavoidable evil from natural causes is aggravated by the increase of it from others, which are absolutely either moral or political. The hand of industry hath been long idle in a country where almost every advantage must be obtained from its labour, and where discouragements on the labourer must necessarily produce a state of languor, equally hurtful to the prosperity and manners of every nation

nation. Ever since the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of so many ages subsiding on the lower grounds, have converted most of our extensive plains into mossy morasses, and near a tenth part of this beautiful Isle is become a repository for stagnated waters, which, in the course of evaporation, impregnate our air with noxious exhalations.* But, in many respects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England; the summers being cooler, and the Winters less severe. The piercing frosts, the deep snows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are so frequently observed in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.

The dampness above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of grass, has been used as an argument why the inhabitants should confine their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total desertion of tillage, and injury to the consequent growth of population; but the soil is so infinitely various, as to be capable of almost every species of cultivation suited to such latitudes, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is so conspicuous, that it has been observed by a respectable English traveller, that "Natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two kingdoms, is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this I believe there can scarcely be a doubt entertained, when it is considered, that some of the more beautiful, and even best cultivated counties in England, owe almost every thing to the capital art and industry of its inhabitants."

We shall conclude this article with the further sentiments of the same author (Mr. Young) whose knowledge of the subject, acquaintance with the kingdom, and candour, are unimpeachable.

"The circumstance which strikes me as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockiness of the soil, which should seem at first sight against that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is so general, that I have great reason to believe the whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds rising out of the sea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being sunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom; the flattest and most fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognize in this the hand of bounteous Providence, which has given, perhaps, the most stoney soil in Europe to the moister climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays of England (a soil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much stone) as falls upon the rocks of her sister island, those lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; those of lime-stone with only a thin covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockiness of the soil in Ireland is so universal, that it predominates in every sort. One cannot use, with propriety, the terms clay, loam, sand, &c. it must be a stoney clay, a stoney loam, a gravelly sand. Clay, especially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland, but it is for want of proper discrimination. I have once or twice seen almost a pure clay upon the surface, but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is usually found in a thin stratum, under the surface mould,

* O'Conor's Dissertations.

mould, and over a rock; harsh, tenacious, stoney, strong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from English clays.

“Friable sandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the best soils in the kingdom for tillage and sheep. Tipperary and Roscommon abound particularly in them. The most fertile of all are the bullock-pastures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcaffes. These are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

“Sand, which is so common in England, and yet more common through Spain, France, Germany, and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Peterburgh, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow slips of hillocks, upon the sea coast. Nor did I ever meet with, or hear of, a chalky soil.

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.] “Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers than Ireland; and it is remarkable, that by much the finest parts of the kingdom are on the banks of these rivers. Witness the Suir, Blackwater, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon; they wash a scenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockiness of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obstructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

“The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that interesting variety, with which a flat country can never abound. And, at the same time, they are not in such number as to confer the usual character of poverty, which attends them. I was either upon or very near the most considerable in the kingdom. Mangerton and the Reeks, in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; those of Mourne* and Heah in Down, are reckoned the highest in the kingdom, particularly that called Slieu Donard, which is said to be 1050 yards in perpendicular height; “Crow Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; these are the principal in Ireland, and they are of a character in height and sublimity, which should render them the objects of every traveller’s attention.”*

BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES.] Perhaps no country of the same extent is more bountifully watered by the finest rivers and lakes, or more perfectly indented by the noblest harbours; so as to possess in an eminent degree those great requisites for agriculture, manufactures and the most extended commerce. The rivers, besides abounding with an infinite variety of fish, communicate uncommon fertility to the lands which they beautify, and afford a multitude of the best situations for the machinery of manufactures. The harbours are not only numerous, but, in some instances, capable of containing, in the utmost security, the greatest fleets; stretching out their protecting arms, and courting the pompous ornament of regal navies, or the cheerful signs of far-extended commerce. These, however, have been long solitary and unfrequented, as the illiberal spirit of trading jealousy had, for many ages, with successful injustice, rendered all these distinguished blessings of Providence of no value, except to the adventurous mariner, whom distress or tempest had driven to experience their seasonable protection.

* Mr. Young.

It would be difficult to enumerate the many bays, havens, harbours and creeks, which indent every part of the coast. The following are the principal: Waterford, Carlingford, and Strangford-havens, the bay of Carrickfergus, on the east; Lough-Foyle and Lough-Swilly, Ship-laven, Killybegs-harbour, Donegal-haven, on the north; Galway-haven, the mouth of the Shannon, Sherwick or St. Marywick-haven, Dingle-bay, on the west; Kenmare-bay or river, Bantry, Dumanus, and Baltimore-bays, Castle-haven, Glendore-haven, Kinsale, and Cork-havens, on the south and south-east. These are the principal unbarred havens. There are likewise a great many barred havens, some of which have been much improved by Acts of Parliament, particularly that of Dublin.

The Lakes or Loughs of Ireland have so many properties, in some respects peculiar to themselves, that their singularities, their extent, or their beauties, have long engaged the pens of the traveller, and the poet; and have attracted the curiosity and excited the admiration of people of taste from every part of Europe. The most remarkable are the Lake of Killarney, Lough-erne and Lough-Neagh.

The Lakes of Killarney hold the first place. They are three in number. The northern or lower Lake, is six miles in length, and from three to four in breadth. The Town of Killarney is situated on its northern shore.

The upper lake is four miles in length, and from two to three in breadth—it is almost surrounded with mountains. The islands in this lake are numerous, and afford an amazing variety of picturesque views.

The third, or centre lake, communicates with the upper—it is but small in comparison of the other two. The eastern boundary is formed by the base of Mangerton, down the steep side of which descends a cascade, visible for a hundred and fifty yards. This fall of water is supplied by a circular lake, near the summit of the mountain, called the Devil's Punch-Bowl; which, on account of its immense depth, and the continual overflow of water, is considered as one of the greatest curiosities of Killarney.

There are various situations, on this and the neighbouring mountains, that command extensive prospects of the lakes, with their Islands, Bays, and Promontories—these views are wild and grand to an astonishing degree.

Lough-erne is the largest lake in Ireland, being forty miles in length and in some parts fifteen in breadth. In this lake is an island on which stands the Town of Inniskillen—the communication with the mainland being preserved by two bridges. No town in Ireland can boast of such an advantageous situation for inland commerce, the lake affording it an intercourse, by water, with several counties; and this circumstance in its favour might be further improved, by cutting a canal and building locks, from Belleek to Bally-Shannon, which would open a passage into the Atlantic Ocean.

Lough-Neagh is of an oval figure, but considerably indented on its sides: it is near twenty miles in length, and about ten in breadth; and abounds with a variety of fish, particularly the Pullein, or, as some call it, the fresh-water herring, greatly admired for the uncommon delicacy of its flavour.

This

This Lough is distinguished for the mineral and petrifying qualities which it is supposed to possess.

Whether the petrifying quality imputed to this lake, exists in the water, or the soil, has been a subject of much inquiry; that it exists in one or the other is generally believed from the numerous specimens, which are constantly discovered on the shores, of different species of wood, either wholly converted into stone, or which are found to be partly in one state and partly in the other; which latter afford the most conclusive evidence of the existence of this petrifying property. It has been justly observed that whatever particular quality water is impregnated with, must be derived from the soil through which it runs; now, in the neighbouring grounds, even at the distance of two or three miles, and in situations considerably higher than the Lough, specimens of wood, perfectly and imperfectly, converted into stone are frequently found; sometimes on the banks of many of those streams which fall into the lake, and sometimes in situations more remote.— On the shores are also frequently found a variety of beautiful pebbles, cornelians, agates, and other valuable stones, which have long been objects of curiosity to the virtuosi.

[CAVES AND GLENS.] About two miles from the city of Kilkenny, in the neighbourhood of the Park-house of Donmore, are a number of caves, which are supposed to be equal to any in the world; those of Antiparos, in the Archipelago, excepted. The following description of them, being written by a gentleman on the spot, we shall give it in his own words: “After a difficult descent of about one hundred feet, the entrance into this subterraneous world is gained. The appearance of the first cavern is uncommonly awful, and gives rise to an idea of a grand Gothic structure in ruins. The solemnity of this place is not a little increased by the gaiety of those scenes that present themselves on every side, previous to our entering it. The floor is uneven, and stones of various sizes are promiscuously dispersed upon it. The sides are composed of ragged work, in some parts covered with moss, and in others curiously frosted; and from the roof, which is a kind of arch, several huge rocks project beyond each other, in such a manner, that they seem to threaten instant ruin. The circumference of this cave is not less than two hundred feet, and its height about fifty. Here is a small, but continually dropping water from the ceiling, and a few petrifications resembling icicles. This place is not destitute of inhabitants, for immediately on entering into it, you are surprised with a confused noise, which is occasioned by a multitude of wild pigeons. Hence there is a passage towards the left, where, by a small ascent, a kind of hole is gained, much larger, but in form greatly resembling the mouth of an oven, which introduces the spectator to a place, where, by the help of candles (day-light being entirely excluded) a broken and surprising scene of monstrous stones, heaped on each other, chequered with various colours, inequality of rocks over-head, and an infinity of stalactical stones, presents itself. Here the traveller is threatened from a thousand vast rocks rudely piled on each other, that compose the sides, which seem bending in, and a multitude of no smaller size are pendent from the roof in the most extraordinary manner; add to this, that by one false step, he would be dashed from precipice to precipice: Indeed it would be matter of much difficulty, or rather impracticable

impracticable, to walk over this apartment, had not nature, as if studious for the safety of the curious, caused branches, as it were, to shoot from the surface of the rocks, which are remarkably smooth, very unequal, and always damp. These branches are from four to six inches in length, and nearly as thick. They are useful on the summits of the rocks to prevent slipping, and in the sides are ladders, whereby to descend and ascend with tolerable facility. This astonishing and fractuous passage leads to a place far more curious than the rest. On entering into it, one is almost induced to believe oneself situated in an ancient temple, decorated with all the expense of art; yet, notwithstanding the beauty and splendour that catches the eye on every side, there is something of solemnity in the fashion of the place, which must be felt by the most inattentive spectator. The floor, in some parts, is covered with a crystalline substance; the sides, in many places, are incrustated with the same, wrought in a taste not unlike the Gothic style of ornament, and the top is almost entirely covered with inverted pyramids of the same elegantly white and lucid matter. At the points of these stalactical streets, are perpetually hanging drops of pellucid water, for when one falls, another succeeds. These pendent gems contribute not a little to the glory of the roof, which, when the place is properly illuminated, appears as if formed of the purest crystal. Here are three extraordinary and beautiful congelations, which, without the assistance of a strong imagination, may be taken for an organ, altar, and cross. The former, except when strictly examined, appears to be a regular work of art, and is of a considerable size: The second is of a simple form, rather long than square; and the third reaches from the floor to the roof, which must be about twenty feet. These curious figures are owing to water that falls from the upper parts of the cave to the ground, which coagulates into stone from time to time, till it acquires those forms which are now so pleasing; or to an exudation or extillation of petrifying juices out of the earth; or perhaps they partake of the nature of spar, which is a kind of rock plant. The former appears to be the most probable supposition, as these figures, in colour and consistence, appear exactly like the icicles on the top, which are only seen from the wet parts of the caverns; and in this place, there is a great oozing of water, and a much larger number of petrifications, than in any other. When you quit this curious apartment, the guides lead you for a considerable way through winding places, until a glimmering light agreeably surprises. Here the journey, of above a quarter of a mile, through those parts is ended: But upon returning into the first cavern, the entrance into other apartments, less curious indeed, but as extensive as those we have described, offers itself. The passages into some of these are so very low, that there is a necessity of creeping through them; by these we proceed until the noise of a subterraneous river is heard, but farther none have ventured."

Amongst the numerous glens in Ireland, distinguished for particular beauty, are two in the county of Wicklow. The Glen of the Downs is a pass between two vast ridges of mountains covered with wood, which have a very noble effect; the vale is no wider than to admit the road, a small gurgling river almost by its side, and narrow slips of rocky and shrubby ground which part them: In the front all escape
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seems denied by an immense conical mountain, which rises out of the glen, and seems to fill it up. The scenery is of a most magnificent character.

The Dargle is a narrow vale, formed by the sides of two opposite mountains; the whole thickly spread with oak at the bottom: It is narrowed to the mere channel of the river, which tumbles from rock to rock. The extent of wood that hangs to the eye in every direction is great, the depth of the precipice immense, which, with the roar of the water, forms a scene truly interesting. In less than a quarter of a mile, the road passing through the wood leads to another point of view to the right; it is the crown of a vast projecting rock, from which you look down a precipice absolutely perpendicular, and many hundred feet deep, upon the torrent, which finds its noisy way over large fragments of rocks. At some distance below is a vast chasm in the rock, which seems torn asunder, to let the torrent through, that comes tumbling over a rocky bed far sunk in a channel embosomed in wood. In a hollow, formed of rock and wood, the torrent breaks forth from fragments of rock, and tumbles through the chasm, rocks bulging over it as if ready to fall into the channel. The shade is so thick as to exclude the heavens; all is retired and gloomy; it is a spot for melancholy to muse on.

FORESTS, OR WOODS.] Tradition and history both inform us, that few countries of equal extent, were better timbered than Ireland; her woods were so abundant,* as to occasion her being called by some of the ancient writers *the woody island*; and their quality was of such repute as to become an article of traffic, and often employed in the most conspicuous buildings of the sister kingdom. But the natives, repeatedly harrassed by the inroads and encroachments of the English, frequently found an asylum in their forests. These became therefore an object of equal jealousy and vengeance, and the destroying axe generally accompanied the sword, in the joint extirpation of woods and men, till the island became almost disforested. For many ages it has remained in this state. The encouragement of the Dublin Society, however, and the example of many noble individuals, promise again to clothe the land with its most valuable ornaments.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY LAND AND SEA.] These are in general similar to those in Great-Britain. Wolf-dogs (once so useful and celebrated) were perhaps peculiar to Ireland; but that species is now nearly extinct. Although the coasts of the neighbouring islands may be furnished with the same varieties of fish; yet those of Ireland have them in much greater abundance, and of a larger and more excellent quality.

METALS, MINERALS, AND MEDICINAL WATERS.] The mines of Ireland, until the destruction of her woods, were worked to a very great extent. At present, although abundance of the various species of iron, lead, silver, and copper ores are to be found in every direction through

* "Through every part of Ireland in which I have been, one hundred contiguous acres are not to be found, without evident signs, that they were once wood, or at least very well wooded. A vast number of the Irish names for hills, mountains, vallies, and plains, have forests, woods, groves, or trees for the signification." YOUNG'S TOUR.

through the kingdom, yet the want of capital, or skill, or enterprize is such, that few are worked to any important extent or profit, if we except the great copper mines of the county Wicklow, which are in the hands of an English company.

In several counties are noble quarries of the finest marble, those of Kerry are of various colours, green, red, yellow, and white; and those of Kilkenny black and white; each of which takes the most elegant polish, and are calculated for all the purposes of building or ornament.

Many parts of the kingdom abound with free stone, some of a bright sparkling colour, others of a grey or ash colour, and some approaching to a blue. Those of Ardracken, Garrycorris, and the mountains of Wicklow and Dublin, are particularly admired, and much used in public buildings; but the want of inland water carriage, prevents its being sent to the metropolis, in such sizes as are necessary for large columns, &c. which induces a considerable expense for the import of Portland stone.

Various species of coal, and in the greatest abundance, are to be found in different parts of the kingdom. The pits of Kilkenny yield a coal possessing many peculiar properties; it is very hard, burns freely, emits little or no smook, is of a bright black, and is found to be admirably adapted for melting, and various purposes of manufacture. The pits of Ballycastle (in the county Antrim) produce abundance of coal, yet the want of a safe and commodious harbour to ship them, prevents their being worked to an extent fully equal to the supply of the nation. The collieries of Tyrone produce a very fine species, and are of considerable capacity; they lie in the heart of a populous and great manufacturing country, where other fuel is very scarce; but the want of a more perfect inland water carriage contracts the operation of the numerous benefits which the situation of these collieries presents. The pits of Lough Allen are probably of most importance, as they are of such magnitude, and so happily circumstanced by situation, are of so fine a quality, and so intermixed with strata of the purest iron and other ores, as promise, with attention and capital, to be a source of great profit and advantage to the nation—placed at the head of the Shannon, which is almost navigable to the sea, were canals opened from the capital and other parts, communicating with this river, they would, in a few years, render the cutting of bogs unnecessary, save large sums now annually sent for foreign coals, and establish manufactures on different parts of these lines of the greatest value and extent.

MINERAL WATERS.] There are great numbers of mineral springs in this kingdom of the various classes recommended for medicinal purposes: Such as the vitriolic, alkaline and absorbent, saline and purgative, sulphureous, chalybeate, and sulphurea chalybeate waters, of which those of the two latter kinds are most powerfully impregnated by the benevolent hand of Providence, as efficacious remedies against one of the most prevalent endemics of its northern and moist climate, the scurvy; of these the most generally resorted to, from their experienced good effects, are the waters of Swanlinbar and Drumashave in the north west quarter, and of Lucan, six miles from the capital. There

are also some tepid springs here, the temperature of which, however, is very moderate, that of Mallow in the county of Cork, the warmest of them, not raising Fahrenheit's thermometer above the 68° ; but from its mild, soft, and specifically light nature, and being considerably impregnated with an absorbent earth, and a portion of other medicinal matter, has been found serviceable in several classes of diseases.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] The natural curiosities of Ireland have long occupied the attention of travellers and philosophers. The Giant's Causeway being the most distinguished, we shall give the following account of it as the most recent and accurate.

The Causeway itself is generally described as mole or Quay, projecting from the base of a steep promontory, some hundred feet into the sea, and is formed of perpendicular pillars of basaltes, which stand in contact with each other, exhibiting an appearance not much unlike a solid honeycomb. The pillars are irregular prisms, of various denominations from four to eight sides; but the hexagonal columns are as numerous as all the others put together.

On a minute examination, each pillar is found to be separable into several joints, whose articulation is neat and compact beyond expression; the convex termination of one joint, always meeting a concave socket in the next; besides which, the angles of one frequently shoot over those of the other, so that they are completely locked together, and can rarely be separated without a fracture of some of their parts.

The sides of each column are unequal among themselves, but the contiguous sides of adjoining columns are always of equal dimensions, so as to touch in all their parts.

Though the angles be of various magnitudes, yet the sum of the contiguous angles, of adjoining pillars, always makes up four right ones. Hence there are no void spaces among the basaltes, the surface of the Causeway exhibiting to view a regular and compact pavement of polygon stones.

The outside covering is soft, and of a brown colour, being the earthy parts of the stone nearly deprived of its metallic principle by the action of the air, and of the marine acid which it receives from the sea.*

These are the obvious external characters of this extraordinary pile of basaltes, observed and described with wonder by every one who has seen it. But it is not here that our admiration should cease; whatever the process was by which nature produced that beautiful and curious arrangement of pillars so conspicuous about the Giant's Causeway; the cause, far from being limited to that spot alone, appears to have extended through a large tract of country, in every direction, in so much that many of the common quarries, for several miles around, seem to be only abortive attempts towards the production of a Giant's Causeway.

From want of attention to this circumstance, a vast deal of time and labour have been idly spent in minute examinations of the Causeway itself;—in tracing its course under the ocean—pursuing its columns

into

* This coating contains iron which has lost its phlogiston, and is nearly reduced to a state of calx; for with a very moderate heat it becomes of a bright red ochre colour, the attendant of an iron earth.

into the ground—determining its length and breadth and the number of its pillars—with numerous wild conjectures concerning its original; all of which cease to be of any importance, when this spot is considered only as a small corner of an immense basalt quarry, extending widely over all the neighbouring land.

The basalt of the Giant's Causeway is a black, ponderous, close-grained stone; which does not effervesce in any of the mineral acids.

Its specific gravity is to that of water, nearly in the proportion of 2,90 to 1,00—and to that of the finest marble as 2,90 to 2,70.

Though its texture be compact, it is not absolutely homogeneous, for if ground to a smooth surface, its bright jet-black polish is disfigured by several small pores.

It strikes fire imperfectly with a steel.

When exposed to a moderate heat in a common fire, it assumes a reddish colour, which is more vivid on its natural outside covering, and loses about 1-50th part of its weight.*

In a more intense heat it readily melts, and is, as the chymists express it, fusible *per se*.

With the assistance of an alkali flux it may be vitrified, and forms an opaque glass of a black or blueish colour.

Its principal component parts are iron in a metallic state, combined chiefly with siliceous and argillaceous earths.

Its metallic principle may be demonstrated by a very simple experiment. Let a small fragment of basalt, in its natural state, be brought into contact, or very near to a good magnetical needle, and it may be made to detain the needle at a considerable distance from its meridian. Let this fragment be touched by a magnet, and it will acquire a pretty strong polarity, capable of attracting or repelling the needle at the distance of an inch or more. From hence it is proved to contain iron in a metallic state, because the calx of that metal is incapable of producing any magnetical phenomena whatever.

To determine the quantity and quality of each constituent part, requires a very slow and laborious operation, which would be almost equally tedious in the description. I shall therefore just mention the results from the experiments of that able chymist, Sir Torbern Bergman.

	Basalt 100 parts.	
Contains siliceous earth	—	50
Argillaceous earth	—	15
Calcareous earth	—	8
Magnesia	—	2
Iron	—	25
		100

From these elements we shall easily be enabled to account for several of its properties.

Hence it comes to pass that its specific gravity is so considerable, exceeding that of many stones, which, when polished, appear much more

* This loss probably arises from water expelled by the heat. For in the course of twenty-four hours after, it will have nearly recovered its former weight, particularly if it be moistened.

more compact, the quantity of phlogificated iron easily making compensation.

We see also why it answers so well for a touchstone, the hardness of its iron particles easily rubbing and fretting off the parts of any softer metal which may be applied to it, and its black ground serving to display these to greater advantage.

Hence too arises its fusibility without addition; for though flint, clay, and calcareous earth are separately refractory, in any degree of artificial heat, yet when mixed together they are readily fusible, and still more easily when united with phlogificated iron.

From the metallic state of its iron element we are enabled to infer, *a priori*, that the columns of the Giant's Causeway are all natural magnets, whose lower extremity is their north-pole. For having stood during many ages in a perpendicular position, they must have acquired that polarity which is peculiar to all iron substances, in a similar situation; and like natural magnets, every fragment, when broken, will have its north and south-pole. And this has been found true by experience; each pillar of the Giant's Causeway, and each fragment of a pillar, which was applied near to the needle, having its attractive and repellent point.*

POPULATION.] Few kingdoms have experienced greater variation in population than Ireland. At some remote period there are reasons to believe that its inhabitants were extremely numerous. In several parts of the island (in rough or mountainous ground) difficult of access, and now in a barren state, are evident traces of cultivation; but at what time it prevailed, tradition or history does not inform us.

At the commencement of the present century the numbers in Ireland were thought to be about two millions, whereas in 1672, there were, according to Sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000.—The following data are afforded, from which we may ascertain the present number.

From the accounts laid before the House of Commons in 1786 (as returned by the hearth-money collectors) the number of houses in Ireland amounted to 474,234. Now, adding to that the increase since, and also the numbers intentionally or unavoidably overlooked in such returns, we may reasonably conclude that the present actual amount is 500,000.

We are next to consider what average number of persons we should allow to each house. In the peasants cottages in Ireland (perhaps the most populous in the world) Mr. Young in some parts found the average 6 and $6\frac{1}{2}$; others have found it in different places to be 7; and Dr. Hamilton, in his account of the island of Raghery, enumerates the houses, and discovered the average therein to be 8. In the cities and principal towns, the houses, particularly in the manufacturing parts, generally contain several families; and from different accounts, the numbers in such are from ten up to high as seventy.† The averages, however, of different writers on the population of cities vary between 10 and 13.

From

* See Dr. Hamilton's Letters on the County Antrim.

† Dr. Tisdal enumerated the inhabitants of two parishes in Dublin in 1731, and averaged the number in each house at 12 $\frac{1}{2}$. The numbers varied from 10 to 70.

From such *data* then, it will not perhaps be erroneous, if we fix the average for the whole island at eight persons to each house, which multiplied by the number of houses, makes the population of Ireland amount to four millions.

[LANGUAGE.] The antiquarians and critics agree, that the uncorrupted native language of the Irish is the Gaellic, or Scotie, the purest and most ancient of all the Celtic dialects. It appears from unquestionable testimony, that arts, navigation and letters were first taught in Europe by the Phœnicians, who had a very early intercourse with the Iberian Spaniards. From that nation the Gaellician or Scottish colony derived their original, who amongst other arts, introduced the elements of letters into the island, at a remote period before the christian *Æra*. This fact will easily account for the early use of letters in Ireland, where great security from foreign conquest retained them, and where the manners of the people and the form of government rendered the cultivation of them necessary.

[AGRICULTURE.] The agriculture of Ireland, though greatly extended and improved within these twenty or thirty years past, is still in a very backward state: For though the quantity of corn has increased to such a degree, that instead of depending, as formerly, on a precarious importation of foreign grain, for the supply of the inhabitants; they only have a sufficiency for home consumption; but are enabled to export large quantities; yet the mode of cultivation is very defective, the Irish not having yet introduced those improved systems of culture, which have long been pursued with such advantage, in England, and some other parts of Europe.

[FISHERIES.] Ireland has advantages in the several fisheries not enjoyed by any other country in Europe, particularly in situation, and in her numerous creeks and harbours. Her shores are stored with all the varieties of fish, her fishermen a hardy and adventurous race, and the opportunity of curing on contiguous shores, gives them a decided superiority.

The north-west and western coasts of this kingdom abounding, in a superior degree, with herrings, have long attracted the national attention and legislative encouragement. In 1786, no less than 17,182 $\frac{1}{2}$ barrels of herrings were exported from Ireland. The same year 376 vessels, whose tonnage amounted to 15,336, were employed in this fishery.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The corroborating testimonies of natives and foreigners represent the ancient Irish as a people equally learned and pious, and who were resorted to by men of the most distinguished ranks of distant nations. Camden, Bede, and other writers, enumerate the benefits diffused through various parts of Europe by the numbers of learned men from Ireland, who imparted the early lights of science and of christianity, and founded monasteries in various parts of Britain, France, and Italy. It is observable, that the patron saints of several nations on the continent are acknowledged to be Irish, as were the first professors in the university of Paris, and also those placed by Alfred in his newly-founded college of Oxford.

Few of the writings of the ancient Irish have reached the present times, from the long continuance of civil discord amongst them; such
few

few however as have been published or remain in the hands of the curious, confirm the reputation of their genius and learning. The poems of Colum-cil, several miscellaneous pieces translated by the learned Colonel Vallancey and others, but above all the poems of Ossian (which are unquestionably the original production of this country) place the ancient literary fame of Ireland in the highest rank.

A long night of mental darkness, owing to various causes, succeeded this luminous period. In modern times, however, the genius of the nation, encouraged by peace and harmony, appears again in the republic of letters.

The limits of our work, will not permit us to give a minute detail of Irish writers and their works, and therefore we shall present the reader with the following sketch.

Usher was a scholar, second to none these islands can boast of, unless we except Selden. Berkley, bishop of Cloyne, was a writer of very superior talents. He has been called the Irish Plato. His *Minute Philosopher* is among the standards of the English language. His essay on *Vision* has extended the boundaries of science. King, archbishop of Dublin, was a less fanciful, but a more consistent, philosopher than Berkley. His book upon the *Origin of Evil*, is a master-piece. He was a man of wit, and of a sarcastic vein. Dr. Dodwell, the famous Camden professor of history in the university of Oxford, was of this country. He was a man of universal erudition, but of an enthusiastic turn of mind. Leslie of Glaslough, was a man of great reading, prodigious memory, and voluminous composition. His short and easy method with the Deists, is esteemed one of the best pieces extant on the subject. Toland was a writer of opposite principles. A catholic priest originally, he became a deist in religion, and a republican in politics. His scholarship has been arraigned by his antagonists, but he is commended by Mr. Locke as a man of parts and learning. Clayton, bishop of Clogher, wrote an essay on *Spirit*, an *Analysis of the Works of Lord Bolingbroke*, and other books. Mr. Molyneux* (the friend of Mr. Locke, and champion for the independence of his native country) was a philosopher and mathematician, and reckoned among the first of that scientific age. His *Dioptries* are highly commended by Dr. Halley. Dr. Helfsham published an elegant and learned course of lectures, upon the several branches of physics and mechanics.— Dr. Brian Robinson wrote an essay upon that *Ethereal Fluid* to which Newton alludes in his queries: And also a treatise on the *Animal Economy*, in which he appears happily to have applied his great mathematical knowledge to the extension of medical science. Sir Hans Sloane, no less remarkable for his museum than his genius. Dr. Macbride, who has so successfully applied the theory of fixed air to practice in the cure of the sea-scurvy. Dr. Young's inquiry into the principal phenomena of Sounds, is a work of great scientific knowledge. Dr. Hamilton, whose philosophical account of the county of Antrim, and its Basaltas, is highly esteemed. O'Gallagher, author of an essay on the *First Principles of Nature*. Dr. Sullivan's treatise on the *Feudal Law*

* This was the writer of that celebrated vindication of his country's rights, *The Case of Ireland*, published at the close of the last century, which alarmed the English government so much, that it was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman.

Law and Constitution of England, is making its way in the good opinion of the world; notwithstanding this avenue to fame had been pre-occupied by Dr. Blackstone's Commentaries. Dr. Hutcheson is the principal Ethic writer of this country. Whilst a teacher of an academy in Dublin, he wrote his books on the origin of our ideas of beauty, and on the passions. These raised his reputation so high, that he was invited to accept the moral chair in the university of Glasgow, which he filled with such celebrity, as to lay the foundation for that fame which Glasgow now enjoys as an Ethic school. Two of the ablest divines of this country were dissenters from the established church, Mr. Abernethy and Dr. Leland. The sermons of the former upon the Attributes are held to be one of the best systems of natural theology. He was deputed by the dissenters of Ulster to address the Duke of Ormond, in a tour he made when Lord Lieutenant; and his Grace was afterwards heard to say, that, of all the men who ever approached him on like occasions, he was most pleased with "the young man of Antrim." And Dr. Leland's view of Deistical Writers, and other works, are equally known and admired. Dr. Ducheal wrote presumptive arguments in favour of Revelation, and several volumes of sermons, which have been well received. The writers who have done the nation most honour in theology are, Synge, Story, Brown, Delany, Lawson, Orr, Skelton, and Ryan, author of "The Effects of Religion on Mankind." Bishop Synge is said to have been a man of great parts and learning; he was author of the Religion of a Gentleman. Story, bishop of Kilmore, published only some occasional sermons, but in his treatise on the Priesthood, deep erudition and christian moderation are equally conspicuous. Brown, bishop of Cork, published some volumes of sermons; he is, however, more celebrated for his delivery than his composition. Delany's sermons on the Social Duties, are excellent. Dr. Lawson was a most celebrated preacher. His Lectures upon Oratory, which he delivered in Trinity College Dublin, he gave to the world himself; they shew a nice classical taste, a fine poetical vein, and a thorough knowledge of the art of preaching.

Swift, whose literary character is well known, was a native of Ireland. The other principal miscellaneous writers in this kingdom are, Roscommon, author of the ingenious Essay on translated verse, and an excellent translation of Horace's Art of Poetry. Parnell, the very *delicia musarum*, of whose poetry, above all others, it may be said *decies repetita placebit*. Burke, on the sublime, &c. Lord Molesworth.— Lord Orrery, Earl Nugent. Mr. and Mrs. Millar. Dr. Arbuckle, writer of Hibernicus's letters, &c. Molloy, author of a periodical paper in London, called Common Sense, &c. Ogle, who modernized Chaucer's Tales. Dr. Dunkin, author of a quarto collection of humorous poems, some of which are in three languages, Greek, Latin, and English. Wood, who published Ruins of Palmyra and Balbec, and an Essay on the genius and writings of Homer. Robertson, author of an attempt to explain the words *reason*, *substance*, &c. Sterne, bishop of Clogher, of a book *de visitatione infirmorum*. Sterne, the inimitable Sterne, whose sermons, Tristram-Shandy, and Sentimental Journey, will be admired whilst feeling and sentiment remain among mankind. Webb, who inquired into the beauties of painting, &c. O'Leary, author of several admired Tracts, theological and poetical. Pilkington,

who

who published a Dictionary of Painters. Cunningham, author of several poetical pieces, particularly his natural and deservedly admired Pastorals. Preston, author of several miscellaneous poems: His "Irregular ode to the moon," claims a first rank in English poetry. Dr. Clancy, author of the *Templum Veneris*, &c. Bush, of Socrates.— Johnston, author of Chrysal. Brooke, of the Farmer's Letters, Fool of Quality, Gustavus Vasa, &c. Dr. Sheridan (in whose family genius seems as hereditary as the name) author of several pieces for the improvement of the English language, particularly a pronouncing Dictionary; he also published a Life of Swift. His sons are not less celebrated; Brindley's genius, unconfined to the praise of having rivalled the Ciceros and Demosthenes of antiquity, has added new treasures to the Drama, in his *Duenna*, *School for Scandal*, &c. and Charles Francis, his brother, has acquired great credit for his History of the late Revolution of Sweden. Usher, author of *Clio*, a very ingenious Essay on Taste. To these we might add a list of female writers; Mrs. Sheridan, Mrs. Pilkington, Mrs. Grierfon, Mrs. Barber, Mrs. Davies, Mrs. Griffith, Miss Brooke, &c.

Ireland now produces a catalogue of celebrated scenic writers.— Of her late writers in this line are some, whose names are not yet forgotten; and others whose works will last as long as the English stage shall hold the mirror up to nature: Earl of Orrery; N. Tate; Concannon; John Kelly, author of the *Marrick Philosopher*, &c. Dr. Madden, of *Themistocles*; Jones, of the *Earl of Essex*; Morgan, of *Philoclea*; Hartson, of the *Countess of Salisbury*, &c. A Philips; Mrs. Centlivre; Sir R. Steele; Farquhar; Southerne, Congreve, Brooke, and Kelly.

It would perhaps be injurious to the memory of Dr. Goldsmith, to draw his poetical character from his theatrical pieces, though they are replete with the true *vis comica*. His fame must be founded upon his *Traveller*, *Deserted Village*, *Vicar of Wakefield*, and *Citizen of the World*.

[UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one university, which is called Trinity-College. It was founded in 1591, in the reign of Elizabeth; but its original constitution being found imperfect, in 1637, it received a new charter, and another set of statutes, compiled by archbishop Laud. This prelate made several essential alterations in the constitution of the college, the most material of which was the depriving the fellows of the election of their provost, the appointment to that important office being from thenceforth reserved to the crown. To make the fellows some amends for the loss of their first privilege, it was appointed by the new charter that they should be tenants for life in their fellowships, if they remained unmarried, or unprovided with a benefice of more than 10*l.* in the king's books, whereas by the first charter they were to quit their office in seven years after they became of master's standing. At the same time the number of fellows was enlarged from seven to sixteen, distinguished into seven senior fellows and nine junior, and the number of scholars was augmented to seventy. The government of the college was placed in the provost and major part of the senior fellows, from whose decisions an appeal was given to the visitors, which are the chancellor of the university, or his vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin. The provost has a negative voice

in all the proceedings of the board of seniors; and to him is also committed the extraordinary power of nominating any candidate to a fellowship (who shall have sustained the whole previous examination) even against the unanimous sense of the other examiners.

The number of fellowships fixed at present, is twenty-two, seven senior, and fifteen junior. The emoluments of a senior fellowship are supposed at present to exceed 600*l.* yearly.

A spirit of emulation to excel in their studies is scarcely in any place of education so well supported as among the students of Dublin College, owing to the excellent institution of public quarterly examinations. Three of the four terms of the year are closed with a vacation of from three to four weeks each, and the fourth with a long vacation of four months, during which the students have time to prepare themselves for a public examination, that begins the business of the next ensuing term. Two days are allotted to this examination, four hours each day. The examiners are the fellows under the degree of doctor, and the resident masters; the examined are all the undergraduates, distributed into four classes, and each class into divisions of twenty or thirty persons, according to the number of students and examiners.—The subjects of examination are all the sciences in which the examined have been instructed to that time, together with the particular portion of the Greek and Latin classics appointed to be read by each class during the term preceding the examination: A Latin theme is also demanded of each person, the second morning of the examination, on a subject given out by the examiner the evening before. The examiners are furnished with lists of the names of the persons they are to examine, with separate columns for every branch of the examination, in which columns they distinguish by technical marks the respective answering of the students, and after the examination make a report of the same to the senior lecturer. These reports, which are called Judgments, being submitted to the inspection of the board, are read publicly, a few days after the examinations in the college hall, when they operate powerfully to the credit or disgrace of the parties concerned. Some of these judgments are of so humbling a nature, that the person who has deserved them is not accounted as having answered an examination for that time, a certain number of which examinations he must sustain before he is admitted to the first degree in arts. In Hillary term, the best answerer in each division receives a premium of books, stamped with the college arms, to the value of forty shillings: In the other three examinations, if the person who has before obtained a premium in that year, appears to be the best answerer again, he is honoured with a certificate on vellum in lieu of a premium, which is then adjudged to the second best in the division, in order to spread the flame of emulation more widely. The effect of this judicious distribution of rewards and censures is great, almost beyond conception: Nor does anything seem wanting to the perfection of such a system, besides a provision for augmenting the number of examiners in proportion to the daily increasing demand for them. The whole number of undergraduates in Dublin College scarcely ever falls short of four hundred (the entire number of collegiates on the books being usually above six hundred) and of the undergraduates, if more than twenty be thrown into a division, it becomes difficult, if not impossible, to appreciate their merits justly within the time allotted to the examination.

Besides

Besides the two and twenty fellowships, there are on the foundation five royal professorships, divinity, common law, civil law, physic and Greek; besides professors of mathematics, Oriental tongues, modern languages, oratory, history, and natural philosophy. The late Sir Patrick Dunn, knight, bequeathed a considerable estate for the support of three professors in medicine, viz. theory and practice of physic, surgery, and midwifery, pharmacy, and the materia medica. The students are classed under three ranks, fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizarars. The necessary annual expence of a fellow-commoner, clothing and books included, is about 100*l.* of a pensioner about 70*l.* A sizar receives his commons and instructions gratis: The number of these last is commonly about thirty.

As to the college edifice, it is unquestionably one of the noblest of the kind in Europe. It extends in front above 300 feet, and in depth 600, and is divided into two nearly equal squares. The principal front, opposite College-green, which was erected in 1759, is in the Corinthian order, and built of mountain stone, as are all the buildings in the first square, the east side of which is intended to be ornamented with an elegant steeple and spire near 150 feet high. On the north side is the refectory, or dining hall, a spacious room, with the front ornamented with Ionic pilasters. Connected with this, and projecting into the square, there is now building a chapel, whose front is intended to correspond with that of the opposite theatre. This chapel is connected with the west front by a regular range of buildings for the students; as are those on the south side, till joined with the theatre, which projects into the square. The front of this theatre is ornamented with four columns in the Corinthian order, and pediment, and is greatly admired for its delicacy and elegance. It is intended for lectures, examinations, &c. The ornaments of the inner part, particularly the stucco work, are much admired, and in ten compartments therein are placed full length portraits of their present majesties, Queen Elizabeth (the foundress) Primate Usher, Archbishop King, Bishop Berkeley, Dean Swift, Doctor Baldwin, Mr. Molyneux (author of the *Case of Ireland*) and Mr. Grattan.

The inner square is partly composed of plain brick buildings containing apartments for the students. The south-side is entirely taken up by a superb library, supported by a piazza erected in 1732. The inside of the library is beautiful and commodious, and embellished with busts in white marble of Plato, Socrates, Aristotle, Cicero, Demosthenes, Homer, Shakespeare, Milton, Bacon, Newton, Locke, Boyle, Swift, Usher, Earl of Pembroke, and the doctors Delany, Lawson, Gilbert and Baldwin.

Few public bodies have been so much indebted to the munificence of their members, as the university of Dublin has been to the two last mentioned gentlemen, who were contemporaries for many years in the respective offices of provost and vice-provost. Dr. Baldwin, after governing the college for the space of two and forty years, died in 1758, aged upwards of ninety. By his will he bequeathed to the college in real and personal property, to the amount of near 100,000*l.* out of which his executors shortly after purchased, for the use of the body, two advowsons, and founded two new fellowships. Dr. Gilbert enriched the library by a bequest of his books, 12,000 volumes, chosen by himself

himself in a long course of years for this purpose, without regard to expense, by a valuable collection of MSS. prints, and medals; and lastly, by 14 marble busts (enumerated above) of ancient and modern worthies, executed by the best masters at a considerable cost. The shelves of the library will contain by computation 60,000 volumes: Two thirds of them are at present full, containing, besides Dr. Gilbert's (which is the best) the entire libraries of the great archbishop Usher, one of the original members of this university, and about 5000 volumes, part of the collection of another fellow of the college, the late Right Reverend Dr. Palliser, archbishop of Cashel.

The printing office is a neat structure, built in the modern taste. The anatomy house is worthy of inspection, as among other curiosities, it contains a set of figures in wax, representing women in every state of pregnancy. They are executed from real skeletons, and are the product of almost the whole life of an ingenious French artist. They were purchased by the late Earl of Shelburne, who made a present of them to the college.

The ROYAL IRISH ACADEMY of Science, Polite literature, and Antiquities, was incorporated by letters patent in 1786, under the patronage of his majesty, and is composed of some of the most learned and ingenious men in the kingdom. They have published two volumes of their transactions, which consist of several curious and valuable papers, on various subjects, presented by different members; which have been received by the literary world with much applause. This institution certainly forms a new æra in the History of Irish Literature, and will doubtless be productive of the most distinguished consequences, in the promotion of science and general erudition amongst us.

[CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] The Irish are inferior to none in bodily strength and beauty, they are equal to any in pliability and agility of limbs.

Always inclined to manly and martial exercises, they readily confront any undertaking; their bodies are fitted to any climate, or to any difficulty, and from the same source might perhaps be derived, that spirit of heroism which has so eminently characterised them.

Strong intellects, warm fancies, and acute feelings, have generally carried them beyond the line of mediocrity; and whether the depths of science were to be explored, the heights of heroism attained, or sympathy awakened in the inmost soul, Irishmen would be equal to the task. In virtue too they take an uncommon range, and in the paths of vice they are not slow or backward. Even the blunders with which they have been charged by their good neighbours, may have some foundation in truth, if by blunders we are to understand, those quick sallies by which the regular concordance of words is broken and overleaped for something bold and expressive in the thought. But what peculiarly distinguishes the Irish character is, a comprehension of qualities which are seldom found compatible. Sudden ardour; unabating perseverance; universal aptitude; firm adherence; impatience of injury; a long remembrance of it; strength of resolution; tenderness of affection. These outlines of the Irish character, may be filled by the full grown lineaments, which the writers of different ages, and of different countries, have affixed to it. The Irish have been represented, strongly actuated by a thirst of glory; prodigal of life, impetuous,

impetuous, vindictive, generous, hospitable, curious, credulous, alive to the charms of music, constant in love or hatred.

A respectable English traveller,* gives the following character of the Irish nation, which, as it appears to have been written with great fairness, and impartiality, we are happy to afford a place in this work.

“It is but an illiberal business for a traveller, who designs to publish remarks upon a country, to sit down coolly in his closet and write a satire on the inhabitants. Severity of that sort must be enlivened with an uncommon share of wit and ridicule, to please. Where very gross absurdities are found, it is fair and manly to note them; but to enter into character and disposition is generally uncandid, since there are no people but might be better than they are found, and none but have virtues which deserve attention, at least as much as their failings; for these reasons this section would not have found a place in my observations, had not some persons, of much more slipperiness than wisdom, given very gross misrepresentations of the Irish nation. It is with pleasure, therefore, that I take up the pen, on the present occasion, as a much longer residence there enables me to exhibit a very different picture; in doing this, I shall be free to remark, wherein I think the conduct of certain classes may have given rise to general and consequently injurious condemnation.

“There are three races of people in Ireland, so distinct, as to strike the least attentive traveller: These are the Spanish, which are found in Kerry, and a part of Limerick and Cork, tall and thin, but well made, a long visage, dark eyes, and long black hair. The time is not remote when the Spaniards had a kind of settlement on the coast of Kerry, which seemed to be overlooked by government. There were many of them in Queen Elizabeth's reign, nor were they entirely driven out till the time of Cromwell. There is an island of Valentia on that coast, with various other names, certainly Spanish. The Scotch race is in the north, where are to be found the features which are supposed to mark that people, their accent, and many of their customs. In a district, near Dublin, but more particularly in the baronies of Barge and Forth in the county of Wexford, the Saxon tongue is spoken without any mixture of the Irish, and the people have a variety of customs, which distinguish them from their neighbours. The Milesian race of Irish, which may be called *native*, are scattered over the kingdom, but chiefly found in Connaught and Munster; a few considerable families, whose genealogy is undoubted, remain, but none of them with considerable possessions, except the O'Briens, and Mr. O'Neil. O'Hara and M'Dermot are great names in Connaught, and O'Donoghue a considerable one in Kerry; but the O'Connors, and O'Driscals in Corke, claim an origin prior in Ireland to any of the Milesian race.

“The only divisions which a traveller, who passed through the kingdom without any residence, could make, would be into people of considerable fortune and mob. The intermediate division of the scale, so numerous and respectable in England, would hardly attract the least notice in Ireland. A residence in the kingdom convinces one, however, that there is another class, in general of small fortune—country gentlemen and renters of land. The manners, habits and customs of people

* Mr. Young, in his late tour in Ireland.

people of considerable fortune, are much the same every where, at least there is very little difference between England and Ireland, it is among the common people one must look for those traits by which we discriminate a national character. The circumstances which struck me most in the common Irish were, vivacity, and a great and eloquent volubility of speech. They are infinitely more cheerful and lively than any thing we commonly see in England, having nothing of that incivility of fullen silence, with which so many Englishmen seem to wrap themselves up, as if retiring within their own importance. Lazy at work, but so spiritedly active at play, that at *hurling* and other manly exercises, they shew the greatest feats of agility. Their love of society is as remarkable as their curiosity is insatiable; and their hospitality to all comers, be their own poverty ever so pinching, has too much merit to be forgotten. Pleased to enjoyment with a joke, or witty repartee, they will repeat it with such expression, that the laugh will be universal. Warm friends and revengeful enemies; they are inviolable in their secrecy, and inevitable in their resentment; with such a notion of honour, that neither threat nor reward would induce them to betray the secret or person of a man, although that man were an oppressor. Hard drinkers and quarrelsome; but civil, submissive and obedient. Dancing is so universal among them, that there are every where itinerant dancing-masters, to whom the cotters pay six pence a quarter for teaching their families. Besides the Irish jig, which they can dance with a most *luxuriant* expression, minnets and country dances are taught; and I even heard of cotillions coming in. Many strokes in their character are evidently to be ascribed to the extreme oppression under which they live. If they are as great thieves and liars as they are reported, it is most certainly owing to this cause.

“ But I must now come to another class of people, to whose conduct it is almost entirely owing, that the character of the nation has not that lustre abroad, which I dare assert, it will soon very generally merit: This is the class of little country gentlemen,* tenants who drink their claret by means of profit rents; jobbers in farms; bucks; your fellows with round hats, edged with gold, who hunt in the day, get drunk in the evening, and fight the next morning. I shall not dwell on a subject so perfectly disagreeable, but remark that these are the men among whom drinking, duelling, ravishing, &c. &c. are found as in their native soil; once to a degree that made them the pest of society; they are growing better, but even now, one or two of them got by accident (where they have no business) into better company, are sufficient to *derange* the pleasures that result from a liberal conversation. A new spirit; new fashions; new modes of politeness exhibited by the higher ranks are imitated by the lower, which will it is to be hoped, put an end to this race of beings; and either drive their sons and cousins into the army or navy, or sink them into plain tradesmen or farmers like those in England, where it is common to see men with much greater property without pretending to be gentlemen.

* This expression is not to be taken in a general sense. God forbid I should give this character of all country gentlemen of small fortunes in Ireland: I have myself been acquainted with exceptions.—I mean only that in general they are not the most liberal people in the kingdom.

I repeat it from the intelligence I received, that even this class are very different from what they were twenty years ago, and improve so fast that the time will soon come when the national character will not be degraded by any set.

“That character is upon the whole respectable : It would be unfair to attribute to the nation at large the vices and follies of only one class of individuals. Those persons from whom it is candid to take a general estimate do credit to their country. That they are a people learned, lively and ingenious, the admirable authors they have produced will be an eternal monument, witness their Swift, Sterne, Congreve, Boyle, Berkeley, Steele, Farquhar, Southerne, and Goldsmith. Their talent for cloquence is felt, and acknowledged in the parliaments of both the kingdoms. Our own service both by sea land, as well as that (unfortunately for us) of the principal monarchies of Europe, speak their steady and determined courage. Every unprejudiced traveller who visits them will be as much pleased with their cheerfulness, as obliged by their hospitality ; and will find them a brave, polite, and liberal people.”

[RELIGION.] The established religion of Ireland is the Protestant ; its ecclesiastical discipline is similar to that of England, and is under four archbishops and eighteen bishops. The four archbishoprics, are Armagh, Dublin, Cashal, and Tuam ; and the eighteen bishoprics are Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Killaloe, Kilmore, Leighlin and Ferns, Limerick, Meath, Oflory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

The dissenters are almost as various here as in England ; but the most prevailing are the Roman-Catholics, Presbyterians, Quakers, Anabaptists, Moravians, and Methodists, all of whom are tolerated by law.

[CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Ireland is at present a distinct independent kingdom, and its imperial crown is inseparably annexed by an Irish act of parliament, to that of Great-Britain. From the time of the accession of the sovereignty of Ireland, to the kings of England, until the tenth year of the reign of Henry VII. the mode of enacting laws within the English pale in the parliaments of this country, was nearly the same as in England ; the king's viceroy summoning and holding parliaments at pleasure, in which were enacted such statutes as were then thought expedient or necessary. But an ill use (as it was then termed) having been made of this power, a set of acts were passed in the reign of Henry VII. one of which, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 4. provided, “That no parliament be hereafter summoned or holden, unless the king's lieutenant then being, shall previously certify to the king, under the great seal of Ireland, the causes and considerations thereof, and the articles proposed to be passed therein ; and that after the king in his council of England, shall have considered and approved, or altered said acts, or any of them, and certified them back under the great seal of England, and shall have given licence to summon and hold a parliament, then the same shall be summoned and held, and the said acts so certified, and none other, shall be therein introduced, passed, or rejected.

By another law, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 22. it was enacted that “all statutes before that time passed in England, should be of force in Ireland.”

land." From the making of which law, all subsequent English statutes were absurdly supposed to have bound Ireland, if therein named, or included under general words.

About the beginning of the reign of George I. in consequence of its being a question, whether England had a right to make laws to bind this country, which was ready to be disputed by the Irish; an act was passed in the British parliament (6th of George I. c. 5.) whereby it was declared, "That the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great-Britain, as being inseparably annexed and united thereto, and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great-Britain in parliament assembled, hath power to make laws to bind Ireland."

However, this illiberal and unjust usurpation of the legislative rights of Ireland was of short duration. For after the emancipation of the trade of this kingdom in the year 1779, the 10th statute of Henry VII. c. 4. before mentioned, was very much altered, by an act passed in the Irish parliament, in the twenty-first and twenty-second years of his present majesty George III. &c. namely, statute the twenty-first and twenty-second Geo. III. cap. 47. By which it is enacted, "That the lord lieutenant and council of Ireland shall certify under the great seal of the same, to his majesty; without addition, alteration, &c. all such bills, and no other, as the parliament of Ireland shall judge to be expedient; that all bills so certified and returned back again under the great seal of England, without any alteration whatever, and none other, shall pass in the Irish parliament." "And that no bill shall be certified into Great-Britain, as a cause or consideration of holding any parliament. Provided always that no parliament be summoned or holden, until a licence be obtained from his majesty, for that purpose." And this act of the Irish legislature was followed by a declaration of rights under the form of an address to the throne, not a little strengthened by the spirited and united efforts of the whole Irish nation, who, with one voice, and with the very arms in their hands with which they defended themselves from the enemies of the empire, when destitute of their own established forces, who at that time were bleeding in every quarter of the world in the support of the British standard, firmly demanded and insisted on, from the British parliament, the restoration of those rights which the tyrannic oppression of their predecessors had wrested from them. While on the other hand, that senate restored to the Irish their legislative, as they had before done their commercial rights, not only repealing the 6th Geo. I. c. 5. but passing an act renunciatory of their former groundless claim to what they now declared to be the rights of their hitherto oppressed and injured neighbours.

At present, therefore, as was before mentioned, the Irish nation is governed by parliaments of its own, which consist of the king in his legislative capacity, the lords spiritual (22) and lords temporal (now 165) who together with the king (or his viceroy) sit in one house; and the commons (300) composed of knights, citizens, and burghesses (elected by the people) who sit in another; and these in conjunction form the Irish parliament, which alone is empowered with, alone exerts, and alone hath right to exert the privilege of making new, or altering or repealing those laws already made, for the government of this realm,

In which the manner of proceeding from the first introduction of a bill into either house till it is transmitted to England by the lord lieutenant in order to receive the royal assent, is nearly the same with that of the British parliament.

In respect of duration, the parliaments of the two countries differ, the parliament of Ireland is at present biennial, and before the beginning of the reign of his present majesty, was perpetual: Whereas that of Great-Britain is septennial.

The common law of England was adopted here by the council of Kilsmore, in the reign of Henry II. and ever since has been the common law of Ireland; between which and that of England there is hardly any difference, except where the alterations made in it by the statute law of either country, may have produced a slight variation. But, to speak generally, the principles of both are the same, and the decisions of the courts at Westminster, are of high authority in guiding the determinations (in similar cases) of the king's courts at Dublin, which in number, superiority, and extent of jurisdiction are similar to those at Westminster, some few and trivial deviations, in the peculiar practice of each court, excepted.

In consequence of the above mentioned restoration of the constitutional immunities of this country, a writ of error no longer lies from the King's Bench in Ireland, to that at Westminster, and the ultimate appeal must now be brought before the Irish House of Peers, whose sentence is final and irrevocable.

There are likewise ecclesiastical, and admiralty courts here, as in England, also for the general distribution of justice. The kingdom is divided into five circuits; the principal county towns in each of these are visited twice a year by two of the twelve judges who sit as judges of assize and gaol delivery alternately, for the hearing and deciding of suits by *Nisi Prius*, and for the trial of prisoners.

To attempt to enter more minutely into a subject, which the ingenuity of the most able lawyers, that have wrote on it, could scarcely contract into a few volumes, would at present be inconvenient, or rather impossible, in a work of this kind, wherein a desire to give a general view of many branches will not permit any enlargement on one.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The important consequences arising from the extension of inland water-carriage seem now to be generally felt and promoted in Ireland.

Among the canals completed or now prosecuting in Ireland, the most distinguished in consequence and extent (and the only one which the limits of our work will permit us to notice particularly) is that called the Grand Canal. This canal was commenced in the year 1756, under the direction of parliament and the navigation board, and different grants were made from time to time for carrying it on. But after some years it was observed that little effectual progress was made therein, which led the legislature to hold out encouragement to private subscribers to undertake the prosecution of the work, by granting an aid of one sixth part of the sum which should be necessary to expend thereon. Accordingly several noblemen and gentlemen subscribed a capital of one hundred thousand pounds, and were incorporated by parliament in 1772, by the name of the company of Undertakers of the Grand Canal, who were put in possession of all the works which

been previously done at the public expence, and invested with ample powers for the better carrying into execution this important object.—After combating a variety of difficulties, enlarging their capital, raising further aids by loan, &c. the line was completed from Dublin to Monastereven in 1786.

This noble canal proceeds from the west end of the metropolis, passes through Sallins, Roberts-town, and Rathangan, and in the neighbourhood of several other towns and villages. It crosses the Liffy on an aqueduct bridge of seven arches (constructed on the most ingenious and permanent principles) pierces the hill of Downings several hundred yards—runs through a great part of the Bog of Allen—and falls into the River Barrow at Monastereven, after a course of $31\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—It is navigated by boats of from 30 to 50 tons burthen; and supplied with water throughout the different levels from numerous streams or rivers, viz. the Black-wood-mill, Loughlewhelnan, Brocksals, and Fourraunfan streams on the North; and on the South by the Great Bog, Miler's-town and Donore streams, and the Mill-town river, which is made navigable four miles from the great trunk, and terminates near the Curragh; but that which supplies the capital with such abundance of most excellent water, is the Great Morrell, taken in at the fifteenth lock about twelve miles from Dublin. There are 26 locks on this navigation (6 double and 20 single) the falls in which vary from 4 feet 3 inches, to 19 feet 7 inches. The summit level is 202 feet 4 inches above the James's-street harbour; 82 feet 9 inches above the river Barrow at Monastereven; and 265 feet above the tide in the Liffy at Dublin.

These works have been principally conducted and effected by Richard Evans, Esq. engineer, whose integrity and zeal have been rivalled only by the ingenuity and resources he displayed in the course of one of the most arduous undertakings in the history of inland navigation.

From this canal a collateral cut to Naas is completed by the Kildare company, and several others are meditated; particularly one to the Prosperous—another to Athy, and the tide water in the Barrow—and another towards the Shannon at Banagher by Edenderry, &c.

The completion of this canal has communicated the most essential advantages to the country through which it passes, and its vicinity, and through a considerable extent of the adjoining countries, reclaiming large tracts of land and bog, increasing their value, extending agriculture and manufactures, and conveying the important supplies of flour, corn, coal, turf, &c. &c. by a cheap and expeditious carriage to the metropolis; from whence it transports in return those necessaries which render the intercourse of the city and country of such reciprocal benefit.—To these advantages are to be added, the many conveniencies afforded to travelling, &c. by the establishing of commodious packet boats on this line, which passing rapidly to different stages every day at stated hours, afford one of the cheapest, most expeditious and social modes of conveyance yet known in any part of Europe.

From the tolls on this navigation, and the profits arising from their packets, a very considerable revenue accrues to the company, whose fortitude and perseverance in effecting this great national work, under the most discouraging circumstances, claim the praise and gratitude

tude of their countrymen. Their success has at length proved from experience, that the effectual mode of conducting canals, is by companies, subscribing rateably to the expense, and procuring from parliament such aid as their importance and utility may entitle them to claim.

[DUBLIN SOCIETY.] Ireland has the honour of having formed the first agricultural society in Europe, and has continued to maintain the precedence of its merit also unrivalled. This society originated about the year 1731, and was supported solely by the voluntary subscriptions of its members, amounting to about 1000*l.* per annum; with this fund, and the animating zeal of several individuals, particularly Dr. Madan, and Mr. Prior (two of the most valuable patriots which any country has produced) they communicated many of those benefits to which the present improving appearance of the nation is in a great degree indebted. For several years past, the legislature have given them the most liberal grants, which have enabled them to extend their views as well to arts and manufactures as to agriculture. The school for portrait, ornament, and architect drawing, under the direction of this society, has proved a prolific nursery for the fine arts; having produced a number of geniuses, the boast and ornament of their country, and the admiration of foreigners.

[TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] This subject has at length become of consequence to the people of Ireland. Through the concurrence of various favourable circumstances, the revolution in America, and the embarrassment of Great-Britain, Providence seconding the courage and virtue of the people, broke the chains, which trading jealousy and national injustice, had so long imposed upon this country. Whilst the sun of commerce and power in Venice, in Genoa, in Holland, the Netherlands, and other countries rose and set; the kingdom of Ireland, more fruitful in soil, more powerful in people, more fortunate in situation, and more strong in natural resources, was compelled for several hundred years to look on these events a joyless and indifferent spectator. During that long night of misery to Ireland, where her fields stained with the blood of insurrections rapidly treading on the heels of each other; raised either by a sense of oppression, or fomented by the interested artifices of English ministers and their creatures.— These produced perpetual change and consequent insecurity of property; and confiscation being often the object, was generally the effect of excited disorder. In a country so distracted, manufactures could not take root, and commerce could not flourish. These are the offspring of peace and settlement, which were here experienced but for short intervals till the revolution.

From the latter part of the reign of William III. to the late emancipation of the trade of Ireland in 1779, this unfortunate country experienced a series of the most wanton and impolitic restrictions* from England, equally injurious to the intercourse and prosperity of both.

In 1698 the lords and commons of England addressed King William, to employ his influence in Ireland to “ suppress the woollen manufacture

* Between the years 1740 and 1779, there were no less than twenty-four embargoes in Ireland, one of which lasted three years.

facture therein ;" to which he answered the lords, " that his majesty will take care to do what their lordships have desired"—and to the commons he answered " I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen trade in Ireland"—And indeed so successfully was this baneful influence employed upon the legislature, that they passed an act laying heavy duties on the export of their woollens to England, where a law was also made in the following year prohibiting our exports to other countries, so that between the two legislatures the manufacture was as completely annihilated as it could be by law.

The immediate consequences to Ireland shewed the value of what she lost ; many thousand manufacturers were obliged to leave this kingdom for want of employment ; many parts of the southern and western counties were so depopulated, that they have not yet recovered a reasonable number of inhabitants ; and the whole kingdom was reduced to the greatest poverty and distress.

In consideration of this loss, the Irish were to get full and unrivalled possession of the linen trade ; as if one manufacture was sufficient for the employment of a whole nation, especially where a large majority of it were totally ignorant of the process or habits of the trade, and possessing but little of the necessary material ; whilst in the other, the hands were formed even to enviable perfection, and the materials were possessed at home in abundance. The Irish women were to become spinners for the English manufacturers, and the richer were to become the clothiers for the poorer nation.

Several years had elapsed before the promised encouragement to the linen was granted ; and so wretched a state was it in, in the year 1700, that the exports of linen amounted in value but to 14,121.

The people of Ireland, deprived as we have mentioned, of the Woollen, were obliged to confine their sole attention to the manufacture of Linen. As with individuals so with nations, when the public mind is exclusively bent to one object, it cannot avoid succeeding in its pursuit to a considerable degree. An Act of Parliament was passed in Ireland in 1709, enabling the Lord Lieutenant to appoint trustees for the disposal of the revenue granted for the encouragement of the linen manufacture. From this Board, called the *Trustees of the linen and hempen manufactures in Ireland*, has the important object of their appointment received the most zealous and unremitting attention ; and to them this kingdom is principally indebted for the flourishing state to which the manufacture has attained, and for the character it maintains in all countries. The province of Ulster was the first wherein it was extended ; here it was actively taken up by the industrious descendants of the hardy Scotch Colonies settled therein, and still it continues the principal seat of the manufacture. The other provinces have but a small comparative share, although that of Connaught has been making considerable advances in the coarser branches for some years.

To give the reader a more perfect idea of the progress and importance of this manufacture, we have annexed a view of the quantities exported at different periods ; and, as the export of Linen-Yarn is in some degree connected with the subject, we have also given a similar view of it.

EXPORTS.

E X P O R T S.

Years.	Linen Cloth.	Linen Yarn.		
	Yards.	Ct.	qrs.	Lb.
1713	1,819,816 $\frac{3}{4}$	11,802	2	17
1723	4,378,545	15,672	3	17
1733	4,777,076	13,357	2	21
1743	6,058,041	14,169	1	10
1753	10,493,858	23,238		4
1763	16,013,105	34,468		7
1773	18,450,700 $\frac{1}{2}$	28,078	3	25
1783	16,039,705 $\frac{1}{2}$	35,812	3	23
1784	24,961,398	33,013	2	15
1785	26,677,647	28,842	1	5
1786	28,168,865	31,062		20
1787	30,728,728	31,040	2	0

The Lawn, Cambrick, and other finer branches of manufacture, most of them are in a flourishing state.

The Woollen manufacture has been in possession of this country from a very early period; but the restrictions under which it had laboured for above a century, has confined its extent to little more than the clothing of the peasantry; and although the emancipation of trade was expected to produce powerful effects upon this manufacture, yet the unrestrained export of Wool and Yarn, and the home market remaining unprotected, have caused, and must continue to cause, this valuable trade to remain in a very torpid state. Considering however the number of difficulties under which the manufacture struggles, it is surprising to observe the pitch of excellence to which it has arrived.—The best Broad-Cloths of Ireland are little inferior to the English, and her Druggits are much admired. Her Blanketing and Flannels are in high esteem, and the Worsted branches have been brought to great perfection, and many become fit articles for extensive exportation.

Another branch of trade is in the produce of Cattle, which brings very large returns into this kingdom. The exports in this line consist of beef, butter, cheese, candles, tallow, hides (tanned and untanned) bullocks and cows, hogs, bacon, hog's-lard and pork.—The last article is one of the most increasing and valuable exports, it is the principal among the very few resources of the numerous poor peasantry, as it is almost the only article which brings them money, and being reared without expense, trouble or attention, the returns must be considered as so much clear gain to the nation. The average export for five years, ending 1767, was about 40,000 barrels.—The like ending 1774, was 46,924 Barrels.—The like ending 1782, was 87,085, and in the year 1787 it rose to 101,859.

The silk manufacture is of great importance, but principally confined to the metropolis, probably from its connexion with the fashions. Several branches have been brought to the highest perfection; their damasks and lutestrings are excellent, and their handkerchiefs are not only superior to English, but are also unrivalled by any nation in Europe.

rope. The mixed goods, or tabinets and poplins, have been long celebrated.

The cotton manufacture is of late introduction, but yet has arrived at great perfection and considerable extent. Considerable sums have been expended on the erection of noble mills and machinery.

The glass manufacture has arisen to considerable consequence within a few years.

The manufacture of paper has been advancing by silent, but steady steps, to great improvement and importance; and from the number of hands it employs, and the small proportion the value of the material bears to the labour, it is certainly of the first consequence to a manufacturing nation.

These are some of the principal manufactures of Ireland; most of which appear, from the best evidence, to be daily increasing in extent and improvement.

Having enumerated the leading manufactures, exports, of this kingdom &c. it is necessary to observe on the principal articles which compose her imports; these generally come from or through Great-Britain,* and consist of her manufactures of various denominations, woollens, silks, cottons, mixed goods, haberdashery, manufactures of iron, steel and other metals, groceries, hops, bark, earthen-ware, beer, coals and an infinite number of other articles; besides the produce of the East and West Indies to a considerable amount. The table annexed will shew the comparative value of this intercourse; but whilst it states the balance to be generally in favour of Ireland, there must be thrown into the opposite scale, the remittances to absentees, interest of money lent on Irish estates, pensions, freight and insurance of ships, remittances to regiments on the Irish establishment, &c. &c. amounting in all to above a million and a half, or perhaps two millions sterling.

The annexed table is extracted from the Irish Custom House accounts.

* The people of Ireland continue to complain loudly of the want of reciprocity in their trading intercourse with Great-Britain as well on the subject of malt and beer as a multitude of other articles, not less remarkable.

Value of Goods Exported to, and Imported from Great-Britain, at different periods.

	Exports.			Imports.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
1700	814,745	15	0	792,473	3	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
1705	516,771	17	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	497,794	1	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
1710	712,497	2	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	554,247	12	4
1715	1,520,765	14	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	972,688	9	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
1720	1,038,381	7	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	891,678	5	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
1725	1,053,782	13	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	819,761	13	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
1730	992,832	7	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	929,896	1	2
1735	1,248,410	16	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	935,849	8	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
1740	1,259,853	6	8 $\frac{2}{8}$	849,678	7	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
1745	1,390,930	8	9 $\frac{1}{8}$	949,603	15	10
1750	1,069,864	1	2 $\frac{5}{8}$	920,340	17	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
1755	1,312,176	2	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,039,911	10	4 $\frac{1}{8}$
1760	1,450,757	8	6 $\frac{7}{8}$	1,094,752	12	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
1765	1,693,197	5	7	1,439,969	4	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
1770	2,408,838	12	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,878,599	6	11
1775	2,379,858	9	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,739,543	18	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
1780	2,384,808	16	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,576,695	13	5 $\frac{1}{4}$
1781	2,187,406	15	0 $\frac{1}{4}$	2,432,417	13	10
1782	2,709,766	18	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	2,277,946	10	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
1783	1,989,290	6	9	2,320,455	18	7 $\frac{1}{4}$
1784	2,337,273	11	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	2,400,456	16	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
1785	2,764,753	1	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,949,074	0	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
1786	3,039,531	3	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	2,346,024	1	6 $\frac{3}{4}$
1787	3,209,523	12	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	2,326,756	19	2 $\frac{1}{8}$

Since the opening of the Irish trade, the intercourse with the United States of America, the British colonies, and also to the West-India islands, has been an accession of considerable consequence. To the latter the exports are principally composed of produce, and manufactures of various sorts, and is a trade that promises to increase to a great extent, if not restrained by the illiberal construction of the navigation laws, which prevent their sending the redundancy of their imports into the English markets. The trade to the British colonies is composed of similar exports as to the islands, and will probably rise to equal importance; but with the American States it is expected to be much superior.

The trade to Portugal is one of the most important to the kingdom, and constantly produces a considerable balance in her favour; In some years the export of butter alone has been equal to the whole of her imports from that country, which principally consist of wine, salt, fruit, oil, pot-ash and cork; for which are sent in return butter, beef, pork, tallow, cheese, shoes, new and old drapery and fine linens, &c.

The trade with Spain consists of nearly the same articles of import and export as to Portugal.

The exports to France generally consist of beef, butter, pork, hides, candles, tallow, wheat, flour, biscuit, linens, woollens, shoes, and sundry

dry other manufactures:—and the imports of wine, brandy, paper, capers, oil, cork, salt, gloves, cambrick, &c. The balance of this trade, though fluctuating, has been generally in favour of Ireland.

The trade with Holland and Flanders, consists principally of an export of beef, butter, hides, tallow, linen, new and old drapery, handkerchiefs, frize, woollen yarn, &c. and the imports of flax, thread, linseed, and linseed oil, paper, garden-seeds, Geneva, snuff, drugs, dying-stuffs, &c.

The trade with the East Country, including Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia, the Baltic, consists of an export nearly similar to the preceding, and the imports, of iron, timber, deals, tar, train-oil, hemp, flax, bark, &c.

Value of the Exports and Imports of Ireland, to and from all parts, from 1700 to 1787 inclusive, with the balance of trade for and against.

Average of 10 years.	Exports.		Imports.		Balance for.		Balance against.	
	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.
From 1700 to 1710	538023	16 0	513657	17 2½	39365	18 9½		
From 1710 to 1720	1126670	6 11½	852905	7 1½	273764	19 0½		
From 1720 to 1730	1049809	3 2½	856936	6 8	162872	16 6½		
From 1730 to 1740	1190253	3 4½	835044	8 2	305208	15 2½		
From 1740 to 1750	1485110	18 3	1123373	1 8	361737	16 7		
From 1750 to 1760	2002354	5 10½	1594164	7 1½	108189	18 8½		
From 1760 to 1770	258002	19 2	253028	4 2	58979	15 0		
From 1770 to 1780	3125396	8 8	2544264	2 6	581432	6 2		
1780	3012178	13 9½	2127579	9 7½	884599	4 1½		
1781	2896035	7 1	3123031	9 7½			226996	2 6½
1782	3100598	10 8½	2994265	17 8	406332	13 0½		
1783	2935707	17 6½	3007296	17 1½			71528	19 9
1784	3326211	16 6	3343031	13 9½			16819	17 3½
1785	3737068	0 7½	3056894	14 11	680673	5 8½		
1786	3957396	18 11½	3430387	0 2½	527009	18 9		
1787	4233345	13 11½	3417289	11 5½	821056	2 0		

COINS.

COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and the like fabric with those of England; only an English shilling passes in Ireland for thirteen pence, and so in proportion in the other coins.

BANK OF IRELAND.] The subscribers to the national bank were incorporated by charter in 1783, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of Ireland, and proceeded to business on the 25th June, in the same year, upon a capital stock of 600,000*l.* which consisted of 4 per cent. government debentures deposited at par.— These debentures were cancelled by government, agreeably to act of parliament, and an annuity at the rate of 4 per cent. granted in lieu thereof. In addition to their capital they borrowed 60,000*l.* previous to the opening of the bank, for which they issued debentures at 5 per cent. and in 1784 a further sum of 40,000*l.* on the like terms.

In this bank are deposited, certain monies received into his majesty's treasury; and by an act passed in 1784, all money lodged in the courts of chancery and exchequer are also to be deposited in the bank.

The governors, directors, and officers are annually elected in the month of April. Of the 15 directors 5 must be new. The qualification of the governor, is the actual possession of 5000*l.* stock; of the deputy governor 3000*l.* and of each of the directors 2000*l.*

Under the direction of this company, an office was opened in June 1787, for purchasing light guineas and half guineas, on terms so highly advantageous to the public, that it has proved of the utmost utility.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The military establishment of Ireland consists of

Four regiments of dragoon guards	684 men
Eight regiments of dragoons	1416
Twenty-eight regiments of foot	13132
	<hr/>
Total	15,232

To this is to be added the ordnance, which is on a distinct establishment, and is composed of 6 companies, of 50 men each, making in the whole 300.

Of this force, Great-Britain may employ seven regiments (or 3283 men) on foreign service at the expense of Ireland; but during the late war the principal part of the army was withdrawn, so that in the year 1777 there were little more than 3000 men left for the protection of the kingdom.

CITIES, PUBLIC EDIFICES, &c.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in extent, beauty and number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions. It is situated on the east side of the island, on the river Liffey, near its junction with the sea, in latitude 53° 20' and is about 270 miles N. W. of London.

Dublin is equal in magnitude to above one-fourth of London. It is two miles and a half long, and its greatest breadth is nearly equal; so that the circumference may be about eight Irish miles. It lies mostly on a level, or rather low, in respect to the adjacent country; a great part of the old town being built on a marshy foundation. Its increase these last twenty years, is almost incredible: In the year 1754, the return of houses was 12,857, and in 1766, it was 13,194. It now contains

tains at a moderate computation, about 15,000 houses, mostly full of inhabitants, who are estimated at near 200,000 souls, and is daily increasing both in extent and population.

Dublin would have had a commodious and secure station for shipping, if the entrance of the bay had not been so choaked up, that vessels of great burthen cannot come over the bar: But the defects of the harbour are greatly remedied, by a prodigious work of stone and piles of wood, extending about three miles into the bay.

At the end of the piles, there is a light house erected, curiously constructed of hewn stone. The approach to the city from the harbour exhibits a most beautiful prospect. It is a spacious amphitheatre, bounded mostly by a high shore; and the country all round is interspersed with white villas, which have a pleasing effect.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ships of a moderate burden, as far as the old Custom-house, is but narrow, the breadth being in some parts 250 feet, in others only 140. It runs for two miles almost straight through the city, dividing it nearly into two equal parts, forming spacious quays, walled in the whole length of the city. At the breadth of a wide street from the river on each side, the houses are built opposite each other, which has a grand effect. Over the Liffey are erected five bridges, two of them, Essex and the Queen's, are elegant structures; the other three, Ormond, Arran, and Bloody-bridges, have but little to recommend them, besides affording the convenience of passage.

This city is the see of an archbishop, and sends two members to parliament; and the university sends two more. Besides two cathedrals, (Christ's and St. Patrick's) there are eighteen parish churches, six meeting-houses for Presbyterians, one for Baptists, three for Methodists, one for Moravians, two for Quakers; fifteen Roman-catholic chapels, three nunneries, one Jewish synagogue, and fourteen hospitals. The linen and yarn-halls, fifteen public markets for every species of provisions, of which Ormond market is perhaps the first in Europe, and seven public prisons. The Four Courts, consisting of the High Court of Chancery, King's-bench, Common-pleas, and Exchequer, are held here, as also Courts of Prerogative, Delegate, Consistory, and Admiralty; several halls for corporations, &c. one theatre, seven coffee-houses, besides a number of elegant hotels for the accommodation of foreigners.

The east end of the town on each side of the Liffey is extending fast, by several new streets, on a noble scale; and when the bridge which is in contemplation for uniting the line from Grafton to Sackville-street is built, and the various avenues intended to be opened thereto are completed, Dublin will be unrivalled in Europe.

The municipal government of the city of Dublin is vested in a lord mayor, 24 aldermen, 2 sheriffs, and 97 common council, who are elected by the several corporations. The various departments of its police are partly in the hands of this corporation, and partly in several boards instituted for the purpose within these few years. In the former is the care of the water, which they are to see carefully and constantly distributed to every part of the metropolis, from two principal sources, one from a basin at the west end of the city, on the south side of James-street, which affords a noble head of water, being chiefly supplied by
the

the grand canal; and the other from the Liffey at Island-bridge, where a forcing engine is employed to raise the water to a proper level for the better supply of the north side of the city: From these sources it is supplied, in a degree, perhaps, superior to any other in Europe.

Cork is the second city in the kingdom, and capital of the province of Munster, governed by a mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament. It is seated on an island in the river Lea, which branching into two arms about a mile above the scite of the city, one runs on its north and the other on its south side, over which are placed neat bridges, by which the communication with the opposite continents is preserved. The island is intersected by several canals, either natural or artificial, which being banked in, bring up ships almost to every street, and greatly facilitate their trade. The situation of the city is partly on a rising ground on the north and south, and the middle on a level; it is three miles long and near two broad, and is uncommonly populous for its extent, containing above 80,000 inhabitants. Formerly the streets and houses were as narrow and inelegant as those of equal antiquity in Ireland; but the public and private buildings of late years are in the stile of modern elegance, and alike declare the improved taste, spirit, and riches of the inhabitants, who have been at all times distinguished for their liberal hospitality and agreeable suavity of manners. Here are seven Protestant churches, eleven Catholic chapels, and four dissenting meeting-houses, belonging to Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers and French Protestants. The Custom-house, Exchange, Market-house, County-Court-house and the Theatre, are handsome buildings; and the charity schools and similar foundations are numerous and well supported; upon the whole, this city very justly ranks as the second in the kingdom, and is 724 miles S. W. of Dublin. The trade of Cork is very considerable, and its exports are in some articles much superior to those of the metropolis. In time of war it is the great market for provisions, from whence the British navy draw an inexhaustible supply. The other articles of export consist of corn, wool, hay and woollen yarn, camblets, serges, hides, butter, candles, soap, tallow, herrings, &c. Wool-combing is carried on to such extent in this county, that half the wool of Ireland is said to be combed here; the manufactures consist of camblets, serges, ratteens, frizes, druggets, narrow cloths, coarse linen, stockings, &c. but when agriculture and manufactures are more widely diffused through this fruitful province, their trade will be more valuable, as being derived from the enlarged industry and ingenuity of the people.

Limerick is situated on the Shannon, one of the noblest rivers which any European island can boast, and placed in one of the most fertile counties of the kingdom. It is a flourishing city, and composed of what is called the Irish and the English town. The latter stands upon the south part of a piece of ground three miles in circumference, called the King's Island, formed by the Shannon, which divides itself about half a mile above the city. The Irish town is on the south or opposite side of the river, and both are united by an old bridge, called Baal's.— These towns in their ancient state consisted but of one wide well built street, cut at right angles by many narrow lanes; at present the city is large, populous and regular; three miles in circumference; is supposed to contain above 40,000 inhabitants, and is 92 miles S. W. by W. from

from Dublin, and about 60 miles from the sea. It is governed by a mayor, sheriffs and other magistrates; is a city and county in itself, and sends two members to parliament. Its trade is considerable, particularly in the export of beef, pork, butter, hides, rape-seed, &c. &c. and the manufactures of linen, woollen and paper are carried on to some extent; that of gloves is no less celebrated abroad than at home, for their uncommon delicacy and beauty.

Belfast, though a few years since of inferior or second rate consequence, now ranks amongst the first towns in Ireland; to which importance it has arrived by the most rapid progress, and for which it is indebted to the enterprising activity of its merchants, the uncommon industry of its people, and from its situation, being the medium through which are conveyed the imports and exports of a populous and great manufacturing country. Belfast is in the county of Antrim, on the river Lagan, at its junction with the Lough of Belfast, is supposed to contain at least 30,000 inhabitants, governed by a Sovereign and 12 Burgesses, sends two members to parliament, and is 80 miles north from Dublin. The streets are broad, the houses generally modern and well built. The Exchange, Hall, and other public buildings are suited to the purposes of their erection, and worthy the consequence of the town. Their trade has risen (and is daily rising) into considerable value; the exports of linen, manufactured cotton, glass, corn, beef, pork, and sundry other articles, are great; and their various manufactures form some of the most important in the kingdom.

Waterford stands on the south side of the Suire, a broad and rapid river without any bridge, and about four miles and a half from its junction with the Nore and Barrow, all which united form the harbour.— This city is about eight miles from the sea, and 74 miles south-south-west from Dublin; it is a most convenient port for foreign traffic, and its harbour runs almost 12 miles up the country, nearly in a straight line, all the way deep and clear. This city is the capital of the county of the same name, governed by a Mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament; there are, a cathedral of great extent and elegance, three churches (one of which is extremely beautiful and spacious, and rivals any which even the capital can boast) four Catholic Chapels, and places of worship for French Protestants, Presbyterians, Quakers, and Baptists. The Bishop's palace is a fine building of hewn stone, with two fronts. The Court-house, Exchange, Custom-house, and Barracks, are neat handsome buildings, and the new Theatre and Assembly Rooms are fitted up in a very fine taste. There are several charity schools and humane foundations, well supported. The white glass and other manufactures of Waterford are in a flourishing state; and its export of beef, pork, butter, hides, tallow, corn, &c. is considerable; to which the extensive inland navigation it has by means of the Nore, Suire, and Barrow greatly contributes; as they also do to the import trade, from the demand for foreign commodities in the several rich counties and flourishing towns through which these rivers flow. The trade it carries on with Newfoundland, and of which it enjoys the principal share, is of the utmost importance, as upwards of seventy sail of shipping are employed in the supply of the banks with provisions, &c. and return from thence and the West-Indies with fish, rum, sugar, cotton, &c. Some idea of the provision trade here may be formed

It by the vast number of large hogs killed, which amount to upwards of 3000 per week, for many weeks together, and of butter there have been exported from hence from 60, to 80,000 casks a year.

Kilkenny is one of the best inland cities in this kingdom, pleasantly situated on the river Nore, distant 57 miles south-west from Dublin. It is governed by a Mayor, Recorder, and Aldermen. It comprises two towns, Kilkenny, so called, and Irish-Town, each of which sends two members to parliament; and, together, are computed to contain about 20,000 inhabitants. It has two churches, and several Catholic chapels.—The cathedral stands in a sequestered situation, is a venerable Gothic pile, and built above five hundred years ago; close to it is one of those remarkable round towers, which have so much engaged the attention of travellers. There are two very fine bridges of cut marble over the Nore; John's particularly, which consists of three elliptic arches, is beautifully proportioned, and might serve as a model of lightness and elegance. The only manufactures of consequence in this city are coarse woollen cloths, blankets of extraordinary fine quality, and considerable quantities of starch; in the neighbourhood also are manufactured those beautiful chimney-pieces, which are known all over the kingdom by the name of Kilkenny marble; which are cut and polished by water, a mill (the only one of its kind probably in Europe) having been invented by the late ingenious Mr. Colles for this purpose.

Galway is the most considerable town in Conaught, and seated on the noble bay of Galway, on the Western Ocean, 120 miles west from Dublin. It has but one parish church, an Exchange, three nunneries, three monasteries, a charter-school, and an hospital. It is a county in itself, governed by a Mayor, or his Deputy, two Sheriffs and a Recorder, and sends two members to parliament. The town is surrounded with walls, and including its suburbs, contains about 15,000 inhabitants. The salmon and herring fisheries are carried on here with great spirit, and employ several hundred boats; the quantity of kelp manufactured and exported is considerable.

Londonderry is 115 miles north-north-west from Dublin, in the province of Ulster, and capital of the county of the same name; sends two members to parliament, and is governed by a Mayor and other Magistrates. It is seated on an eminence or declivity of an oval form, being almost a peninsula at the bottom, and on a narrow part of Lough Foyle, which surrounds, for a quarter of a mile broad, two thirds or more of the eminence, and by which they have an open navigation to the sea on the very north of the kingdom. This situation is not more advantageous than beautiful; the city is extremely well built and neat, and a general appearance of order, industry and sobriety prevails throughout. Its trade is considerable; the exports consist of linen, linen-yarn, grain, &c. and their exertions in the Greenland and other fisheries, have been successful. The ground plot of this city is the property of the corporations of London, from which circumstance it has compounded its former name, which was Derry.

The other considerable towns in Ireland are, Newry in the county Down, 50 miles N. from Dublin, and seated on the Newry Water, which is rendered navigable for large vessels into the bay of Carlingford; and by a noble canal which joins the Banagh river, has a communication with Lough Neagh and all the circumjacent neighbourhood—

hood.—Drogheda, seated on the river Boyne, which is navigable for ships of burden to the Quay; 23 miles N. from Dublin, governed by a Mayor, Sheriffs, Recorder, and Aldermen; is a county in itself, and sends two members to parliament.—Wexford, capital of the county of the same name, 67 miles S. from Dublin; governed by a mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament; built near the sea, upon the river Slaney.—And Armagh, which is not only one of the greatest markets for linen, but is perhaps unrivalled by any other of equal extent, for the beauty of its public buildings, for which it is indebted to the unexampled munificence of its primate.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES.		£.	s.	d.
Hereditary Revenue	- - -	262249	9	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Additional duties on Customs and Excise inwards and outwards	- - -	516695	4	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Duties on stamped paper and parchment	- - -	39893	3	4
Revenue arising from the Post Office	- - -	14171	9	4
Pells and Poundage received at the Treasury	- - -	25301	8	1
Surplus from the public coal yards	- - -	864	16	5
Lottery offices licences	- - -	233	18	8
Rent of new Geneva County Waterford	- - -	738	14	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Regimental Balance	- - -	1500	0	0
Absentee Tax	- - -	6308	9	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
		<hr/>		
		867956	13	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
Expenses of Ireland for one year, ending March 25, 1787.				
Civil List	- - -	197727	6	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Military Establishment	- - -	501289	8	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Extraordinary Charges	- - -	533221	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
		<hr/>		
The Total Gross Expence		1232237	15	10
From whence deducting lottery payments	160000 0 0			
The militia expence of one year	20000 0 0			
And sums repaid out of the produce of the tillage duties	4228 17 11 $\frac{1}{2}$			
		<hr/>		
		184228	17	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
		<hr/>		
The Actual Expence	- - -	1048008	17	10 $\frac{1}{4}$

NATIONAL DEBT.*] The debt of Ireland is considered as having originated in 1715, when a vote of credit for 50,000l. was passed, on a threatened invasion of the kingdom.—From that period its progress, though irregular and fluctuating, was considerable; and in the year 1749 it amounted to 205,117l. However, through the exercise of unusual economy, or an increase of revenue, this debt was extinguished, and the nation was in credit from the year 1750 to 1760, when the nation again engaged in debt, which, accumulated from £.223,438, the debt in 1761, to £.2,302,146, the debt in 1787.

HISTORY.]

* Extracted from the Journals of the House of Commons.

HISTORY.] See Leland's History of Ireland—O'Conor's Dissertations on the History of Ireland—And Historical Tracts by Sir John Davis, Attorney-General and Speaker of the House of Commons in Ireland.

I S L E O F M A N.

THE Mona, mentioned by Tacitus was the Isle of Anglesea, not this Island. It lies in St. George's Channel, and is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said, that on a clear day the three Britanic kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air here is wholesome, and the climate, only making allowance for the situation, pretty much the same as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the island, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good pasturage. The better sorts of inhabitants have good sizeable horses, and a small kind, which are swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said, that this island abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, slate and stone.

The Isle of Man contains seventeen parishes and four towns on the sea-coasts. Castle-town is the metropolis of the island, and the seat of its government; Peele, which of late years begins to flourish; Douglas has the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsey has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds excepting the north-east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these few years, to the inexpressible prejudice of his majesty's revenue.

The crown of Great-Britain purchased this island 1765 from the Athol family to whom it then belonged, for 70,000*l*. The Duke of Athol, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the same rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, also, retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the Church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of other bishops, but does not sit in the British house of peers; his see never having been erected into an English barony.—One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character,

character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over that diocese upwards of fifty-seven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently distinguished for the piety and exemplariness of his life, his benevolence and hospitality, and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people entrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools for the instruction of the children of the inhabitants of the island, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Mank's language to render them more generally useful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every parish in his diocese. Some of his notions respecting government and church discipline were not of the most liberal kind: But his failings were so few, and his virtues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the Isle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for his character, that out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well kept up in this island, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common people, is radically Erse, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and Common Prayer Book have been translated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable. The better sort live in stone houses, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign shipping for commodities they may have occasion for from other parts. Before the south promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man: It is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This island affords some curiosities which may amuse an antiquary. They consist chiefly of Runic sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, of ancient brass daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are sometimes dug up, and seem to indicate the splendour of its ancient possessors.

I S L E O F W I G H T.

THIS island is situated opposite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles; it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to south about thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the southern parts; the soil is various, but so great is its fertility, it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year, than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight: And it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which affords fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island,

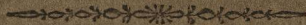
island, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral, but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties, the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situation of their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called the garden of England; it has some very fine gentlemen's seats;—and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes: And, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm-houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade.—The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean and well paved.

Carisbrooke castle, in the Isle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner, from November 1647, to September 1648.—After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouses were built in different parts of the coast of England.



The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part. By their situation between the English channel and St. George's channel, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives. Some of the islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours.

In the English channel are four islands subject to England: These are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans; and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, eighteen miles west of Normandy, and eighty-four miles south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs, the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine: And the island is well supplied with fish and wild-fowl almost of every kind, some of both being peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houses, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions durst recognise him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is as it were a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY, is thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west; has only ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, having one a-piece. Though this is a much finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable; because it is not so well cultivated, nor is it so populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants speak French: But want of firing is the greatest inconvenience that both islands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts: one called the Old-Castle, and the other Castle-Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe,

safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island is healthy, and is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a small island depending upon Guernsey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life;—their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England.

G E R M A N Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 520 }	between { 5 and 19 E. long. 45, 4 and 54, 40 N. lat. }	191,571

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the East; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the West, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maefe.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The divisions of Germany, according to Zimmermann, are as follows:

Divisions.	Areas in Square Miles.	Population.	Populat. for every Sq. Mile.
1. Upper Saxony	32,000	3,700,000	115
2. Lower Saxony	20,480	2,100,000	102
3. Westphalia	20,000	2,300,000	115
4. Upper Rhine	8,000	1,000,000	225
5. Lower Rhine	7,328	1,100,000	163
6. Burgundy	7,504	1,880,000	255
7. Franconia	7,744	1,000,000	125
8. Swabia	11,664	1,800,000	154
9. Bavaria	16,320	1,600,000	98
10. Austria	34,320	4,182,000	121
11. Bohemia	15,376	2,266,000	148
12. Moravia	6,336	1,137,000	179
13. Silesia	11,520	1,800,000	157
14. Lusatia	2,880	400,000	136
		Total 26,265,000	

Subdivisions of each of the Ten Circles, viz.

1. Circle of Upper Saxony.

SUBDIVISIONS.

1. Duchy of Pomerania. 2. Duchy of Saxe-Weimar. 3. Duchy of Gothia. 4. Coburg. 5. Meinungen. 6. Hildburghausen. 7. Eisenach. 8. Thuringia. 9. Anhalt. 10. Schwarzburg. 11. Electorate of Brandenburg. 12. Electorate of Saxony. 13. County of Mansfeld. 14. Weiningeroede. 15. Barby. 16. Hohenstein. 17. Hazfeld. 18. Reus. 19. Schaumburg. 20. Merseburg. 21. Naumburg Zeitz. 22. Walkenried. 23. Abbey of Quedlingburg.

2. Circle of Lower Saxony.

SUBDIVISIONS.

1. Bishopric of Hildesheim. 2. Bishopric of Lubec. 3. Abbey of Ganderheim. 4. Duchy of Magdeburg. 5. Duchy of Halberstadt. 6. Duchy of Bremen. 7. Duchy of Celle. 8. Duchy of Grubenhagen. 9. Duchy of Calenberg. 10. Duchy of Lauenburg. 11. Duchy of Wolfenbittel. 12. Duchy of Mecklenburg. 13. Duchy of Holstein. 14. County of Rantzau. 15. Principality of Blankenburg. 16. Principality of Schwerin. 17. Principality of Ratzeburg. 18. Imperial Cities: Hamburg. 19. Lubec. 20. Goslar. 21. Milthausen. 22. Nordhausen. 23. Bremen.

3. Circle of Westphalia.

SUBDIVISIONS.

1. Bishopricks of Munster. 2. Osnaburg. 3. Paderborn. 4. Liege. 5. Duchies of Cleves. 6. Juliers. 7. Bergen. 8. Principalities of Minden. 9. Verden. 10. Oostfriesland. 11. Nassau. 12. Oldenburg. 13. Counties of Lippe. 14. Bentheim. 15. Teklenburg. 16. Hoya. 17. Diepholz. 18. Wied. 19. Sayn. 20. Rietberg. 21. Limburg. 22. Seven Abbies. 23. Imperial Cities, Cologne. 24. Aix la Chapelle. 25. Dortmund, besides some smaller counties and lordships.

4. Circle of the Upper Rhine.

SUBDIVISIONS.

Bishopricks of Worms, Spire, Straßburg, Basel, Fulda; Great Mastership of the Knights of St. John, at Heiterheim; 3 Provofties, the Landgraviates of Hesse Cassel; Darmstadt, Homberg, Rotenburg, the Principalities of Nassau, Deux Ponts, Sponheim, Veldenz, Simmern, Lautern, Waldec, Salm; Counties, Hanau, Lichtenberg, Hanau Munzenberg, Sponheim, Iseburg, Witgenstein, Falkenstein, Leinigen, &c. Imperial towns, Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Main, Wezlar.

5. Circle of the Lower Rhine, also called Electoral Circle.

SUBDIVISIONS.

Four Electorates of Mentz, Trier, Cologne, and the Palatinate; Duchy of Aremberg, Balley of Coblenz, belonging to the Teutonic Order; Counties of Beilstein, Lower Henburg. The Prince of Turn and Taxis, Postmaster-general of the Empire, is one of the states of this circle, but his estates are not situated in this circle.

6. Circle

6. Circle of Burgundy.

SUBDIVISIONS.

Formerly 17 provinces of the Netherlands belonged to it ; the remaining parts of this circle are those provinces which belong at present to the house of Austria, viz. Duchies of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, Gueldre ; counties of Flanders, Hennegau, Namur ; marquissate of Antwerp, Malines.

7. Circle of Franconia.

SUBDIVISIONS.

The bishopricks of Bamberg, Wurzburg, Eichstedt, the territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim ; marquissate of Anspach, Bareuth ; counties of Schwarzenberg, Wertheim, Hohenlohe, Castell, &c. The Imperial towns of Nuremberg, Rothenburg, Windsheim, Schweinfurt, Weissenburg.

8. Circle of Swabia.

SUBDIVISIONS.

Bishopricks of Costanz and Augsburg ; abbies, Elwangen, Kempten, Lindau, Buchau, &c. and twenty more ; duchy of Wurtemberg ; marquissate of Baaden ; principalities of Hohenzollern (the origin of the house of Prussia) Furstenburg, Oettingen ; counties of Konigsegg, Baar, Hohenembs, &c. and many baronies ; twenty Imperial towns, the principal of which are : Augsburg, Nordling, Ulm, Heilbronn, Hall, Reutling, &c.

9. Circle of Bavaria.

SUBDIVISIONS.

The archbishoprick of Salzburg ; the bishopricks of Freisinger, Passau, Regensburg ; the provosty of Bertolsgaden ; the abbies of St. Emeran, Lower and Upper Munster ; the duchy of Bavaria ; the upper palatinate, Neuburg ; the principalities of Sulzbach, Leuchtenberg ; counties of Sternstein, and seven others ; the Imperial town of Regensburg.

10. Circle of Austria.

SUBDIVISIONS.

1. Archduchy of Austria, or Lower Austria. 2. Duchy of Stiria. 3. Carinthia. 4. Carniola. 5. The Austrian Friaul, or Coritia. 6. The Littorale, or the government of Trieste. 7. Tyrol. 8. Upper Austria. 9. The bishopricks of Trident or Trent. 10. Brixen. 11. Balley, Austria. 12. Bal. of Trafp.

Besides these ten circles, there belong also to the German empire : 1. The kingdom of Bohemia, divided into sixteen circles. 2. The marquissate of Moravia, divided into five circles (both Austrian provinces.) 3. The marquissate of Lusatia (belonging to the elector of Saxony.) 4. Silesia, only the smaller part of it, subject to the house of Austria, belongs at present to the Roman empire. 5. The three circles of immediate lordships or signories, called the estates of the independent and immediate knighthood of the empire, viz. 1. that of Swabia ; 2 of Franconia ; 3 of the Rhine ; they have no vote at the Diet, but are under the protection of the empire ; each of these circles, which consist of smaller counties, baronies, abbies, small towns, &c. has its own directors. The Hundsruck belongs to the third circle.—

6. The

6. The lordships of Jever, Kniphausen, Rheda, Mumpelgard, Schauen, and twenty-eight more. 7. Some lordships, which are governed in common by more than one ancient noble family, and which are called, Immediate Villages of the Empire.

MOUNTAINS. The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS. The vast passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reason why perhaps there are more woods and chaces yet standing in Germany than in most other countries. The Hercynian forest, which in Caesar's time was nine days journey in length, and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Most of the woods are pine, fir, oak and beech. There is a vast number of forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chace or park adorned with pleasure-houses, and well-stocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roebucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them, as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES. No country can boast a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donaw, so called from the swiftness of the current, and which some pretend to be naturally the finest river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is so broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Christians, ships of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it passes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vast number of cataraets and whirlpools; its stream is rapid, and its course, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weser and Moselle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz. Besides these are the Chiemsee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirntzer see in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Besides these lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of standing water, which are next to pestifential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable disorders.

PRODUCTIONS MINERAL, VEGETABLE, AND ANIMAL, COMMERCE, &c. From the advantageous situation and the great extent of Germany, from the various appearance of the soil, the number of its mountains, forests, and large rivers, we must naturally expect, and we actually find an extraordinary variety and vast plenty of useful productions. The northern, and chiefly the north-east parts, furnish many sorts of peltry, as skins of foxes, bears, wolves, squirrels, lynxes, wild cats, &c. the southern parts produce excellent wines and fruits; the middle provinces great plenty of corn, cattle, and minerals. Mines have been explored in Germany from the earliest times, and the richest derived

derived from them were in a great measure the cause and the support of the former celebrated trade of the Venetians. The Hartz mountains in Lower Saxony contain gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, zinc, cobalt, vitriol, sulphur, and other minerals: gold, however, is found only in the lower Hartz, to the amount of some hundred ducats; silver is coined annually in the upper Hartz, to the amount of 600,000, or according to other statements, 655,000 dollars: And the value of all the minerals of the Hartz amounts to near double that sum. The mountains of Upper Saxony are still richer; they have yielded not less than 34,000 lb. of silver annually; and the famous Saxon cobalt, chiefly used in making the blue colour called smalte, is reckoned to be nearly equal in value to the above quantity of silver. The quantity of iron and lead Germany supplies is extraordinary: The iron-works and founderies of Smalkalden, Iserlohe, Herzberg, Solingen, &c. are very little inferior to the iron-works in England. Hesse Cassel, as well as Hesse Darmstadt, the principalities of Nassau, and some neighbouring provinces, abound in copper, iron and lead. The palatinate is remarkable for its minerals, chiefly for its quick-silver, of which Deux-ponts alone produces 50,000 lb. a year. The minerals of the provinces belonging to the house of Austria, the value of which is remarkably great; and those of the Prussian provinces, neither of which are here spoken of, will be noticed hereafter, when we treat of Prussia and Austria. Salt is found in Germany in such abundance and so great purity, as is found in few other countries. The salt-works of Salabourg, in the circle of Bavaria, are immense; the Durnberg yields annually 750,000 lb. Not to mention those of Swabia, of Allendorf, Naunheim, Hall, in Upper Saxony, Creuznach, Schoenebeck, which are perhaps the greatest salt-works that either now are or ever were; but we must not omit to take notice, that the best or purest salt we know of is that of Lunenburg, in the Hanoverian dominions. The articles of less use, as for instance, topazes, garnets, crystals, do not deserve any particular mention; but the fine clay of Upper and Lower Saxony, of Hesse, and the Palatinate, forms a very considerable object of commerce, as it is used in making the porcelaine of Dresden, Berlin, Fürstenberg, Frankenthal, &c. superior to all other sorts of porcelaine, except that of Japan and China. Pitcoal is found in Silesia, in the circles of Burgundy, and of Westphalia, and in Hesse. The small bishopric of Liege exports annually to the value of near 100,000 ducats. In other parts plenty of fuel is supplied by the forests. The mineral waters of Germany are in high repute, and prove considerable articles of trade. The electorate of Treves gains 80,000 florins annually by that of Seltze: the prince of Waldeck 40,000 dollars by that of Pyrmont. The Spa waters produce a revenue of 60,000 dollars: and those of Aix la Chapelle, Wisbaden, the Schlangenbath, Embs, Rehbérg, &c. sums proportioned to their reputation and their salutary effects. There are in Germany exceedingly fine materials for building; the mountains near the Rhine furnish the best basaltes, and other strong and useful sorts of lava, the greatest part of which is sold to the Dutch: the mountains of Saxony and Franconia contain excellent granite, porphyry, and marble quarries.

Notwithstanding the northerly situation of Germany, vines prosper in the greatest part of it, viz. in both the circles of the Rhine, Swabia,

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Franconia.

Franconia, Upper Saxony, Westphalia, Bohemia, and Austria. Among the German wines, those of the Rhine and Swabia claim the first rank; the best sorts are that of Hochheim, commonly called *old hock*; that of Johannesberg, Rudesheim, and Bacharach, &c. Excellent fruits are found in great abundance in the southern provinces; thus, for instance, Lankheim, a small village in the circle of the Rhine, sells sometimes in one year, dried plumbs to the amount of 50,000 florins. The apples of Leipzick, are a considerable article of exportation. Tobacco is cultivated in large quantities: The Palatinate, exports to the amount of 800,000 florins annually. Baireuth 50,000 cwt. of the same article. The richest corn countries are both Saxony, Holstein, Mecklenburg, Bavaria, and Pomerania: Flax and hemp are produced chiefly in Lower Saxony, Westphalia, and Silesia. The great value of this branch of trade is too well known to need any particular mention. The greatest trading towns of Germany are at present, in general, the Imperial cities, Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, Frankfurt on the Main: none of them a seaport town; yet they are situated on large rivers, and the three first not far from the sea. Formerly these three cities commanded, in a greater measure, the trade of all Europe, while they were at the head of the famous Hanseatic league; and though their present power and opulence is no longer equal to their influence in former ages, they still may be considered as the greatest factories or emporiums of Germany. A considerable inland trade is carried on at the fairs of Leipzick, Brunswic Frankfurt on the Oder, and Frankfurt on the Main. As to the national industry, we observe, that there are scarce any articles of trade, convenience, and luxury not manufactured in Germany. If the Germans are inferior to the English in the manufactures of cloth, hardware, and in the articles of luxury, the causes must perhaps entirely be looked for in the political situation of this country: The great number of princes, the variety of the forms of government, the different interests and mutual jealousy of the petty states, are great checks on the commerce and prosperity of the whole. The great number of courts require large sums of money, which might be appropriated to useful purposes, and the encouragement of industry; they keep up a predilection for a court and military life among the nobility and gentry, and a contempt for the employments of a tradesman and a manufacturer. The jealousy of surrounding neighbours can greatly confine the market of a small country, whose industry is greater than theirs; and the difficulty of obtaining their concurrence in measures of general utility, is frequently the cause why there are so few canals and good roads, to facilitate travelling and inland trade.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, } This is a co-
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occasional estab- } pious head in
mates of REVENUES AND POPULATION. } all countries, but
more particularly so in Germany, on account of the numerous independent states it contains. The reader therefore must be contented with the mention of the most capital places, and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Prussian majesty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the most illustrious example of sudden improvement that this age can boast of; yet during the late war, it was found a place of no strength, and fell twice, almost without resistance,

instance, into the hands of the Austrians, who, had it not been for the politeness of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preserves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, besides a royal palace, has many other superb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a Roman Catholic one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner. But the houses, though neat without, are ill-furnished and ill-finished within, very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure; and the arsenal, which is handsomely built in the form of a square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactures in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the same author, there were no fewer than 443 silk-looms, 149 of half-silks, 2858 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 218 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe: It contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves; and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings and six-pence, amounts to 1,350,000*l*. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil, which, according to Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East-Indies and elsewhere, and the variety of splendid manufactures, that the Saxon princes must have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can say little more of Dresden, the elector of Saxony's capital, than can be said of all fine cities, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations, and, above all, its suburbs, are magnificent beyond all expression; that it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe; and that it is the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipzig in Upper Saxony, 46 miles distant from Dresden, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and the inhabitants are said to amount to about 40,000. There are also large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. Between these suburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city, Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town-ditches: but the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchants houses, and 192 manufactures of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipzig has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience

allowed here to persons of different sentiments in religious matters. Here is an university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the established religion, one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university-library consists of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. There is also a library for the magistrates, which consists of about 26,000 volumes, and near 2000 manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The Exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herrenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about seven hundred and fifty thousand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market-towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchase to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inhabitants, and have a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general, it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. Osnaburg, the chief city of the bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Ems, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the dutchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishopric amounts to about 30,000*l*.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all sects of Christians and Jews are tolerated, but the magistracy is Lutheran. Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconsiderable before. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally centre at Breslau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by some said to produce for his Prussian majesty, near a million sterling: but this sum seems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought in to the house of Austria above 500,000*l*. yearly.

Frankfurt is situated in an healthful, fertile, and delightful country along the Main, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfurt and Sachsenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thousand houses.—Frankfurt is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaster, and covered with slate; though there are some handsome private structures, of a kind of red marble, that deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compestel and Fronhof, the Trierhof, the Cullenhof, the German-house, an august edifice, situated near the bridge over the Main, the Hesse-Darmstadt-hof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the

houses

houses of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal squares.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, COURTS, &c.] The German empire, which, till the year 843, was connected with France, now forms a state by itself, or may be considered as a combination of upwards of three hundred sovereignties, independent of each other, but composing one political body under an elective head, called the emperor of Germany, or the Roman emperor. Otho the Great, who possessed several Italian provinces, formerly parts of the western empire, left to his successors the title of Roman emperor inseparably annexed to the kingdom of Germany; and in consequence of the ancient respect entertained for the Roman name, all the other sovereigns have allowed the emperor the first rank among the European monarchs. Eight princes of the empire, called electors, have the right of electing the emperor. By a fundamental law, known under the name of the Golden Bull, the number of electors was limited to only seven; two new electoral dignities have been added afterwards, one of which is extinct since the year 1777. The electors are divided into ecclesiastical and temporal: The ecclesiastical electors are the following. 1. The archbishop of Mentz, great chancellor of the empire, and director of the electoral college. In consequence of this presidency, he has the prerogative, on a vacancy of the imperial throne, to give notice of the death of the emperor to the states of the empire, to convok the diet during the interregnum, and to proclaim the new-elected successor. 2. The archbishop of Treves, great chancellor of France and Arrelat, a dignity, which, since the separation of France from the empire is merely nominal. 3. The archbishop of Cologne, great chancellor of Italy, a mere title also. The temporal electors are. 4. The king or elector of Bohemia, cup-bearer of the emperor. 5. The elector of the Palatinate and of Bavaria, great steward. 6. The elector of Saxony, great-marshal. 7. The elector of Brandenburg, great-chamberlain. 8. The elector of Brunswic (Hanover) arch-treasurer of the empire.

As soon as an emperor is elected, he is obliged to confirm by oath the capitulation he has signed, and which is proposed to him by the electors: He engages likewise by oath to protect the Roman Catholic religion and the Holy See. It is not absolutely necessary that the emperor should be a Roman Catholic, though hitherto no Protestant has been seated on the Imperial throne. The prerogatives the emperor acquires by his accession to that dignity, and which are called his *affertata*, are chiefly the following: He is the supreme lord paramount of the Roman empire, of whom the princes are supposed to hold their dominions in fee: He has the power of calling together the diet, over which he presides in person, or by his commissary, and of ratifying their resolutions by his confirmation. He is the supreme judge, in whose name justice is administered in the high courts of the empire: He can, however, exempt the subordinate states from the jurisdiction of these tribunals, by granting them the privilege *de non appellando*. He is the fountain of honour, and has the power of conferring titles of nobility, such as baron, count, prince, duke, &c. he claims the right of establishing post-offices all over the empire; this right, however, is subject to some limitations; he grants charters to the uni-

versities,

versities, and confers academical degrees. He is not allowed to raise any taxes, nor to begin an offensive war, or to conclude a peace, nor to alter any law of the empire without the consent of the diet, which may be considered as the supreme power of the German empire. The revenues of the emperor are at present reduced to a very trifling sum; they arise chiefly from the contributions of some Imperial towns, and amount to little more than 20,000 florins. In times of war, or other unusual emergencies, the diet allows the emperor extraordinary aids or supplies, called Roman months, and valued at 50,000 florins each. The diet is composed of the emperor and of the immediate states of the empire; the latter are those individuals or societies which share the supreme legislative and executive power of the confederation, by the right of voting in this assembly. Since the year 1663, the diet, which used to assemble formerly at unequal intervals of time, has been held, without interruption, to the present day. The diet exercises all the acts of sovereignty, as far as they concern the interests of the whole confederate political body; it levies taxes, it gives laws, it makes war, and concludes treaties of peace by which the whole empire is bound. It has the power of conferring this right of participation in the government, or of voting at the diet; and can take it away by way of punishment, from such members as have violated the public peace. In consequence of the difference of religion prevailing in the German empire, the states are divided into the Catholic and Protestant bodies (*Corpus Catholicorum & Corpus Evangelicorum.*) With respect to rank and privilege, they are divided into three colleges: The electoral college; that of the princes, including the immediate prelates and counts; and the college of the Imperial cities. Each of these colleges holds separate deliberations, in which the majority of votes decides. That of the electors is under the direction of the elector of Mentz. The college of the princes is subdivided into the ecclesiastical and temporal bench; on the first are seated those archbishops who are not electors, the grand masters of the Teutonic order, and of the order of St. John, the archduke of Austria, and the duke of Burgundy, the bishops and the prelates; the latter have no personal but two collective votes. The Protestant bishop of Lubeck, and the bishop of Osnaburg, when a Protestant, have a separate bench to themselves. On the secular bench, the first seats are held by those princes who are related to the electors; next to them are seated the ancient princely families; next, those families, who, in later times have been raised to the princely dignity; and last of all, the independent counts of the empire, who have only four collective votes. The votes of the ecclesiastical bench amount to 35, those of the temporal to 65. The college of the imperial cities is divided into two benches, that of the circle of the Rhine, and that of the circle of Swabia; the first has 14, the last 37 votes. These propositions, which are to pass into a law of the empire, must be agreed to by the three colleges; when this is done, they are called *Resolutions* of the empire. The resolutions must be presented to the emperor for his confirmation, which he has it in his power to give or to refuse; when the confirmation is obtained, the resolutions are called *Acts* or *Statutes* of the empire, and acquire the force of laws. At the conclusion of every diet, a collection is made of all the acts passed during the sessions, called the *Recess* of the Empire.

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The fundamental laws, or those which settle the constitution of the empire, are, I. Such acts of the diet as are of a public nature. The most remarkable among them are the following : 1. The golden bull (so called on account of the great gold seal of the emperor affixed to it) which was published at the diet of Nurnberg in the year 1356, and in the reign of Charles IV. It settles every thing relating to the election and coronation of the emperor, and the rights of the electors. The Latin original is preserved at Frankfurt on the Maine. 2. The public peace; a collection of regulations for the preservation of the peace between the members of the empire. It was calculated to put a period to the feudal dissensions which harrassed Germany in the middle ages. This law was promulgated under Maximilian I. in the year 1495.— 3. The convention of Passau in 1552, and the peace of religion in 1555, by which the Protestant religion as well as the Roman Catholic are acknowledged to be established in the empire. 4. The last recess of the empire of 1654, containing several public acts, which finally settle several points incompletely arranged in the Westphalian peace.— II. The capitulation of the emperor, by which the emperor engages himself to govern according to the laws of the empire, and under the conditions and restrictions imposed on him by the electors, who have the valuable right to check every stretch of imperial power, or to redress grievances crept in, by imposing new conditions at the beginning of a new reign. III. The peace of Westphalia, concluded in the year 1649, which serves for the basis of all subsequent treaties of peace, and, in a great measure, for the foundation of the present political system of Europe. This famous act determines likewise, with great precision, the civil, political, and religious rights of each individual state in Germany.

There are two supreme courts of judicature, which have a concurring jurisdiction in the Roman or German empire. 1. The *Imperial Chamber*, established in 1495, and kept at present at Wetzlar, an imperial city in the circle of the Upper Rhine. The emperor has the right of nominating the first judge and the two presidents of this court; 27 assessors or counsellors are nominated by the states of the empire.— 2. The *Aulic Council*, depending entirely on the emperor, is established at Vienna, the imperial residence. It consists of a president and 18 counsellors, and is divided into a noble and a learned bench. Seven of the members of this council are Protestants. The judges of the Imperial Chamber receive their salaries from the states of the empire, who have appropriated to their maintenance a particular tax, which amounts annually to about 50,000 florins. The judges of the Aulic Council are paid by the emperor. In all cases where the statute or fundamental laws of the empire are defective, these two courts adopt the regulations of the Roman law, which is in general introduced into the German courts of justice, except where it is limited or superseded by the particular statutes of each state. To both courts appeals may be made from the decisions of the courts of justice, or of the sovereigns of the German states. In criminal cases, in matters of religion, and in pecuniary lawsuits, in which the contested property does not exceed the sum of 400 rix-dollars, the decision of the territorial courts or of the sovereign is final. In these cases, however, the party who thinks himself aggrieved by a sentence, is allowed to submit the decis-

tion, given by the judges of his own country, to the examination of the juridical faculty of one or more impartial German universities, by which the decree may be confirmed or reversed. In the dominions of the electors and other princes, who are exempted from appeals to the supreme courts of the empire, courts of appeal are established, in which the decrees of the courts of justice, especially in causes between the sovereign and the subject, may be revised, and if exceptionable, may be set aside.

The states of the empire, considered in their separate capacity, enjoy sovereign power in their respective dominions, limited only by the laws before-mentioned, and the jurisdiction of the Imperial Courts, from which, however, the chief among them are exempted. The constitution of the different states is very different; most of them are governed by single persons, as the electorates, principalities, counties, &c. and some have a republican form of government, as the Imperial cities. As to the exercise of power, the sovereigns are limited by the states of their countries, who must give their consent to taxes, and to new laws; and who may appeal to the high courts of the empire, or to the courts of appeal within their own country, in case of any difference between them and the sovereign. In extreme cases, the states may lay their complaints before the diet. This mode of redressing grievances, provided by the constitution of the German empire, at a time when no standing armies were yet kept, is, it must be owned, of little avail in states where military power is preponderant; yet it is a very effectual check on the tyranny of petty sovereigns. The electors possess some considerable political advantages, besides the right of electing the emperor; their concurrence and consent is necessary to the emperor, whenever he declares war or concludes treaties; they have a particular confederation among themselves, called the *Electoral Union*, they claim the honours allowed to kings, and their ambassadors in foreign courts are in possession of the next rank after those of kings.— With regard to foreign countries, each independant German sovereign has the right of entering into treaties, or engaging in wars with them, provided it does not affect the peace of the whole empire, or of any other state of it. The government of most of the Imperial cities is a mixture of Democracy and Aristocracy. The best governed among them are Hamburg, Lubeck, and Frankfurt; in others, especially in Nurnberg, a rigorous oligarchy prevails.

The power of the two greatest potentates of Germany, whose religious and political interests are opposite, is at present pretty equally balanced. For though Austria is certainly in itself superior in strength to Prussia, yet the combination of the latter, with the mightiest princes in Germany, gives it a sufficient weight to counterbalance that superiority. It may not be improper to observe, that the connexions of some parts of Germany with foreign countries, under one sovereign, though they seemed to promise an accession of power to these provinces, have commonly proved disadvantageous, involving Germany in wars and calamities which would otherwise not have reached it.— Thus, for instance, the connexion of Hungary with Austria has been the cause of several bloody wars with the Turks; that of Poland with Saxony, and that of England with Hanover, have proved no less prejudicial to Germany, than to the countries thus united with it.

***ARMY OF THE EMPIRE.**] There is, properly speaking, no standing army of the empire; but in time of war the states of the empire must furnish their respective quotas of soldiers, according to an agreement made in the year 1681. At present the army of the empire, when complete, must amount to 28,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry. The quotas for the different circles are regulated as follows:

Circle of	Infantry.	Cavalry.
Austria	5507	2521
Burgundy	2707	1321
Bavaria	1494	800
Franconia	1902	980
Swabia	2707	1321
Lower Rhine	2707	600
Upper Rhine	2853	491
Westphalia	2707	1321
Upper Saxony	2707	1321
Lower Saxony	2707	1321
Total	27,998	11,997

In case $1\frac{1}{2}$ million of florins should be necessary to be raised for the war and for the army of the empire, the shares of this sum stand thus:

Circles of	Florins.	Kreutzer.
Austria	306,390	20
Burgundy	156,360	15
Bavaria	91,261	5
Franconia	113,481	25
Swabia	156,360	15
Lower Rhine	105,054	5
Upper Rhine	101,411	30
Westphalia	156,360	15
Upper Saxony	156,360	15
Lower Saxony	156,360	15
Total	1,499,999	40

RELIGION.] Since the year 1555, the three following denominations of Christians are the established religions of the empire: The Roman Catholic, the Lutheran, and Calvinist, generally called the reformed religion. The first prevails in the South of Germany, the Lutheran in the North, and the reformed near the Rhine. In the subsequent civil wars, of which religious bigotry was the principal cause, the rights of these rival religions, as established by the religious peace of 1555, had undergone great alterations whenever the provinces had changed masters; and the confusion arising from the claims of the oppressed parties, and from the encroachments of the victorious, was become extreme. It was at length settled by the peace of Westphalia, that the religion of the different states should remain as it had been in the year 1624, which is, on that account, called the definitive year, *Annus normalis*. According to this agreement, the sovereign is obliged to leave each of these religions, established, or tolerated, or excluded, as they were at that period; yet the right of correcting abuses in the public worship, was reserved to him. The Jews are tolerated throughout

throughout the empire. There are likewise in the empire sectates of all the denominations mentioned under the article of the European religions. The Roman Catholic church acknowledges the supremacy of the pope; and in consequence of an agreement between the Germanic church and the Holy See, the latter acquired the right of confirming all the prelates of the empire. Their superior clergy consists of eight archbishops, forty bishops, and many abbots; some of whom, as well as most of the archbishops and bishops, are sovereign princes. There is a very great number of Roman Catholic convents, and several commanderies of the knights of the Teutonic Order, as well as of the Order of St. John. The grand masters of these Orders must be Roman Catholic noblemen; the residence of the first is Mergentheim, in Franconia; that of the latter is Heisterheim, in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The Protestant clergy is governed by assemblies, called Consistories, under the control of the sovereign of each state. It is composed of superintendents general, who are commonly members of the Consistory, superintendents or inspectors, and ministers of the parishes. All the Roman Catholics, or the *Corpus Catholicorum*, is under the direction of the elector of Mentz; the *Corpus Evangelicorum*, or the Protestants, under the direction of the elector of Saxony. These directors manage the concerns of religion at the diet. To balance the rights and influence of the Catholics and Protestants, of which the former have a majority of votes on the diet, the states of either party have the right of succession (*jus eundi in partes*.) In consequence of this right, the Protestants or Catholics, if they are afraid that their interests, as a body, might be affected by a majority of votes, may come to a separate resolution, agreed upon amongst themselves, which cannot be annihilated by the ordinary manner of voting; and by this means they can defeat any attack upon their religious and political rights.

GENERAL REMARKS, RESPECTING THE MILITARY, } The German
POLITICS, AND LITERATURE OF GERMANY. } empire, when
considered as one single power or state, at the head of which the emperor stands, is of no great political consequence in Europe, because, from the inequality and weak connexion of its parts, and the different nature of their government, from the insignificance of its ill-composed army, and above all, from the different views and interests of its masters, it is next to impossible its force should be united, compact, and uniform. There are, however, in this empire, two potentates entitled to rank among the first deciding powers of Europe; and the intrinsic power of Germany, in some sense, is superior to that of any European country. The number of soldiers in the service of all the German princes amount to 500,000, even after deducting from the Prussian army 45,000 men for the provinces not belonging to the German empire, and 76,000 men of the Austrian army, for the kingdom of Hungary and the Italian dominions of Austria. The actual revenues of the German states (exclusive of the kingdom of Prussia, and the Austrian dominions not belonging to Germany) amount annually to near 100 millions of dollars, or near 18,000,000l. sterling. Considering the cheapness of victuals and labour in most parts of Germany, this sum is really astonishing; yet the effects of so much national wealth is much less perceptible, than it would be in France or England, where a large
metropolis

metropolis would collect it, as it were, into a focus, and assist its circulation throughout the provinces. Germany neither has, or can have, properly speaking, a capital, while it is divided among so great a number of sovereigns.

The Germans can boast of a greater number of useful discoveries and inventions in arts and sciences, than any other European nation. They have the honour of discovering the Art of Printing about the year 1456. It would be easy to enumerate nearly one hundred of their inventions without filling up the list with mere improvements in machines and mechanical arts. Improvements of this sort are greatly facilitated by a concurrence of favourable circumstances, such as an advantageous situation for commerce, long and uninterrupted peace, great and easy influx of wealth, and the concomitant increase of luxury. An open and extensive market for the productions of manufacturing industry, and the frequent calls of luxury for gratifications of new-imagined wants, multiply the arts; the latter assist each other in perfecting their respective instruments, and afford many opportunities for ingenious combinations of mechanism. In a country, whose commerce is confined by natural and political limits, where the reward of genius and industry is not always opulence and splendour, the national character shares with chance alone the claim to a number of important inventions, some of which have been productive of the principal revolutions of modern life. Literature and the sciences are arrived in Germany at a very high degree of eminence, both with respect to universality and solidity. Within these fifty years their improvements have been rapid and astonishing. The German language has been greatly cultivated and enriched with many excellent compositions in all branches of polite and useful literature, which have been marked with the applause, and translated into the languages of neighbouring nations.—Many branches of useful knowledge, hitherto confined to particular classes of men, and difficult to be acquired, have been reduced to a scientific form in Germany; they form indispensable parts of polite education, and are publicly taught in the universities. The theory of trades and mechanical arts, the principles of private and public economy, of internal administration, and the science of finances; the knowledge of the political situation, resources and wealth of every state, have been added to the established list of academical sciences, and they employ the talents of a great number of writers, under the name of Technology, Oeconomy, Science of Finances, and Statistic.

Many other sciences have undergone considerable changes. Their principles have been more thoroughly investigated, their proper limits assigned; they have received great improvements with respect to methodical arrangement and practical utility. The science of education has experienced a total and most advantageous revolution. In no other country this important science is so universally and so successfully attended to; nor can any country boast of so many institutions of education. Upwards of 30 writers, possessed of laudable zeal and great abilities, assisted by practical experience, and encouraged by some of the wisest and most patriotic sovereigns, have for some years past applied their talents entirely to the improvement of the method of instructing, and to the establishing of institutions, calculated to promote the happiness of future generations. The beneficial labours of these

these men extend to the lowest ranks of society. Several country schools are established, in which this numerous and valuable class of people are instructed in religion, in the duties of their station, and the proper use of their reason; and where they are brought up in habits of industry, which attach them to their situation in life. The great plan these friends of mankind pursue, is to render education, so long neglected by statesmen, an essential part of internal politics. They inculcate the necessity of bestowing no less pains on the formation of active habits, the early impression of religious and moral principles, the development of the bodily and mental powers, by the easiest and most natural steps, the preservation of the health of young people, than on their progress in classical and scientific knowledge.

The progress of the Germans in natural philosophy and mathematics is better known abroad, than their progress in metaphysics and divinity, which has, at least, kept pace with the former. The general taste for literature and scientific inquiry, which is the bent the genius and the industry of the nation has taken, in consequence of the singular political constitution, has diffused a vast mass of knowledge through Germany, especially through its northern parts. In these provinces the number of literati is exceedingly great; they may be said to form a particular republic of letters, distinguished by liberality of manners, by a considerable degree of independence, and a very perceptible influence on the government of the states, by the direction of the public opinion. The number of readers in the German empire, and in the neighbouring countries, especially in the north of Europe, where the German language has an extensive circulation, is large enough to encourage the publication of no less than 5000 annual literary productions, of which two-thirds are original performances, and one-third translations from other languages. It is true, this rage of writing and of reading has some disadvantages; among which, the publication of a great number of wretched books is one of the most conspicuous. Yet these are either calculated for a particular public, or they are soon buried in the oblivion they deserve; while, on the other side, the beneficial consequences resulting from this universal application to literature are greatly preponderant. Besides the obvious advantages of destroying ignorance and prejudice, of spreading liberality of sentiment, it keeps up the connexion, otherwise not sufficiently binding, between the different parts of the empire, it excites a spirit of emulation, it inspires a salutary dread to sovereigns to commit such actions as might draw public censure upon them, it acquaints the different classes of men with their rights, and gives energy to the voice and the complaints of the public. The sciences in Germany appear in no unimportant point of view, when considered as the means of affording a comfortable subsistence to an astonishing number of people employed in teaching, or in writing on the sciences, and to many thousands of paper-manufacturers, printers, and booksellers. The book-trade is now, where equally important; at the Leipzick fair books are sold and exchanged to the value of several hundred thousand dollars.

There are 38 universities in Germany, of which 19 belong to the Protestants, and 17 to the Roman Catholics; though the latter ought to have many more, considering the proportion of their numbers to those

those of the Protestants, which is as two to one. Of all the German institutions of education, the universities are still the most faulty, considering the wants of our age; yet most of the Protestant universities in Germany are the least exceptionable institutions of that kind in Europe. The number of literary and scientific societies, public libraries, academies of arts, collections of pictures, military academies, &c. is greater in Germany than in any other country.

HISTORY.] Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, King of France, was the founder of the German Empire in A. D. 800. Leopold II. late Emperor died Feb. 1792. The German Diet was to meet the 4th of July following for the Election of a Successor to the crown.

Those who wish to acquaint themselves with the history of the German Empire are referred to the Universal History: See also Encyclopedia, Britannica, Article; Germany—Publishing in Philadelphia, by Mr. Thomas Dobson.

MONARCHY OF PRUSSIA.

BOUNDARIES AND NAME.] THIS country is bounded on the north by part of Samogitia; south, by Poland proper and Malovia; east by part of Lithuania; west by Polish Prussia and the Baltics.

The name of Prussia is probably derived from the Borussi, the ancient inhabitants of the country.

The following Table from Zimmerman will furnish the reader with the best information concerning the Divisions, Extent, Population, and Towns of the Prussian Monarchy.

TABLE.

T A B L E.

As the Countries belonging to this Monarchy are scattered, and without any natural Connexion, one cannot ascertain very accurately their boundaries. The latitude of Prussia goes to 55° lat. N.	Square Miles.	Population.	Population for every square mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
A. Countries which are independent of the German Empire	57,600	6,000,000	104	570 Towns. Capital Berlin — — — 145,186
B. Countries which are dependent	but in another place Mr. Hertzberg reckons 64,000	6,400,000	100	
A.	22,244	1,500,000	68	Towns 69—Villages 1,260
1. Kingdom of Prussia, viz.	12,048	940,000	78	Königsberg* — — 54,000 Memel — — — 5,765
East Prussia				(44 Towns.)
West Prussia	10,096	860,000	55	Elbing — — — 14,400 Graudenz — — — 5,200
2. Duchies of Silesia and Glatz	10,240	1,802,000	184	(161 Towns.) Breslau — — — 61,000 Glatz — — — 4,250 Brig — — — 6,000 Schweidnitz — — 6,250 Liegnitz — — — 4,810
3. Principalities of Neufchatel and Valengin	240	40,500	169	(3 Towns.) Neufchatel — — — 6,000

* Königsberg, the Capital of the Kingdom of Prussia, is situated on the river Pregel, over which are 17 bridges. According to Rüdiger it is seven miles in circumference and contains 38,000 houses. Its river being navigable for ships, it has made a considerable figure in the commercial world. A university was founded at Königsberg in 1554.

T A B L E C O N T I N U E D .

DIVISIONS.	Square Miles.	Population.	Population for every square mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
B.				
1. The March of Brandenburg, viz.	10,624	3,057,000	99	Berlin, 6500 houses.
a. The Electoral March	7,104	796,000	112	Potsdam — 20,000 Spandau — 3,800 Brandenburg — 9,200 Frankf. on the Oder 10,000 Salzwedel — 4,500 Stendal — 4,300
b. The New March	3,520	262,000	74	Cölln — 4,400 Landberg — 6,000
2. Duchy of Pomerania.	8,112	465,000	132	Stettin — 15,485 Colberg — 4,090 Anklam — 3,185
3. Duchy of Magdeburg.	1,664	280,000	168	Magdeburg — 26,300 G. and 10,000 G. Halle — 15,202 and 5,000 G.
4. Principality of Halberstadt.	672	132,000	196	Halberstadt — 11,200 M.
5. The posses. in Westphalia, viz.	3,904	590,000	151	

TABLE

TABLE CONTINUED.

Divisions.	Square Miles.	Population.	Population for every square mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
1. Duchy of Minden and County of Ravensberg	816	130,000	159	Minden — 5,178 Bielefeld — 2,500 (6 Towns.)
2. Counties of Feckenburg and Lingen	208	45,000	216	Feckenburg — — Lingen — — 1,800 (4 Towns.)
3. Principality of Ostfriesland or Frisia	864	103,000	119	Emden — — 7,900M. (4 Towns.)
4. Duchy of Cleve	640	95,000	149	Cleve — — 5,300 Wesel — — 4,600 Duisburg — — (24 Towns.)
5. County of Mark	896	126,000	140	Soest — — 5,020 Lippstadt — — Herfode — — 5,000
6. Principal. of Moers	96	17,000	177	Moers — — Crefeld — — 5,800
7. Duchy of Gueldern	384	50,000	130	Gueldern — —

WEALTH

WEALTH, COMMERCE, &c.] The different provinces of the Prussian monarchy are by no means equal to one another with respect to fertility and the articles of their produce. The kingdom of Prussia, being the most northern part of the monarchy, is rich in corn, timber, manna-grass, flax and peltry of all sorts, and exports these articles. Amber is exported annually, to the value of 20,000 dollars. Prussia wants salt, and has no metals but iron. The profits of its fisheries are considerable. Silesia has silver, lead, tin, and iron; but its mines are still in an infant state, as likewise a great plenty of pit-coal, different sorts of salt, precious stones, and quarries of excellent free-stone. The sheep and goats of this province are remarkably good. Of vegetables it produces large quantities of madder, some tobacco, wine, and corn, sufficient for the consumption of this province. The Marche of Brandenburg has excellent sheep, timber, flax, silk, salt-petre, allum, and a very fine sort of clay, used in the china manufacture. Pomerania exports timber, cattle, and corn. Halberstadt and Magdeburg are remarkable for corn and silk, and Westphalia for corn and minerals. The provinces of Westphalia have iron, calamine, pit-coal, and some lead and copper. The industry of the Prussian nation, encouraged chiefly by the late king, the wonder of the age, is at present so great, that not only 1,200 vessels, and 22,000 seamen are employed, in the maritime provinces; where trade was formerly at a very low ebb, no more than 300 fishermen being employed in the herring fishery, but that the produce of the mines is made to amount to 1,300,000 dollars, and gives bread to 90,000 families. The sum accruing to the king from the mines amounts to 800,000 dollars, and the profits of private proprietors to 500,000 dollars. Before the commencement of the late reign, Prussia (according to Count Hertzberg) had but a few silk manufactures: At present they employ upwards of 5,000 hands; and the value of goods manufactured, amounts to 2,000,000 dollars annually, one fourth of which is exported. Of 70,000lb. of raw silk, required for this manufacture, 13,432 lb. are produced in the Prussian dominions. Large water-mills are erected for spinning silk, wool and thread. The articles supplied by these mills are of very great commercial consequence. Prussia exports linen, to the value of six millions of dollars, chiefly to Spain and Italy, and woollens to the value of four millions, some of which finds its way even to China, through Russia. Eastern Prussia exports, annually, 100,000 stein of flax, 10,000 stein of hemp, besides some thousand tons of flax and hemp-seed. West Prussia exports linen thread to the value of 500,000 dollars, and 49,000 stein of flax. The iron works and founderies of the county of Mark bring into circulation about one million of dollars. These articles added to the timber and corn of Brandenburg and Pomerania, each of which articles is exported to the value of one million of dollars: To the flax and timber of Prussia, and to the important Polish trade carried on by the way of Koenigsberg, Memel, Elbing, Dantzick, and Stettin, turn the balance of trade considerably in favour of the Prussian dominions. There are in all about 123,000 hands employed in the manufactures of cloth, silk, linen, leather, &c. The manufacture of porcelaine employs 5,000 people. The cotton manufacture, with respect to the fineness and beauty of its goods, is one of the best in Europe. Besides the

the above, there are many manufactures of glass, white lead, hard-ware, vitriol, allum, paper, sugar, tobacco, &c. The number of people working in the principal manufactures of Prussia, is upwards of 165,000, and the produce of their industry is estimated at upwards of 30 millions of dollars. The small manufactures of starch, allum, vinegar, bleached wax, tobacco pipes, arms, tapestry, gloves, are not included in this calculation, yet they produce many millions of dollars. At Embden, an East-India Company has been established with tolerable success.

ARMY.] In 1783, the Army of Prussia amounted to 224,431 men, viz.

	Infantry.	Cavalry.
In the March	46,488	4,187
In Prussia	33,947	12,229
In Pomerania	12,670	8,430
In Magdeburg	16,907	3,790
In Westphalia	13,990	
In Silesia	40,108	13,860

In 1785 the army amounted to 192,377.

At Berlin there is an Ecole Militaire, and a school for cadets; Each regiment has its court of justice. The Prussian troops are said to be the best disciplined of any in the world.

FINANCES.] The Finances of Prussia amount to 23 millions of dollars: According to Busching to 18,500,000 only.

From the Electorate or March of Brandenburg	6½ millions
From Prussia	4½
From Pomerania	2
From Magdeburg and Halberstadt	2
From Westphalia	2
From Silesia	6
	23

According to Busching.

Pomerania	2,000,000
Prussia	4,000,000
Silesia	4,500,000
March of Brandenburg	3,300,000
Magdeburg	1,400,000
Halberstadt	500,000
Cleve, Mark, and Moeurs	1,000,000
Minden and Ravensberg	900,000
Ostfriesland	900,000

18,500,000

The revenues arise from demesnes of the king, his duties of customs and tolls; and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states. Amber alone is said to bring him in 26,000 dollars annually.

GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian Majesty is absolute through all his dominions: The government of this kingdom is exercised by a regency of four Chancellors of State, viz. 1. The Great Master: 2. The Great Burgrave: 3. The Great Chancellor: And 4. The Great Marshal. There are also some other councils, and 17 Bailiwicks. The states.

states consist : 1. Of Counsellors of State : 2. Of Deputies from the Nobility : And 3. From the Commons. Besides these institutions, his Majesty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

GENERAL REMARKS.] The present flourishing state of Prussia, a country by no means remarkable for its natural riches, is an astonishing proof of what a single great man is able to effect, who unites extraordinary strength of genius, with laborious and persevering activity.— This monarchy resembles a very complicated machine, which, by its ingenious and admirable construction, produces the greatest effects with the greatest ease, but in which the yielding of a wheel, or the relaxation of a spring, will put a stop to the motion of the whole. The united effects of flourishing finances, of prudent economy, of accuracy and dispatch in every branch of administration, and of a formidable military strength, have given to this state such a consequence, that the tranquillity and security, not only of Germany, but of all Europe, depend in a great measure on the politics of the Prussian cabinet. The administration of justice is likewise admirably simplified and executed with unparalleled quickness. Upon the whole, the reign of Frederick the Great may, indeed, be considered as the most specious argument in favour of monarchical government. Improvements have been made in one single reign, which, in a country where the governing powers are less united and more limited, would have required several ages, and the most favourable circumstances. Difference of religion in a state, is commonly the cause of many disturbances : Under the late king, all professions of faith lived peaceably together, because the established religion, which is the reformed, had no power to oppress those of a different persuasion. Roman Catholics and Jews are very numerous in the Prussian dominions ; they enjoy the most perfect freedom in the exercise of their religion.

The progress which the arts and sciences, and especially elegant literature, have made during the reign of this great man, is very considerable. It is no more than about 40 years ago, that the Germans, though great proficients in every branch of scientific knowledge, paid proper attention to the refinement of their taste, and the cultivation of their language. Yet such is the application peculiar to the Germans, and so well were they prepared for every species of composition, by their intimate acquaintance with the best ancient and modern writers of all nations, that having once laid aside the fashion of writing in Latin, they were able to enumerate, in a short period, many excellent poets and elegant writers in their native language. This is the more to be wondered at, as the late king of Prussia, greatly neglected in his education, and afterwards constantly surrounded by foreigners, was unacquainted with, and indifferent to the energy and copiousness of his own language, and to the progress his countrymen made in taste and composition. He had, however, the merit of encouraging the sciences and some branches of literature ; and such is the connexion between the different branches, that if some of them are patronized by great and powerful men, all the other branches will partake of the animating influence.

HISTORY.] Prussia was anciently inhabited by an idolatrous and cruel people. The barbarity and ravages they were continually making upon their neighbours, obliged Conrad, Duke of Masovia, about the

middle of the thirteenth century, to call to his assistance the knights of the Teutonic order, who were just returned from the holy land.— These knights chose a grand master, attacked those people with success, and after a bloody war of fifty years, reduced them to obedience, and obliged them to embrace christianity. They maintained their conquest till 1525, when Albert, Margrave of Brandenburgh, their last grand master, having made himself master of all Prussia, ceded the western part to the king of Poland, and was acknowledged duke of the eastern part, but to be held as a fief of that kingdom. The elector, Frederick-William, surnamed the Great, by a treaty with Poland in 1656, obtained a confirmation of this part of Prussia to him and his heirs, free from vassalage, and in 1663, he was declared independent and sovereign duke. With these titles, and as grand master of the Teutonics, they continued till 1701, when Frederick, son of Frederick-William the Great, and grand-father of the late king, raised the duchy of Prussia to a kingdom, and on January 18, 1701, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, placed the crown with his own hands upon his head; soon after which, he was acknowledged as king of Prussia by all the other European powers. Frederick III. died August 17, 1766, and was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick-William who was born 1744.

MONARCHY OF AUSTRIA.

THE Divisions, Extent, Population, and Chief Towns of this Monarchy, are noticed in the following Table.

T A B L E.

Division of all the Austrian dominions.	Areas in square miles.	Population.	Population for each single square mile.	CHIEF TOWNS. Names. Num. of inhabitants.
	186,496	40,000,000	211	Vienna — 206,000
		49,611,000 St. T.	169 St. T.	Linz — 45,500
A. Countries belonging to the German empire.				Gratz — 55,000
1. Circle of Austria	34,380	4,182,000	122	Clagenfurt — 7,500
			(B.)	Laubach — 1,500
2. Kingdom of Bohemia	15,376	2,366,000	148	Feria — 9,000
				Triest — 80,000
3. Marquitate of Moravia	6,396	1,157,000	179	Prague, Carlsbad, Eger — 11,000
				Olmutz — 25,000
4. Part of Silesia	1,296	200,000	154	Brunn — 8,000
				Proppau, Teschen — —
5. Austrian Netherlands	7,504	1,880,000	250	Brussels — 80,000
				Louvaines — 40,000
				Antwerp — 40,000
				Malines — 20,000
				Ghent — 40,000
				Ostende — 14,000
				Mons — 10,000
				Namur — 20,000
				Luxemburg — 8,000
				Limburg — 8,000

TABLE

T A B L E.

B. Countries independent of the German empire.	Areas in square miles.	Population.	Population for each single square mile.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Lombardiz (Italy)	3,072	1,324,000	43	Names. Number of inhabitants. Milan 232,000 Pavia 27,600 Cremona 25,000 Mantua 23,000 Ofen 21,000 Preiburg 27,000 Odenburg 11,000 Theresienstadt 15,000 Pest 13,500 Chemnitz 8,000 Tyrnau 7,300
2. Hungary	59,536	2,179,000	36	Narftadt, Peterwardein
3. Illyria	19,928	620,000	31	Hermanftadt Kronftadt
4. Transylvania	16,800	1,250,000	74	Czernowiz, Suczowa Lemberg Brody
5. Buckowina	22,878	130,000	57	15,000
6. Gallicia and Lodomeria	20,480	2,800,000	136	20,000 15,000

WEALTH

WEALTH, COMMERCE, &c.] The provinces of the Austrian monarchy are not only favourably situated as to climate, but they may be reckoned among the most fertile in Europe. There is scarce any valuable product which is not to be met with in them. Bohemia produces and exports flax, wool, hides, skins, hops, iron, steel, tin, cobalt, vitriol, brimstone, allum, garnets, and other precious stones; it imports salt, wine, silk, cotton, spices, &c. upon the whole, the value of exports exceeds that of the imports by two millions of florins. Silesia exports large quantities of linen, and Moravia has a great number of manufactures of all sorts, chiefly of cloth, the produce of which amounts to the value of 13 millions of florins. Austria is certainly one of the most fertile provinces of Germany. The lower division of it produces upwards of 60,000 cwt. of salt, value $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions of florins, the expenses of the works not exceeding one million. The saffron of this province is remarkably good. The woollen manufacture at Lintz is very considerable, and employs upwards of 25,000 people. There are besides many other manufactures, viz. of glass, of hardware, &c. The art of making iron-wire is carried to such a degree of perfection, that 630 fish-hooks, worth 26 florins, are made of half an ounce of metal.— Austria produces 2,000,000 cymers of wine, of which a great part is exported. The exports of Lower Austria to the Levant, are computed at six millions; but the imports, consisting of the articles of cotton, goats or camel hair, spices and coffee, at nine millions. The district comprehending the provinces of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola, called by the German geographers Interior Austria, is famous for its minerals. Besides some gold, upwards of 1000 lb. of silver, 300,000 lb. of quicksilver, one million cwt. of iron, 150,000 cwt. of salt, 1500 cwt. of salt-petre, and great quantities of lead, copper, vitriol, cobalt, brimstone, are the produce of these rich mines. In Carniola the linen manufactures produce to the value of 400,000 florins of that article. The centre of the Austrian trade is the harbour of Trieste, declared a free port by the present emperor, who is desirous to establish there an East-India company. Here is the market to which all the European nations resort for the productions of the Austrian dominions. The province of Tyrol has also rich mines; it produces wine, and has manufactures of glass, leather, and silk. Lombardy, the population of which is prodigious, produces vast quantities of silk, to the amount of 4,500,000 florins. It exports also corn and rice for 700,000, linen for 400,000, cattle and horses for 1,500,000 florins. All the various articles of produce, scattered through the other provinces, are found united, and in a much greater proportion, in the kingdom of Hungary, which, if it was not too thinly peopled, would be the richest country of Europe. It produces annually 25,000 lb. of silver, containing gold. In 1779, the mines of Schemnitz and Kremnitz yielded 1215 lb. of gold. The gold-wash of the Bannat yields upwards of 1000 ducats. It is supposed, that Hungary and Transylvania together produce gold and silver to the value of 7,000,000 florins annually, 34,000 cwt. of copper, besides iron, quicksilver, salt, and marble. The value of the mines of the Austrian Monarchy is computed to amount to 19,000,000 florins. It is well known that Hungary produces an incredible quantity of excellent wines, the most delicious of which is the famous Tokay. If several sorts of the Hungarian wines could be longer kept, and if the duties

duties on them, and the expenses of carriage were not so very high, the riches accruing from them to this country would be immense. Among the other valuable productions of Hungary, we shall mention hemp, flax, and even cotton, barilla, rice, and tobacco. In 1779, there were exported from Trieste 100,759 lb. of saffron, and upwards of 3,000,000 lb. of tobacco in leaves, exclusive of 2,500,000 lb. exported from Fiume and Buhary. This province, rich in every respect, sells every year 150,000 head of live cattle, and 40,000 hogs. Gallicia, besides abounding in other minerals, is famous for its immense salt-works at Wielitzka. This mine of salt-rock has been worked these 600 years past; it extends, according to Mr. Cox, about 669 feet in length, 1115 in breadth, and 743 in depth. It yielded to the crown of Poland, to which it belonged till 1773, a revenue of three millions and a half of Polish florins annually: it has been ceded to the emperor by the late treaty of partition. The quantity of salt dug out every year, amounted some years ago to 700,000 cwt. The salt-works of Sambor and Bochnia are also very rich, they yield salt to the value of one million of florins. The few preceding facts shew clearly the value of these provinces. When population shall be increased, and manufactures established, in proportion to the natural riches of the country, the wealth of the Austrian Monarchy promises to be superior to that of any nation in Europe. At present there is a great want of navigable canals and other conveniencies for inland commerce. Many of the spontaneous productions are not sufficiently attended to, as for instance, Oil. The Austrian Netherlands have been long famous for their fisheries, corn, madder, and flax of a superior fineness, of which the Brabant lace is made, which brings a great deal of money into the country.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Austria, and, being the residence of the emperor, is supposed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank, which is in the management of her own magistrates, and a court of commerce immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman, St. Colman, the patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of some notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, are computed at about three hundred thousand; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns, has rendered this city the rendezvous of all the nations around.

After all that has been said of this magnificent city, the most candid and sensible of those who have visited it, are far from being lavish in its praise. The streets, excepting those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings;

buildings; but above all, the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of their subjects poor. His late imperial majesty was sensible of these truths which were plain to all the world but his predecessors and their counsellors: He examined things with his own eyes, and descended from that haughtiness of demeanour which rendered the imperial court so long disagreeable, and indeed ridiculous, to the rest of Europe. In general, the condition of the Austrian subjects has been greatly meliorated since the accession of his late majesty to the imperial throne; great encouragement hath been given to the protestants, and many of the Catholic religious houses, convents, &c. were suppressed by him.

FINANCES.] The Finances of the Austrian monarchy amount to above 90 millions of florins, exclusive of the revenues of Galicia, Lodomeria, and Buckowina, viz.

Of Bohemia	_____	_____	15,736,069
— Silesia	_____	_____	557,209
— Austria	_____	_____	23,014,276
— Moravia	_____	_____	5,793,120
— Stiria	_____	_____	5,889,221
— Carintia	_____	_____	2,386,884
— Carniola	_____	_____	2,089,952
— Friaul	_____	_____	357,368
— Tyrol	_____	_____	3,658,712
— Austria Interior	_____	_____	2,876,177
— Hungary	_____	_____	18,004,158
— Transylvania	_____	_____	3,941,707
— Lombardia	_____	_____	2,909,171
— Netherlands	_____	_____	3,184,135
— Illyria	_____	1,000,000	} Schloez.
— Buckowina	_____	300,000	
— Galicia and Lodomeria	_____	12,000,000	

The debts of the Austrian monarchy amount to about 200 millions of florins. In 1770, the public expenditure amounted to 83½ millions, and was exceeded by the revenue by upwards of six millions remaining in the treasury.

ARMY.] The Austrian army, according to the new regulations of 1779, amount to 283,000 men. The infantry consists of 37 regiments, of 3120 men each, or in all 177,840 men.

Grenadiers	_____	_____	13,182
Cavalry	_____	_____	44,100
Artillery	_____	_____	11,000
Croats	}	_____	400,000
Wallachian			
Slavonian troops	}	_____	600
Pontonniers			
Miners	_____	_____	640
Sappers	_____	_____	280
Tchaikists	_____	_____	1200
Engineers	_____	_____	200

There are besides the general, staff, or field engineers, &c. According to others 300,000 men (in 1783).

Another

		Another statement.	
Infantry	—	—	170,000
Cavalry	—	—	50,000
Garrisons and other corps	—	—	60,000
			280,000

There is at Wienerish Neustadt a famous military academy for 400 cadets; at Vienna an academy of engineers, and each regiment has a school, in which forty sons of soldiers are educated.

GENERAL REMARKS.] The Austrian monarchy wants nothing but a long peace to increase in population and industry. In both respects the country has already gained much by the wisdom of one of the late emperors, who removed one of the greatest obstacles to internal improvement, religious intolerance. The Roman Catholic religion is the established religion of the monarchy; There are, however, at least 80,000 Protestants in the provinces belonging to the German empire. In Hungary the number of Protestants is so great, that since the act of toleration has been published, no less than 200 churches have been allowed to them. There are, besides many thousand Greeks, 223,000 Jews, and about 50,000 Egyptians or Gypsies, in the Austrian dominions. At the beginning of the present reign, there were upwards of 2000 convents of monks and nuns, which are now wisely reduced to 1143. The arts and sciences, hitherto greatly neglected, begin to make considerable progress. The emperor Joseph appropriated the greatest part of the revenues, arising from the estates of the secularised convents, to the improvement of the schools, and the encouragement of literary merit. The universities of the Austrian dominions are not yet equal to those of the Protestant countries of Germany; they are six in number, at Vienna, Prague, Pest, Lemberg, Louvain, and Freybourg, in Brisgau. The government is, in certain respects, strictly monarchical; however, in the provinces of Hungary, Illyria, Transylvania, Tyrol, and the Netherlands, the states have preserved so much of their ancient consequence, as to prevent new taxes from being imposed on those provinces without their consent. The cities of Brussels and Milan are the seats of the two viceroys, or governor-generals of the Netherlands and the Italian provinces. Joseph II. rendered an essential service to humanity, in abolishing the servitude or villanage of the peasants of Bohemia.

KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA,

BELONGING TO THE AUSTRIAN MONARCHY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	478	between { 48 and 52 north latitude, 12 and 19 east longitude.
Breadth	322	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, on the East; by Austria and Bavaria, on the South; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the West; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and, 3. Moravia.

To what we have already said of Bohemia under the head of Austria, we add the following particulars:

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction: Its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgratz, Breslaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportioned to its capacioufness, being computed at 80,000. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for strength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: It is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder. Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, hath been already described.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Austria.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government, under the emperor, is despotic. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria, received three crowns, that of Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414 John Huss and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: The people of Prague, threw the emper-

ror's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the Imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the Imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a protestant king, in the person of the Prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being stripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a subsistence. After a war of 30 years duration, which desolated the whole empire, the Bohemians, since that time, have remained subject to the house of Austria.

H U N G A R Y.

BELONGING TO THE AUSTRIAN MONARCHY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 300	} between { 17 and 23 east longitude. 45 and 49 north latitude.
Breadth 200	

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Slavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is bounded by Poland, on the North; by Transylvania and Walachia, East; by Slavonia, South; and by Austria and Moravia, West.

The kingdom of Hungary is usually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF

THE DANUBE.

Chief Towns.

Presburg, situated on the Danube,
E. lon. 17-30, N. lat. 48-20.
Newhaufel, N. W.
Leopoldstadt, N. W.
Chremnitz, N. W.
Schemnitz, in the middle.
Esperies, N.
Chaschaw, N.
Tokay, N. E.
Zotmar, N. E.
Unguar, N. E.
Mongats, N. E.
Waradin Gréat, E.
Segedin, S. E.
Agria, in the middle.
Pest, on the Danube, opposite to
Buda.

LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF

THE DANUBE.

Chief Towns.

Buda, on the Danube, E. lon. 19-20, N. lat. 47-40.
Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
Comorra, on the Danube, in the island of Schut.
Raab, on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut.
Attenburg, W. opposite to the island of Schut.
Weissenburg, or Alba Regalis, situated E. of the lake, called the Platten sea.
Kanisba, S. W. of the Platten sea.
Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.

To which may be added Temeswar, which has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent

pendent king; and it has several times been in possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeswar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3850 square miles: It has been divided into four districts, Cladat, Temeswar, Werschez, and Lugos. Temeswar, the principal town, is situated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and consequently the climate of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; but the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil, than that plain which extends three hundred miles from Presburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits, of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chestnuts, and wood: Corn, is in such plenty, that it sells for one sixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] These are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyffe, Merish and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks, when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quicksilver, crysolite, and terra sigillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars between the Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the house of Austria, those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes.—The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value, their works being destroyed or demolished; some of them however still subsist, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries.—The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to those of any other country, at least in Europe.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Before the Turks got
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } possession of Constantinople,
it is said, that Hungary was one of the most populous and powerful**

ful

ful kingdoms in Europe; and if the house of Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again a century hence. Hungary at present, is thought to contain about three millions 170,000 inhabitants.

The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes, who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are a broad-sword and a kind of pole-ax, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and they have a sable dress, with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons. Both men and women, in what they call the nice towns, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns upon the roads are most miserable hovels, and even those seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants, and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that rather than submit to the tyranny of the house of Austria, they often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeswar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at about 450,000. There are in this country many saracens, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are said to resemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and customs; and it is asserted, that the lascivious dances of Isis, the worship of onions, many famous Egyptian superstitions and specifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar.

RELIGION.] The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman Catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are protestants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPS AND BISHOPS.] The archbishoprics are Presburg, Gran, and Colocza. The bishoprics are, Great Waradin, Agria, Vesprim, Raab, and five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is said to approach near the Hebrew. The better and middle ranks

ranks speak German, and almost all even of the common people speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that the Latin may be said to be here still a living language.

UNIVERSITIES. } In the universities (if they can properly be so called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caschaw, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who used generally to be Jesuits; so that the Lutherans and Calvinists, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other universities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The artificial curiosities of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } this country consist of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Esseck, built over the Danube, and Drave, is properly speaking, a continuation, of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. It was an important pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and about twenty Hungarian miles distant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, judged to be the most magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to distinguish them from the like works in other countries.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Saelitæ; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away farther south than has been yet discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philosophy.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER } These are greatly decayed
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } from their ancient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Pressburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, but were lately removed to Vienna. The crown was sent in the year 1000 by pope Sylvester II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 sapphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Besides these stones are the images of the apostles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a bishop carries it before the king. From the cross is derived the title of apostolic king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress queen Maria Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is the work of Gisele, spouse of St. Stephen, who embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs, and apostles, with a number of inscriptions. The sword is two edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as are Gran and Cormorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.


COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Austria.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the term of Queen, and even called their late sovereign king Theresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate: and the Gespan chafis resembles the English justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] See Austria.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari, and the Sclavi were planted in their stead in the beginning of the 9th century. At the close of it, the Avigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced christianity. In his reign, the form of government was established, and the crown to be elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded, with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution, its crown ought to be elective.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

WE have thrown those countries under one division, for several reasons, and particularly because we have no account sufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The best account of them follows: Transylvania, belongs to the house of Austria, and is bounded on the North, by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the East, by Moldavia and Walachia; on the South, by Walachia; and on the West, by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 185, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 square miles,  it is surrounded

on

on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of most of their privileges. Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. The other large places are Sagelwar, Millenback, and Nemark. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a large, strong, and well built city, as are Clausenburg and Weissenburg. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of their sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. It was over-run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring to the field, as has been asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regiments of 1500 men each; but it is well known, that during the last two wars, in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bishopric; and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman Catholic is the established church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Christianity there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Sclavonia, to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October, 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near 16,000 assembled and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been resented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Clausenburg; and afterwards offered to separate and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. Little is known of the termination of this revolt, further than the account of several of the leaders having been taken and executed, and the application of some lenient measures, by which tranquillity was restored.

Sclavonia lies between the 16th and 23d degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about

200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the East, by the Save on the South, and by Kiria in Austria on the West. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nation, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprising variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendants notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which, till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and valour; inasmuch that it is well known, that they preserved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *slave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Sclavonians are zealous Roman Catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two bishoprics; that of Pesege, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Eisek is a large and strong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vast number of other people, whose names were never known even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military muster rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two last wars. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and contains about 2,500 square miles. The manners, government, religion, language and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Sclavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The truth is, the house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Carlostadt is a place of some note, but Zagrab is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing

them

them occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Slavonia, and

Hungarian DALMATIA: This lies in the upper part of the Adriatic sea, and consists of five districts, in which the most remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and by art, and is situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. 2. *Ottoschatz*, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor, and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall, and some towers: But the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water: so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the *Uscocs*, a people, who being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of *Uscocs*, from the word *Scoco*, which signifies a *deserter*. They are also called *springers*, or *leapers*, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their visible employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship approach nearest to the Greek church; but some of them are Roman Catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs also to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal towns are Tregonitz, Bucharest, and Severin.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 700	between { 16 and 34 east longitude. 46 30 and 57 35 north latitude.
Breadth 680	

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the late extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed (anciently called Sarmatia) was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic sea; on the east by Muscovy; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the West by Germany: And had the form of its government been as perfect as its situation was compact, it might have been probably one of the most powerful kingdoms in the world. Its grand divisions are exhibited in the following Table.

T A B L E,

T A B L E.

Extent and Divisions.	Square Miles.	Population.	Populat. for ev. sq. mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
<p>46° 30'—57° 30' latitude, 16° ———— 34 east longitude.</p>	160,800	8,350,000 B. 8,500,000 medium 9,000,000 C.	53	230 Towns
A. Kingdom of POLAND ———	187,600			155 Towns
a. Great Poland, divided into 12 Districts called Woiwoodships				<p>Warsaw, 50,000 inhabitants (8,000 Districts B.) Poznań, 4,650 Fraustadt, 4,000 Gnesen, 563 houses B. Krakow, 18—20,000 with the suburbs B. Sandowiczy, 2,000 Lublin, 26,614 Chelm, 875 Korsak, 2,000 Kaminiek, 1,120 B.</p>
b. Little Poland, divided into 3 Counties				
1. Three Woiwoodships				
2. Polachia, properly Podlachia, divided into 3 Counties				
3. Chelm, the remaining part of Red Russia				
4. Podolia and Bratslaw				
5. Kow				
6. Volhynia				
B. Great Duchy of LITHUANIA	23,000			<p>Wilna, 20,925 Grodno, 2,300 Kowno, 2,250 Brazie, 1,700 Mins, 1,500 B.</p>
1. Lithuania, properly divided into two Woiwoodships				
2. White Russia, only 2 Woiwoodships remaining after the partition				
3. Black Russia, divided into 3 districts				
4. Polesia				
5. Duchy of Szamaita				

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA. 229

The following states are also generally considered as belonging to Poland, notwithstanding they are not its subjects.

1. The Republic of Danzig, 33 villages. The town contains about 50,000 inhabitants.
2. The Republic of Thorn, 42 villages, almost all under the sovereignty of Prussia. The town contains 20,000 inhabitants.
3. The Duchy of Courland and Semgallen.

	Square Miles.	Population.	Population for every square mile.	Towns.
1. Curlandia } 2. Semgallen }	4,112	300,000	73	Goldingen Liebau Mitau, the residence, has 11,000 inhabit.

There are in Poland	—	—	2,377 villages
Noblemen's estates	—	—	22,032
Abbeys	—	—	37
Convents of Monks	—	—	579
Nuns	—	—	86
Houses in general	—	—	1,674,328
Peasants	—	—	1,243,000
Jews	—	—	500,000

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is such as may be expected from so extensive but level a country. In the north parts it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlasting snow, which has been known to fall in the midst of summer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being so unsettled, either in winter or summer, as might be supposed from so northerly a situation, but the air is rather insalubrious by reason of the numerous woods and morasses.

SOIL, PRODUCE AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the soil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vast quantities that are sent from thence down the Vistula, to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The pastures of Poland, especially in Podolia, are rich beyond expression; and it is said one can hardly see the cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt and coals. Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, several species of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; false precious stones, and marine petrefactions. The inferior parts of Poland contain forests, which furnish timber in such great quantities, that it is employed in house building, instead of bricks, stone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine seldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthen ware.

The

The water of many springs is boiled into salt. The virtues of a spring, in the palatinate of Cracow, which increases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100 and some of them 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the subtlest spirit of wine. The flame however dances on the surface, without heating the water; and if neglected to be extinguished, which is easily effected, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are said to have lasted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguished.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Vistula or Weyfel, the Neister, Neiper or Boristhenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzesty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is said to dye those who wash in it of a swarthy complexion.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The forests of Warlowia or Masovia contain plenty of urf, or buffaloes, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Horses, wolves, bears, the glouton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horses and asses, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best furs in the country; but the elk which is common in Poland, as well as in some other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest feasts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that upon dissecting an elk, there was found in its head some large flies, with its brains almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that in the large woods, and wildernesses of the North, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger sort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling sickness, by which means it is taken, which would otherwise prove no easy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: It resembles a guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: They have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. Lithuania is rich in ornithology; among the birds of prey are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little species of titmouse, is frequently found in these parts, famous for the wondrous structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse with amazing art.

The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honest, and hospitable: And their women sprightly, yet modest, and

and submissive to their husbands. Their diversions are warlike and manly: vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse; hunting, skating, bull and bear baiting. They usually travel on horseback.

The Poles before the late revolution, were divided into nobles, clergy, citizens, and peasants: The peasants were divided into two sorts, those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] Poland has been considered as one of the weakest states in Europe, on account of the oppression of the tradespeople in the towns, and the slavery of the peasantry. The circulating specie is valued at only 13 millions and a half of German dollars; and interest is still as high as from 7 to 10 per cent. If the skill of the natives in agriculture bore any proportion to the fertility of the soil, Poland must needs be one of the richest countries in the world; for though a large part of it lies uncultivated, it exports no inconsiderable quantity of corn: The forests and mines of Poland, if duly attended to, and also its furs and cattle, might produce a very large sum. There are few manufactures in this kingdom excepting those at Grodnow. Want of industry and of freedom, have been the chief reasons that the balance of trade has been so much against Poland. The exports are corn, hemp, flax, horses, some of them wild horses, cattle, (about 100,000 oxen every year) peltry, timber, metals, manna, wax, honey, and some other less considerable articles. The value of them, in the year 1777, amounted to nearly 30 millions of dollars: The imports consisting chiefly in wine, cloth, silk, hardware, gold, silver, East and West-India goods, were supposed to amount to no less than 47 millions of dollars.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its soil is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who heretofore placed their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shown for learning; the servitude of the lower people, and the universal superstition among all ranks of men, these circumstances have greatly retarded the progress of letters in this kingdom.— However, of late, a taste for science hath spread itself among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Poland are those of Cracow, Wilna, and Posna or Posen. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendance of 14 grammar schools dispersed through the city, the number of students in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna was under the superintendance of the Jesuits, but since their suppression the king hath established a committee of education, who appoint professors and direct their salaries and studies: That of Posna was rather a Jesuit's college than an university.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] The frequent incursions of NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } the Tartars, and other barbarious nations, into Poland, probably forced the women sometimes to leave their children exposed in the woods, where we must suppose they were nursed by bears and other wild beasts, otherwise it is difficult to account for their subsistence. It is certain that such beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, divested of almost

most all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all-fours; but it is said that some of them have, by proper management, attained to the use of speech.

The salt mines of Poland consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salt; one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; these are all brackish; but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water, and on the other, one of fresh. The revenue arising from those, and other salt mines, is very considerable, and formed part of the royal revenue before seized by Austria; the annual average profit of those of Wieliczka, eight miles from Cracow was about 98,000l. sterling. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's use, and supply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deserts of Podolia are several grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, though buried a great number of years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they used to wear. It is thought that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. Poland can boast of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themselves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, silver, and enamelled vessels, presented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preserved in the cathedral of Gnesna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Warsaw lies on the Vis-
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } tula, and almost in the centre of Poland. It is the royal residence; and contains many magnificent places and other buildings, besides churches and convents. It contains about 50,000 inhabitants, some say more, among whom is a great number of foreigners. The streets are spacious but ill paved, and the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, as did every part of this [till the late happy revolution in favour of liberty] unhappy and oppressed country. It has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is disputed by Warsaw); for we are told, that notwithstanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt-mines, and is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable. The city stands in an extensive plain, watered by the Vistula, and with the suburbs occupies a vast space of ground, but all together contains no more than 18 or 20,000 souls. It is surrounded with high brick walls, strengthened with round and square towers in the ancient style of fortification, and is garrisoned with 600 Russians. Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, but a large and straggling place, containing ruined palaces, falling houses, and wretched hovels, with about 2,200 inhabitants, [Zimmermann.]— (Guthrie says 7,000.) A large proportion of these are employed in new manufactures of cloths, camblets, linen, cotton, silk, stuffs, &c. established there by the king in 1776. He hath also established in this place,

place, an academy of physic for Lithuania, in which 10 students are instructed for physic, and 20 for surgery, all taught and maintained at his own expense.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prussia, and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chefnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, although it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the president de Thou wrote his much esteemed *Historia sui Temporis*, wherein, under the year 1607, he so highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a small adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magistracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romanists and Calvinists are equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 parishes, with many convents and hospitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but later computations fall very considerably short of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Busching, who tells us, that in the year 1752, there died but 1846 persons. Its own shipping is numerous; but the foreign ships constantly resorting to it are more so, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year also 1288 Polish vessels came down the Vistula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchless grainaries; from whence that grain is distributed to many foreign nations: Poland being justly deemed the greatest magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the greatest port for distributing it every where: Besides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval stores, and a vast variety of other articles. Dr. Busching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconsiderable town, as some pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their masters, and have sometimes been under the protection of the English and Dutch; but generally have shewn a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being less likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though strongly fortified, and possessed of 150 large brass cannon, it could not, through its situation, stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants discovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Stanislaus, king of Poland, not only, when his enemies, the Prussians, were at their gates, but even in possession of the city.

The reason why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from those of the rest of Poland, is, because not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themselves under the protection of Poland, reserving to themselves large and ample privileges.

This city, as well as that of Thorn, were exempted by the king of Prussia from those claims which he lately made on the neighbouring countries; notwithstanding which, his Prussian majesty, soon after, thought

thought proper to seize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Polish Prussia. He then proceeded to possess himself of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a custom-house in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and insupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the system of oppression, custom-houses were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, so that no persons should go in or out of the town, without being searched in the strictest manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic has received from the king of Prussia, though few cities have ever existed, which have been comprehended in so many general and particular treaties, and whose rights and liberties have been so frequently secured, and guaranteed by so many great powers, and by such a long and regular succession of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences; by the interposition of the empress of Russia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at Warsaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September, by which, if acceded to by the citizens, the place and trade of the city are to be restored to its former stability. The city of Thorn was also treated by the king of Prussia in the same unjust and oppressive manner with that of Dantzic, and is now added to his dominions.

ARMY.] In the year 1784, the Army of Poland consisted of 17,404 men.

A. Army of the Crown, or of Poland.

General Staff	—	—	—	—	27
Cavalry	—	—	—	—	5,483
Infantry	—	—	—	—	7,762
					<hr/>
					13,272

B. Army of Lithuania.

General Staff	—	—	—	—	26
Cavalry	—	—	—	—	2,425
Infantry	—	—	—	—	1,681
					<hr/>
					4,132

According to an act of the senate, in 1776, the crown army ought to amount to 13,409, and that of Lithuania to 4770 men. The whole military establishment is subject to the regulations of the *conseil permanent*.

FINANCES.] The Revenue and Expenses on a medium of three years 1782—1784—are as follows.

Revenue	—	—	3,193,635	German dollars.
Expenses	—	—	2,825,458	
Private chatouille of the king, 1,333,000 florins.				

The debts of Poland run high; the whole amount is estimated at 130 million of florins, of which only 1,144,000 florins were acknowledged by the diet, and half a million of florins every year is appropriated to the payment of them.

RELIGION.] The established religion is the Roman Catholic; Protestants, to whom the name of Dissidents is now confined, are tolerated. In former times, the rights and numbers of the Protestants were

were so great, that they claimed equal authority with the Roman Catholics; and about 1573, both parties were called *dissidentes quoad religionem*. Yet afterwards, the Protestants suffered very great oppression till after the late civil wars; their rights were, at length, settled in 1778, by the interference of the neighbouring powers. Besides Calvinists and Lutherans, there are, in Poland, congregations of Greeks, Unitarians and Arians, all of whom are now comprehended under the name of Dissidents. In Poland, the power of the priests, and the authority of the Pope, was lately very great. The Pope's nuncio had a very extensive ecclesiastical jurisdiction. At the head of the Roman Catholic clergy is the primate of Poland, who is archbishop of Gnesen: He styles himself a prince: He had the first rank among the senators, and is *legatus natus* of the Holy See. There were (1787) in Poland, 12 bishopricks, 37 abbeys, 579 convents of men, and 86 of women.—The knights of Malta, residing in Poland, belong likewise to the clergy. The Lutheran church, is governed by a Presbytery, or consistory of the Antistes of the church and the ministers: There are great contests subsisting between the adherents of this church and the Catholics.—The Calvinists have one senior general and three seniors, to whom the government of their church is entrusted.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this subject. Before the last revolution, it differed little from an aristocracy; hence Poland hath been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king was the head of the republic, and was elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elected him on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority had no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres, but if the minority were sufficiently strong, a civil war ensued. Immediately after his election, he was to sign the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engaged to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; so that in fact he was no more than president of the senate, which was composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemberg, fifteen bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the Palatines, and Castellants.

The diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary: The former met once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter was summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one dissenting voice rendered all their deliberations ineffectual. But this form of government no longer exists in Poland. A glorious revolution has lately been effected without bloodshed, and almost without opposition, in favour of civil and religious liberty. Its commencement may be dated from the 14th of April 1791, a day which will hereafter be memorable in the annals of Poland. In the session of that day a law was unanimously passed by the diet relative to cities and their inhabitants, which restores them to their primitive rights, associates them with the legislative power, and will serve as a basis for still more extensive regulations, to reduce the different orders of citizens, to that relative equality, which constitutes the very soul of a solid and just constitution. Upon this occasion, the plan of M. Suchorzewskia, member from Kalisz, was adopted. The substance of the principles which have been decreed agreeable to this project, is, "To destroy the difference of orders and classes; to grant liberty to all citizens, without distinction; to restore Nobility

Nobility to its true origin, that is, to the prerogative of merit and virtue: But at the same time, to effect these different changes by degrees, and with such precautions as will procure the success of them." Poland may therefore date her restoration from that day; for, with such principles as these, uniformly followed up, she will become powerful from her external strength, and will be truly independent.

When the National Assembly of France reduced the Nobility to an equality with the citizens, the greater number of its members consisted of the *Tiers Etat*; but when Poland raised her citizens to that equality, the diet consisted of Nobility only. And yet there was no division within doors, nor commotion without. Eloquent and persuasive as the king is on all occasions, on this he seemed to out do himself. The subject touched his heart; he spoke with an uncommon degree of fire and enthusiasm, and his hearers caught the flame.

Count Malachowiky and Prince Sapieha, marshals of the diet, were particularly animated and happy in the arrangement and solidity of their arguments. Prince Adam Czartoryski Wawrzecki, and Niemcewicz, members for Livonia, also distinguished themselves in a remarkable manner: "None of us," said this last gentleman, speaking of the exclusion of all such as are not Nobles, from offices of trust and honours, "knows who were the ancestors, or what was the religion of WASHINGTON and FRANKLIN; but all of us know what important services these illustrious characters rendered to their country. Let not, therefore, the modesty of citizens prescribe limits to our generosity. Let us not ask, nor look into old papers to ascertain, what they have a right to demand; but let us grant them, out of our own free accord, all that the welfare of our own country requires that they should possess."

The new constitution for substance is as follows.

1. The Catholic Religion shall be the governing religion of the States, and the king shall profess it. But all other forms of worship shall be admitted, and a general toleration, civil and religious, shall be a fundamental law of the kingdom.

2. The ancient privileges and rights of the noblesse are approved and confirmed.

3. At the same time all the rights and privileges of the people asserted, renewed or granted to them during the present diet, are equally ratified and confirmed.

4. All strangers who arrive and settle in Poland, shall enjoy full and entire liberty.

5. The peasantry are taken under the protection of the laws and of government. They are relieved from all arbitrary impositions, and do not depend henceforth, in what regards their rights and labours, only on the contracts which they shall make with their seigniors. All foreign labourers are free to enter and settle in Poland, or to depart, fulfilling only the obligations of the contracts they may have made with the proprietors of the soil.

6. The government of Poland, shall be composed of three branches, or distinct parts; the legislative power, the executive power, and the judicial power.

7. The legislative power belongs exclusively to the states assembled in the diet, and composed of the two connected chambers, viz. the senate and the chamber of Nuncios.

8. The

8. The king shall exercise the executive power with his council. This council shall be composed of the primate and five ministers, who shall each have a department. No order of the king can be put in execution unless it is signed by the ministers, whose lives and fortunes shall be responsible to each diet for the orders they shall sign. As soon as two thirds of the diet shall demand the change of ministers, the king shall be bound to dismiss them, and to name others in their place.

9. The election of king shall never fall hereafter on an individual. A whole family shall be elected when the royal family shall be extinct.

10. In case of the minority of the king, his tutelage and the regency, shall be in the hands of the queen mother and the council, responsible to the diet.

11. The education of the King's children is confided in like manner.

12. The judicial power shall be fixed for each palatinate, territory, and district. The judges shall be elected at the dietines.

The following articles were afterwards added to the new constitution, and have received the unanimous sanction of the diet.

“No government, though it were the most perfect that can be imagined, can subsist unless the executive power be enabled to act with the fullest energy.

Just and equitable laws are the foundation of national happiness. All the good effects to be expected from them, must depend on their having been vigorously executed.

Experience has taught us, that to a want of this executive energy, Poland owes all its misfortunes.

For those reasons, after having insured liberty to the Polish nation, and having made it independent; after having secured to it the right of making laws, and of watching over the executive authority, and also of choosing all public magistrates; we entrust the king, and his council, with the supreme execution of the laws.

The executive power shall be under a strict obligation to superintend the execution of the laws, and exemplarily to conform to them. It shall act in all cases permitted by the law: In all such cases which require a superintendance, execution, and even a coercive force. All magistrates are bound to obey it implicitly; and by it they are liable to be punished for neglect of duty or disobedience.

The executive power shall neither make laws nor explain them. It shall not impose taxes, or lay contributions. It shall not contract debts, nor make the least alteration in the collection of the revenue, and finally, it shall neither declare war, nor make peace; nor make any treaties with other powers. It shall only be enabled to have a temporary correspondence with foreign courts, so far as the safety and tranquillity of the state may require; and for this it shall be accountable to the following legislature.”

The king declared that the constitution had been formed out of the *English* and *American* forms of government.

REMARKABLE EVENTS.] During the years 1769, 1770, and 1771; confusion, devastation, and civil war, raged in Poland, by which the whole face of the country was almost destroyed; many of the principal

pal Polish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops which acted as guards to the king at Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre. To these complicated evils, were added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey, to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhina, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces it is said to have swept off 150,000 of the people. Meanwhile, some of the Polish confederates interceded with the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks on account of Poland. But it has been observed, that the conduct of the Grand Signior and of the Ottoman Porte towards the distressed Poles, were strictly just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, Catholic, and Apostolic neighbours.

In 1764, the empress of Russia transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire, wherein she declares, "That she did by no means arrogate either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories, which were actually in possession, or subject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one who should at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same." In the same year did the king of Prussia sign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, that he had no claims, formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof: That he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the same instrument he guarantees, in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever. The empress-queen of Hungary, so late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable: That the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him: That she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it." From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a state, means to annihilate those liberties, seize upon those rights, and appropriate those revenues to their own use. Such is the faith of princes, the instability of human politics, and of human affairs.

On September 3d, 1771, an attempt was made by Kozinski, an officer among the Polish confederates, and several others, to assassinate the king of Poland, in the streets of Warsaw. His majesty received two wounds on his head, one from a ball, and the other from a sabre; notwithstanding which he had the good fortune to escape with life, by Kozinski's relenting, for which his own life was saved, and he now resides in the papal territories, with an annual pension from

the king. Pulaski, another of the conspirators, distinguished himself in the American service, and was killed in attacking the British lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and the empress of Russia, had entered into an alliance to divide and dismember the kingdom of Poland: though Prussia was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, and the title of king of Prussia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Russia in the beginning of the 17th century saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles, while Austria in 1683 was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. The three allied powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other: Polish, or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress queen of Hungary and Bohemia;* and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empress of Russia.†. But though each of the powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them respectively, and published manifestos in justification of the measures which they had taken, yet as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, choosing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiscated, than be the instruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king of Poland was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

As to the king of Prussia, his conduct in Poland was the most tyrannical and oppressive that can be conceived. It was in the year 1772 that his troops entered into Great Poland, and during the space of that year he carried off from that province, and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, an edict was published by his Prussian majesty, commanding every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporal punishment, to take in payment for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c.

* The district claimed by Austria, was "all that tract of land lying on the right side of the Vistula, from Silesia above Sandomir to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Frangepole, Zamoise, and Rubieslow, to the Bog; from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Russia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a straight line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrutz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries separating Podolia from Moldavia. This country is now incorporated with Austria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomiria.

† The Russian claims comprise Polish Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polotsk to the east of Duna—the palatinates of Viteplk, Micislaw and two portions of the palatinate of Minsk. This tract of land (Polish Livonia excepted) is situated in White Russia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the governments of Polotsk and Mohilef.

&c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver bearing the impresson of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland.— With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation he gained, by this most wicked manœuvre, seven millions of dollars. Having stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions, at the expense of Poland, had been his great aim; for this purpose he hit upon a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities so much, that their priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces usurped. From these proceedings it would appear that his Prussian majesty knew no rights but his own; no pretensions but those of Brandenburg; no other rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent dismemberment and partition of Poland * has justly been considered as the first great breach in the modern political system of Europe. The surprize of a town, the invasion of an insignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would some years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the destruction of a great kingdom, with the consequent derangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the most astonishing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonstrated against the usurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to submit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the senate there was a majority of six, but in the lower house, the assembly of nuncios, there was but one vote in favour of the measure, 54 against 53. This is a very alarming circumstance, and shews that a most important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general system of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for some ages an object of unremitting attention with most of the states of Europe. Former kings might, perhaps, on some occasions, discover rather more anxiety about preserving the balance of power in Europe than was necessary:

* The kingdom of Poland, previous to its dismemberment, contained 14,000,000 inhabitants: At present they are supposed not to contain 9,000,000; and of this difference the Austrians have acquired 2,500,000 souls, by their surreptitious part of the provinces, though those now possessed by Russia are the most extensive in territory.

necessary : but it has been well remarked, that the idea of considering Europe as a vast commonwealth, of the several parts being distinct and separate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing any one, by any means, from becoming too powerful for the rest, was great and liberal, and, though the result of barbarism, was founded upon the most enlarged principles of the wisest policy.

Stanislaus Augustus, the present king of Poland, whose memory is endeared to all lovers of liberty, by the late memorable Revolution, was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, resided some time in London, and is a fellow of the Royal Society. Long may he live!

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 260 } between { 6 and 11 east longitude.
Breadth 100 } { 46 and 48 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by Alsace and Suabia, in Germany, on the North; by the lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent, on the East; by Italy, on the South; and by France, on the West.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which stand in point of precedency as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitz; 6. Underwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Basil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhausen; 13. Appenzel.

The best account we have of the dimensions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows:

Countries Names.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Switzerland.					
Calvinists.	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich
	Schaffhausen	140	23	9	Schaffhausen
	Basil	240	21	18	BASIL { 47-40 N. lat. 7-40 E. lon.
Catholics.	Lucerne	460	33	35	Lucerne
	Underwalden	270	23	16	Stantz
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf
	Suisse	250	27	13	Suisse
Calvinists and Catholics.	Fribourg	370	24	21	Fribourg
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug
	Soleure	258	31	24	Soleure, or Solothum
Calvinists and Catholics.	Appenzel	270	23	21	Appenzel
	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris
The subjects of the Swiss, Calvinists and Catholics.	Baden	216	26	12	Baden
	Bremgarten				Bremgarten
	Mellingen	40	20	5	Mellingen
	Rheinthal				Rheineck
	Thurgau				Frowanfield
	Lugano	850	52	30	Lugano
Locarno	Locarno				
Mendris	Mendris				
Magia	Magia				
Swiss Allies, Calvinists	Grifons	2,270	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Grifons, Calvinists & Cath.	Chiavanna	472	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio & Valteline				Sondrio
Calvinists.	Töckenburg	168	27	8	Liechtensteg
	Geneva	160	13	11	Geneva
	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
Catholics.	Valais	1,287	80	30	Sion
	Basle	270	13	16	Delfperg
	St. Gall	144	20	10	St. Gall
Total		12,884			Mulhausen, in Alface is also united to them.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE } This being a mountainous
 OF THE COUNTRY. } country, lying upon the Alps,
 (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles) the frosts are
 consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow some-
 times all the year. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the
 same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those moun-
 tains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on an-
 other. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well culti-
 vated, and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in
 this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which
 reason

reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts of it, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep, that a horse could not even ascend them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate had thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, cornfields, meadows, and pasture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The vallies, between these icy and snowy mountains, appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness, to high cultivation; in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures, which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow. In short, Switzerland abounds with the most picturesque scenes; and here are to be found some of the most sublime exhibitions of nature, in her most awful and tremendous forms.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which rises in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard, the Aar, the Reufs, the Tesin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel, and Briën.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces sheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish, and fowl, are also found, in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois; whose activity in scouring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are very subject to pleuritis, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hares,

which in summer is said perfectly to resemble other hares, but in winter becomes all over white, so that they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two species ever couple together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the vallies.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the best accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even amongst many of the lowell rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is very conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions. Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loses above six florins, which is about nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. Their diversions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting both with the cross-bow and musket.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Those differences in religion formerly created many republican commotions, which seem now to have subsided.—Zuinglius was the apostle of protestantism in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism is said to be the religion of the protestant Swisses. But this must be understood chiefly with respect

spect to the mode of church government; for in some doctrinal points they are far from being universally Calvinistical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the interests of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are, in general, much less liberal.

• LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swisses who border upon France speak a bassard French; as those near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent; but derisical J. J. Rousseau too, whose works the present age have received with so much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin du Village* in particular is much esteemed. M. Bonnet, and Mess. de Saussure, De Luc, De Lolme, the Marquis Beccaria and Lavater, also deserve to be mentioned with applause, and will be remembered till the Alps shall be no more.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic garden, which contains the choicest exotics; and adjoining to the library, which contains some valuable manuscripts, is a Museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and with a great number of medals or paintings. In the cabinets of Erasimus and Amerbach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing the death of our blessed Saviour, a thousand ducats have been offered. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only styled colleges, are those of Bern, Lausanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Every district of a canton presents the traveller with a natural curiosity, sometimes in the shape of wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, especially one, two leagues from Friburg.— This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1709. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock. At the famous pass of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a solid rock, near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch 26, and its breadth 25. The marcasites, false diamonds, and other stones, found in those mountains, are justly ranked among the natural curiosities of the country. The ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Lemane, are still discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of jesuits, and many cabinets

of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. Near *Rosiniere*, is a famous spring which rises in the midst of a natural basin of 12 square feet: The force that acts upon it must be prodigious; after a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies; its surface is clear as crystal, and its depth unfathomable; probably the end of some subterraneous lake, that hath here found an issue for its waters.

CITIES.] Of these the most considerable is the city of *Bern*, standing on the river *Aar*. This city and canton, it is said, forms almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. *Basil* is accounted by some the capital of all Switzerland. It is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the *Rhine*, and the confines of *Alsace* and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market-places. The town-house, which stands on the river *Birsac*, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated *Hans Holbein*, who was a native of this city. The situation of *Basil* is pleasing: The *Rhine* divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. *Baden* is famous for its antiquity and baths. *Zurich* is far less considerable than *Bern*, but in the arsenal is shewn the bow of the famous *William Tell*, and in the library is a manuscript of excellent letters, written by the unfortunate *Lady Jane Grey*, to the judicious reformer *Bullinger*, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I shall here mention the city of *Geneva*, which is an associate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself is an independent state, and republic. The city is well built, and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situated upon the afflux of the *Rhone* from the large fine lake of *Geneva*. It is celebrated for the learning of the professors of its university, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeness of its inhabitants. By its situation, it is a thoroughfare from *Germany*, *France*, and *Italy*. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artists; so that the protestants, especially such as are of a liberal turn, esteem it a most delightful place. But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the usurpation of the Senate, hath divided the citizens into parties, and the late struggle of *Patricians* and *Plebeians* had nearly ruined all. The city is now under the protection of *France*, or rather its magistrates and council, the partizans of aristocracy; many of its valuable citizens have accordingly left the place, and sought refuge and protection in *Ireland* and other parts.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, silk and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make considerable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated heads, though belonging to the same body, being partly aristocratical, and

and partly democratical. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction, but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Bern excepted. Those of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even those aristocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real interests of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented, on the basis of affection, a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first are the Swisses, properly so called. The second are the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Swisses, for their common protection. The third are those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. It is observed by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people; for whether the government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to ensure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swiss, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise account of their revenues. Those of the canton of Bern are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expenses of government, is laid up as a common stock; and it has been said, that the Swisses are possessed of 500,000l. sterling in the English funds, besides these in other banks.

The

The revenues arise, 1. From the profits of the demesne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Customs and duties on merchandize; 4. The revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wisdom with which this force is raised and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign states and princes are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, is obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms; to appear on the stated days for shooting at a mark; to furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter case, the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no subject is to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

HISTORY.] The present Swisses and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous, uninviting situation, formed a better security for their liberties, than their forts or armies; and the same is the case at present. They continued long under little better than a nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governors. This served only to double the hardships of the people; and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Gessler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. One William Tell, being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gessler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended for his [Gessler's] heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was condemned to prison upon this; but making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swiss from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suisse, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights.

rights. Berne united itself in 1358; Friburg and Solcure, 130 years after; Basil and Scaffhausen, in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513, completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Nzufchatel, since the year 1787, hath been under the dominion of the king of Prussia, but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swisses, we refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

N E T H E R L A N D S.

THE seventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their situation in respect of Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Length 360 } between { 49 and 54 North lat.
 Breadth 260 } { 2 and 7 East Lon.

They are bounded by the German sea on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorrain and France, South; and by the British channel, West.

We shall, for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions: First, the *Northern*, which contains the seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of *HOLLAND*: Secondly, the *Southern*, containing the Austrian, and French Netherlands.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION, &c. of the Seven United Provinces, are as in the following Table.

TABLE.

T A B L E.

Extent, Divisions, and Possessions.	Areas in (sq. miles.	Population.	Population for each single sq. mile.	CHIEF TOWNS.
51° 20'—53° 30' Latitude 2° ————7° East Longitude	10,000	2,000,000 Peftel. 2,758,632 according to a public acc. given in 1785.	200 272	113 Towns—1400 Villages.
1. Province of GELDER. Subdivided into the districts of Nimwegen, Zutphen, and Arnhem	1840			20 Towns in all. inhabitants. Nimwegen ——— 12,000 Zutphen ——— ——— Arnhem ——— ——— 8000
2. HOLLAND, viz. North Holland South Holland Westfriesland	2000	980,000 Peftel.	490	Amsterdam ——— 212,000 Rotterdam ——— 60,000 Haag or Hague ——— 37,000 Leyden ——— 48,000 Dordrecht ——— 19,000 Haarlem ——— 39,000 Delft ——— 20,000 Alkmaar ——— 7,800 Horn ——— 12,000 Gouda ——— 17,000
3. ZEELAND. 1. Part near the East Scheld 2. Part near the West ———	480	85,000	177	37 Towns—400 Villages. 5 Towns—110 Villages. Utrecht ——— ——— Amersfort ——— 80,000

Extent

Extent, Divisions, and Possessions.	Areas in sq. miles	Population.	Population for each sq. mile.	CHIEF TOWNS.
4. UTRECHT. 1. The towns 2. The flat country	512	75,000 Buisching	144	Towns. Inhabitants. Middleburg — 24,000 Vlissingen (Flushing) — 3,000 Zinksee — 10,500
5. FRIESLAND. 1. The towns 2. Oostfriesland 3. Wiergero 4. Zeven Wonden	380	140,000 Buisching	159	11 Towns—306 Villages. Lenwarden Franecker
6. OVERYSSEL. 1. Sallard 2. Twent 3. Vollenhoven	179 ²			Deventer Zwool
7. GROENINGEN. 1. Town of Groeningen 2. Ommeland	640	100,000	156	Groeningen Delfzyl 3 Towns—165 Villages Koeronden (Fortreis) 37 Villages
Country of Drenthe, Under the protection of the United Provinces				
Lands of the Generality. (Generality's Landen) commonly call- ed Dutch Brabant	2000	435,000	217	Boile Duc — 12,000 Breda — 9,500 Bergen op Zoom — 6,500 Mastricht — 18,060 Venloo Sluis Stuif — 2,500

POSSESSIONS.

I. IN ASIA.

1. THE coasts of the island of Java ; the capital of which is Batavia, the seat of the governor-general of all the East Indian settlements of the Dutch. 2. Some settlements on the coasts of Sumatra. 3. The greatest part of the Molucca or Spice Islands, chiefly Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, Tidor, Motyr, Bachian ; settlements or factories on the island of Celebes, &c. 4. On the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel ; Sedrapatam, Bimlipatam, Tegapatam, Cochin, and Canannore ; factories at Surat, Petra, &c. also in the gulf of Persia, at Gamron, Bassora, &c. 5. On the island of Ceylon : The chief place is Colombo ; they have besides Trincomale, Jasnapatam, Negambo, and a great number of lodges or factories.

2. IN AFRICA.

1. The Cape of Good Hope, a large settlement, of which the Capetown, with its fortress, is the capital. There is also a French colony at the Cape, called Nouvelle Rochelle. The governor of the Cape does not depend on the governor of Batavia, but is under the immediate control of the states of Holland. 2. George de la Mina, and other fortresses and factories in Guinea.

3. IN AMERICA.

1. The islands of St. Eustatia, Saba, Curacoa. 2. The colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, Surinam, and Berbice, on the continent of Guiana.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces ; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe ; the Maese, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many small rivers that join these, and a prodigious number of canals ; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces ; the best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing ; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] The Seven United Provinces afford a striking proof, that unwearied and persevering industry is capable of conquering every disadvantage of climate and situation. The air and the water are here nearly equally bad : The soil produces naturally scarcely any thing but turf ; and the possession of this very soil is disputed by the Ocean, who rising considerably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by strong and expensive dykes, from overflowing a spot which seems to be stolen from his natural domains. Notwithstanding these difficulties, which might seem insurmountable to a less laborious race of inhabitants, the infinite labours of the patient Dutchmen have rendered this small, and seemingly insignificant territory, in fact, one of the richest spots in Europe, both with respect to population and property. In other countries, which are

are possessed of a variety of natural productions, we are not surpris'd to find manufactures employ'd in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the soil bestows. But to see, in a country like Holland, large woollen manufactures, where there are scarce any flocks; numberless artists employ'd in metals, where there is no mine; thousands of saw-mills, where there is scarce any forest; an immense quantity of corn, export'd from a country where there is not agriculture enough to support one-half of its inhabitants, is what must strike every attentive observer with admiration. Among the most valuable natural productions of the United Netherlands, we may reckon their excellent cattle. Of vegetables they export large quantities of madder, which is chiefly cultivat'd in the province of Zeeland: The island of Schouwen produces annually 2,000,000 lb. Formerly, England bought of this article to the value of almost 300,000*l.* sterling. The most considerable revenue arises from the fisheries. Sir William Temple says, that in his time, the Dutch fisheries yielded a clear profit of many millions of florins. At present, however, some branches of the fisheries, for instance, the whale fishery, are become so insignificant, that, in order to keep them up in some degree, the states are oblig'd to allow a bounty of 30 florins for every man employ'd in the whale fishery. This branch, which formerly employ'd 250 vessels, requires, at present little more than 100. The number of ships formerly engag'd in the herring fishery is reduc'd from upwards of 2000 to less than 200, and the profits earn'd by them do not quite amount to one million of florins. This fishery maintains, however, even now, no less than 20,000 people. Cod, another important article of the fishery, is caught near the Dogger Bank, and near the coast of Holland. About 140 vessels are employ'd in that branch.

The Dutch were formerly in possession of the coasting trade and freight of almost all other trading nations: They were also the bankers for all Europe: advantages by which they have gain'd immense sums. Yet these advantages did not continue to be so lucrative, when the other European nations began to open their eyes so far as to employ their own shipping in their trade, and to establish banks of their own. Notwithstanding these deductions, the Dutch trade is still immense: In consequence of their vast wealth, they regulate still the exchange for all Europe; and their country is, as it were, the universal warehouse of the commodities of every quarter of the globe.

The trade of Holland extends to every country of the world; and, in some of its branches, they have totally excluded their European competitors. To begin with the countries of Europe, the trade of the Dutch to Russia is considerable: They export'd to Peterburg alone, in 1754, goods to the value of 420,000 rubles, besides what was sent to Archangel, Riga, &c. They import'd goods from Russia to the value of about 300,000 rubles. The exports of the Dutch to Dantzick, the centre of the Polish trade, amount'd, in 1771, to upwards of five millions of florins; their imports from Dantzick to 2,500,000 florins. A considerable trade is carried on with Sweden and Denmark. The Dutch trade in the Baltic, if not equal to the English, is, at least, next to it in importance; yet, in proportion as the other European nations are endeavouring to share in the profits of the trade to the Baltic sea, the profits of the Dutch have naturally decreas'd. In the Atlantic Ocean,

Ocean, the Dutch trade is of very great extent: From Portugal and Spain they draw ready money, but to France, on the contrary, they pay a large balance of it. They supply Italy with most European and Indian goods; their trade to the Levant, though at present on the decline, is still very profitable. A particular board of the Levant trade was erected in 1624. The good fortune of the Dutch, in rendering themselves the exclusive masters of the spice-trade, and of very large territories in the East-Indies, will enable them to support for a long while, a very extensive trade in Europe. Their East-India Company was erected in the year 1602, by uniting several small trading societies into one, to whom the states granted the privilege of an exclusive trade. The original capital did not exceed 6,459,840 florins, divided into shares of 3000 florins each: with this small sum they formed settlements, and conquered several provinces in Asia, much larger than the Seven United Provinces together. The Company is now divided into six chambers of proprietors, established at Amsterdam, Middleburg, Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn, and Enkhuizen, each of which is under the management of their own directors, called *Bewindhebbers*. The Stadtholder is the first of the directors of each chamber, and consequently the head of the East-India Company. The governor-general of the Dutch possessions in the East-Indies, is appointed by the Company, and residing at Batavia, is invested with very ample powers: He is president of the council of Batavia, called the Court or Council of India. Among the monopolies of the East-India Company, the spice-trade, comprehending the articles of cloves, mace, nutmeg, cinnamon, &c. is the most valuable, and forms a very great branch of the Asiatic as well as European commerce of Holland: 750,000 lb. of cloves are annually sold in India, and 360,000 carried to Europe: The Company pays on the spot only eight stivers per pound, but the freight and other charges raise this price to 43 stivers, and the Company sells it at no less than 75 stivers. 250,000 lb. of nutmeg, the produce of the island of Banda, are sold in Europe, and 100,000 lb. in India: The prime cost is somewhat more than one stiver per pound; including charges, the pound stands the Company in about 25 stivers, and is sold by the Company at upwards of 50 stivers west of the Cape of Good Hope, and at about 40 stivers east of it. Of cinnamon, 200,000 lb. are sold in India, and 400,000 in Europe. The Java coffee is the best we know of after that of Mecca in Arabia. Other great branches of this trade are rice, cotton, pepper, &c. articles of great importance, but not in the exclusive possession of the Dutch. The whole profits of the trade of the East-India Company is computed at 12,700,000 florins annually; but this statement seems to fall short of the real produce: Yet, upon the whole, the affairs of the East-India Company are very much on the decline. The Dutch have hitherto been the only European nation permitted to carry on a direct trade to Japan: The profits of this trade, however, have also declined, and are supposed to amount, at present, to no more than 20,000 florins. The West-India Company is, by no means, so considerable as the East-India Company. It carries on a trade both to the West-Indies and to the Coast of Guinea; on the latter chiefly for slaves. Distinct from this company are the two companies which trade to Surinam and Berbice: The Stadtholder is the head of all these trading companies.

The

The town of Amsterdam has more than one-half of the trade of Holland ; and in this celebrated center of immense commerce, a bank is established of that species called a Giro-bank, of very great wealth and greater credit.

In Holland, the inland trade is very much facilitated by means of the numerous canals, which cross the country in every direction.— The number of manufactures established in the United Provinces is astonishing. Saardam, for instance, a village in North Holland, contains about 900 windmills, partly corn-mills, partly saw and paper-mills, and mills for the making of white lead, &c. In former times, the Dutch were the exclusive possessors of several ingenious manufactures and arts ; for instance, the refining of camphor and borax, the cutting and polishing of diamonds, the refining of sugar, &c. but at present these mysteries, very few of them excepted, are in the hands of many other nations, to whose commercial ignorance and want of industry in former times, the Dutch were indebted for immense gains, which have decreased with their causes : Among the rest, the woollen manufactory has suffered a prodigious decrease. From these facts it appears, that the Dutch trade is no longer in its ancient flourishing state, to which, even if the frugality and industry of the nation had not been diminished by too great wealth, the rivallship of other nations, and the commercial knowledge of the age, will never suffer it to rise again.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } The Seven United Provin-
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS, } ces are perhaps the best peo-
pled of any spot of the same extent in the world. This will appear
from the table which is prefixed.

The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour ; and the artificial drains with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious arts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea, by their herring-fisheries ; for they dispose of most of their valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind.

Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes ; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, it is said no people are so unfociable.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people ; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will ; nor does it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expences should equal the revenue ; and when this happens, they think at least they have lived that year to know purpose ; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal
among

among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants, whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, such as no other country does experience, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works, of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while at the same time they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance, by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled, though labouring under the difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II, of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of English and French dressing and living; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking-boothes, skittle and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupt dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand at the head almost of learning itself, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled *Speculum Salvationis*; printed by Koster in 1440; and the

the most elegant editions of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burman stand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the classics.

The scientific and literary state of Holland seems to be involved in the decline of its political consequence. Its universities were formerly much more attractive and frequented, but their improvements have not kept pace with the progress and the wants of the age. They are five in number, at Leyden, Francker, Utrecht, Groningen, and Harderwyck; and some of their regulations are deserving of much praise. Besides the universities, there are several good schools in the United Provinces, among which the Academical Gymnasium, or Athenæum of Amsterdam, is entitled to particular notice. Many respectable scientific societies are established in Holland, and one at Batavia. The public libraries of the universities were more celebrated while scarce books and manuscripts were held in more general estimation, but in utility and extent, they are not to be compared with the great libraries in other countries. Yet numerous private libraries supply their deficiencies, and facilitate the researches of the studious. Public and private collections of natural curiosities, antiquities, paintings, &c. are very numerous in a country where the habit of collecting has been rendered general by the spirit of commerce.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The prodigious dykes, some
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL, } of which are said to be 17 ells
in thickness; mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are stupendous and hardly to be equalled. — A stone quarry near Maastricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. The stadhous of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: It stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden; such as the effigies of a peasant of Russia, who swallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is said to have lived eight years after it was cut out of his stomach; but the truth of this seems to be doubtful. A shirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muscles and tendons of the human body, curiously set up, by professor Stalpert Vander-Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDI- } Amsterdam, which is built
FICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE, } upon piles of wood, is thought to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees
R
planted

planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages; bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants. It is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workshop where Peter the Great of Muscovy, in person, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured, as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city Gelder.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND } The usual way of passing
MANNER OF TRAVELLING. } from town to town is by covered boats, called treckscuits, which are dragged along the canals by horses, on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals, an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed, at a small expence, into various parts of Germany, and the Austrian and French Netherlands. A treckscuit is divided into two different apartments, called the *roof* and the *ruim*; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, smoke, eat, drink, or converse with people of various nations, dresses, and languages. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant, neat, country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure grounds intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather spend much of their time in these little temples, smoking, reading or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

GOVERNMENT.] Since the great confederation of Utrecht, made in the year 1579, the Seven United Provinces must be looked upon as one political body, united for the preservation of the whole, of which each single province is governed by its own laws, and exercises most of the rights of a sovereign state. In consequence of the union, the Seven Provinces guarantee each other's rights, they make war and peace, they levy taxes, &c. in their joint capacity; but as to internal government, each province is independent of the other provinces, and of the supreme power of the republic. The Seven Provinces rank in the same order in which they are placed in the preceding table. They send deputies, chosen out of the provincial states, to the general-assembly;

bly, called the *States-General*, which is invested with the supreme legislative power of the confederation. Each province has the right to send as many deputies as it pleases, but it has only one voice in the assembly of the States. According to the latest regulations, that assembly is composed of 58 deputies. In affairs of great consequence, such as declaring war and making peace, a secret committee is chosen out of these deputies, called the *Secrète Besoigne*, in which the province of Holland has two voices.

At the head of this republican government there has usually been, and is at present, the Prince Stadtholder or governor, who exercises a very considerable part of the executive power of the state. It appears from history, that the United Provinces were, at different times, without a Stadtholder; but these periods were usually very turbulent; and whenever a war broke out, the republic was always under the necessity of choosing again a Stadtholder. It should seem, therefore, that the dignity and the power of a Stadtholder, is essential and salutary to the constitution of the United Provinces. There have, however, constantly been, and there are now, two opposite parties in the state, one of which, who call themselves the patriots, are averse, and the other are attached to the power of the Stadtholder. This dignity, though hereditary, and of the greatest weight in the state, cannot be considered otherwise than the first office entrusted to a subject of the republic, and falls considerably short of the most limited sovereignty. The Stadtholder is not entitled to a voice in the supreme legislative assembly, but he may be present at their meetings. He is captain-general and high-admiral of the land and naval forces of the republic; and he enjoyed, before the late troubles, a very ample patronage in consequence of this military command. He is president of the East and West-India Companies, and Stadtholder of each single province, but with unequal prerogatives. In some of the provinces he has the exclusive right of nominating the magistrates of the towns, and the power of pardoning criminals; in some he has a share in the legislative power, and a voice in the assembly of the states of the province; in others he has either not all or none of these rights. The party of the patriots have, within these few years, been much intent on curtailing and restraining within narrow limits the power of the Stadtholder. Another great dignity in the republic, the influence of which is usually opposed to the Stadtholder's interest, is the place of Grand Pensionary, formerly called the advocate of the republic. The Grand Pensionary is, by virtue of his place, perpetual member of the highest legislative assemblies, the states-general and the secret committee.

The departments which are employed in such public affairs as concern all the Seven Provinces are the following: 1. The Council of State, composed of twelve members, chosen by the Seven Provinces, under the presidency of the Stadtholder. It has its treasurer and secretary, and is next in rank to the States-General. 2. The Department of the Revenue, consisting of fourteen members. 3. The Army and Navy Treasury: This department has the revision of the accounts of the military expenditure, and is composed of four members. Each province is governed by the assembly of its respective states. These states are, in almost all the provinces, composed of the nobility, or great landholders, and of the towns. In the assembly of the states of the province

ince of Holland, the Great Pensionary presides : The towns are governed by their own elective magistrates, whose jurisdiction is confined within the walls of the towns : Certain districts in the provinces have their courts of justice, and each province has a general court, to which appeal lies from the inferior courts and the town magistrates. These tribunals are called by the name of the provinces in which they are established, *de Hof van Holland, de Hof van Geldren, &c.* each of them makes use of a particular code of laws, adapted to the ancient customs and rights of the provinces ; where these laws are deficient, recourse must be had to the Roman law.

FINANCES.] The public revenue is to be considered in two different points of view, as it is raised for the use of the whole confederation, or for the expenditure of each single province. According to the latest account, which is believed to be authentic, the annual income of all the Seven Provinces amounts to upwards of forty-five millions of florins, or nearly 4,500,000l. sterling. The revenue of the province of Holland, which is by far the richest, and the most powerful of the Seven, is computed at upwards of twenty millions of florins. Thirteen millions and a half of this sum, making the ordinary redinary revenue of Holland, arise from the house and land-tax, and from the excise and stamp-duties ; the remainder, or the extraordinary revenue of this province, is made up by contributions of the hundredth, two hundredth and four hundredth parts of the income of lands, annuities and capitals. The general finances of the republic, for the support of the whole political body, arise, 1. From the revenues of Dutch Brabant, or the lands of the generality : 2. From the duties on exports and imports : 3. From confiscated goods, and the sums paid by the privileged trading companies : 4. From the yearly contributions of the different provinces according to the following rates : Of every 100 florins contributed,

	Flor.	Stivers.	Doits.
The Province of Guelder pays	5	21	2
----- Holland	57	24	8
----- Zeeland	9	2	10
----- Utrecht	5	15	5
----- Friesland	11	10	11
----- Overijssel	9	10	8
----- Groeningen	5	15	6
----- County of Drenthe	0	19	10
	100	0	0

The debts of the republic exceed 2000 millions of florins. The province of Holland alone owed, in 1768, 450 millions, but almost the whole of this sum to its own subjects ; but, on the other side, has lent, on very advantageous conditions, large sums of money to other states. In the year 1781, there were due the following sums :

1. From England,	165	million of florins
1. ——— France,	170	
3. ——— Germany, Denmark, Sweden and Russia	250	
	585	

The United Provinces draw more than 25 millions per annum from these countries as the interest on the large capitals lent them.

ARMY.] In time of peace, the standing army is as follows :

CAVALRY.

Regiments—Escadrons.	Men.
1. Guard of the Stadtholder	174
3. Dutch Guards	258
6. Cavalry (336 men each)	2016
3. Dragoons	1008
	<hr/>
	3456

INFANTRY.

2 Regiments of Dutch Guards	1,116
1 of Swiss Guards	1,120
29 of national and Germ. troops (714 men each)	20,880
1 of Walloons	1,080
3 of Scotchmen	2,160
5 of Swiss	3,600
1 of Marines	720
1 of Artillery	1,800
4 companies of Miners	208
Corps of Engineers	97
	<hr/>
	36,281

Some of the guards, and the three Scotch regiments, are at present disbanded. In the year 1784, when Holland was threatened with a war by the Emperor, the army was increased to upwards of 50,000 men. Besides the Stadtholder, who is the head of the Army, in times of war and danger, a field marshal general is appointed.

NAVY.] The Navy of Holland, in 1782, consisted of 48 ships of the line—43 frigates, and 10 cutters—

RATES.] 8 ships of 70—74 guns.

22 ——— 64

12 ——— 50—56

14 ——— 40—44

13 ——— 36

16 ——— 20—24

Hist. Port. 1783.

(In 1784) 43 ships of the line,

43 frigates.

The five chambers of the admiralty have the management of all naval affairs. The Stadtholder, in the capacity of high-admiral of the republic, presides in the five chambers of admiralty. He formerly appointed the flag officers, but this privilege has been of late disputed by the States-general. He has a tenth share of all the prizes made during a war. The fleet, which is divided into three squadrons, is distributed between the harbours of Amsterdam, called the Texel, and that of Rotterdam, in the province of Holland, and the sea-port towns of Zealand.

RELIGION.] The Calvinist, or reformed religion, is established in Holland; the Lutheran, the Roman Catholic, many other Christian sects, and the Jews, are tolerated. The Synod of Dordrecht, or Dort held in 1618, made the strictest notion of predestination an essential article of

faith in the Dutch church. None but Calvinists can hold any employment of trust or profit. There is, properly speaking, no difference of rank among the clergy: The church is governed by synods, composed of the ministers and. antistites, or presbyters. Besides nine synods for single provinces, there is one great national synod; subject, however, to the control of the States-general, which are considered as the head of the church. The French and Walloon Calvinist churches have synods of their own. There are, in the Seven Provinces, 1579 pastors or ministers of the established church, 90 of the Walloon church, 800 Roman Catholic, 53 Lutheran, 43 Arminian, and 312 Anabaptist ministers. In the East-Indies there are 46, and in the West-Indies nine clergymen of the established church.

[GENERAL REMARKS.] The natural and political situation of the Dutch nation may be compared with the colonies of Canadian beavers, who, by unwearied labour and mutual assistance, are enabled to build secure habitations on the banks of rapid rivers, and to form societies rendered durable and invincible by the tie of firm union: Yet their wonderful fabric would, by dissension and separation, soon sink into insignificance or annihilation. When we consider what Holland was before the union of Utrecht, and when we afterwards see the inhabitants of that swampy spot assume, for no inconsiderable period of time, the arbitrium of Europe, and the Indies, it is not without regret we witness the decay of their power, that most admirable monument of human exertion and industry. An impartial observer, however, who cannot wish to see the benefits of activity confined to one spot, and extorted from the ignorance and weakness of other nations; will be comforted by the consideration, that Holland's exclusive advantages are lessened by the general increase of industry and happiness throughout all the states of Europe, and not by any of those great calamities or revolutions, which have put a period to the power of other commercial states. Its decline is gentle and gradual: Yet so high was the eminence Holland was arrived at, that it is still possessed of great power and consequence. It may long continue to be the centre of union of the great European commerce and the asylum of religious and civil liberty, if the most dangerous enemies of this state, civil dissensions, and the extinction of public virtue, do not hasten its gliding down the slope of ruin, and render it an easy prey to an insidious neighbour, who seems even now to be willingly acknowledged as their master, by a mistaken and corrupted part of the nation.

[HISTORY.] These provinces were originally an assemblage of several lordships, dependent upon the kings of Spain; from whose yoke they withdrew themselves during the reign of Phillip II. in the year 1579, under the conduct of the Prince of Orange, and formed the republic now called the Seven United provinces, or Holland. The office of Stadtholder, or Captain-general of the United Provinces, was made hereditary in the Prince of Orange's family, not excepting females, 1747.

AUSTRIAN

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles,		Degrees.
Length	200	} between	} 49 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth	200		

BOUNDARIES. **B**OUNDED by the United Provinces, on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorrain, Champagne, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, West.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Austrians, French, and Dutch, we shall be more particular in distinguishing the provinces and towns belonging to each state.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdivisions.

	Chief Towns.
1. Dutch Brabant	{ Boisseduc } N.
	{ Breda } N.
	{ Bergen-op-Zoom } N.
	{ Grave, N.E. } N.W.
2. Austrian Brabant	{ Lillo } N.W.
	{ Steenberg } N.W.
	{ Brussels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50. }
	{ Louvain } in the middle.
	{ Vilvorden } in the middle.
	{ Landen } in the middle.

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and subject to the house of Austria,

4. Province of LIMBURG, S.E.

Chief towns	}	Limburg, E. lon. 6-5. N. lat. 50-37 subject to Auf.	}	subject to the Dutch.
		Maestricht		
		Dalem		
		Fauquemont, or Valkenburg		

5. Province of LUXEMBURG,

Subdivisions,	Chief Towns.
Austrian Luxemburg	Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45,
French Luxemburg	{ Thionville } S. E.
	{ Montmedy } S. E.

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief towns	}	{ Namur, on the Sambre and Maese, E. lon. 4-50. }
		{ N. lat. 50-30. }
		{ Charleroy on the Sambre, }

7. Province

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Austrian Hainault	} { Mons, E. lon. 3-53. N. lat. 50-30 } in the middle.
French Hainault	

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France.	} { Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15. } { Crevecoeur, S. of Cambray. }
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9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France.	} { Arras, S. W. on the Scrape, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 51- } { St. Omer, E. of Boulogne } [20. } { Aire, S. of St. Omer* } { S. Venant, E. of Aire } { Bethune, S. E. of Aire } { Terouen, S. of St. Omer. }
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10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Dutch Flanders	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Sas van Ghent, N. Ghent, on the Scheld, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51.	
Austrian Flanders	} { Bruges } } { Ostend } N. W., near the sea. } { Newport } } { Oudenard on the Scheld. } } { Courtray } on the Lis. } { Dixmude } } { Ypres, N. of Lisse } } { Tournay on the Scheld } } { Menin on the Lis. }	
French Flanders		} { Lisse, W. of Tournay } } { Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais } } { Douay, W. of Arras } } { Mardike, W. of Dunkirk } } { St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes } } { Gravelin, E. of Calais. }

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages,

villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, scarcely a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nothe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

MINES AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead and brimstone, are found in Luxemburgh, and Limburg, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth, proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Austrian Low Countries are generally called) are said to be a heavy, blunt, honest people; but their manners are somewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight desperately in defence of their country; at present they make no great figure. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland, dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman Catholic; but Protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The society of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Flamingo, or the Flemings models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

ANTIQUEITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Some Roman monuments of
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } temples and other buildings
 are to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and
 the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnifi-
 cent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evi-
 dences of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600
 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lu-
 cius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed several large volumes, pub-
 lished by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Nether-
 lands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, for-
 merly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen
 manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied,
 and great part of it in a manner void. Bruges, formerly so noted
 for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now
 dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerably convenient
 harbour for traders; and soon after the late rupture between Great
 Britain and Holland, became more opulent and populous. In 1781 it
 was visited by the emperor, who granted to it many privileges and
 franchises, and the free exercise of the protestant religion. Ypres is
 only a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and
 Namur, which lie in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourish-
 ing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens,
 walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient manu-
 factures; and being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the
 Austrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once
 the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a
 tapestry and thread lace-shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewel-
 lers, and painters adjoining. One of the first exploits of the Dutch,
 soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the
 commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the
 mouth of the Scheld; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to
 ships of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Ant-
 werp had been their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liber-
 ty, but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at
 stake.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or
château; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than
 in all the rest of Europe; but since the decline of their trade, by the
 rise of the English and Dutch, these towns are considerably dimin-
 ished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in ap-
 pearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely
 good and cheap. A stranger may dine in Brussels, on seven or eight
 dishes of meat, for less than a shilling English. Travelling is safe, rea-
 sonable and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are gen-
 erally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till
 they terminate with the view of some noble buildings. At Cassel, in
 the French Netherlands, may be seen thirty-two towns, itself being on

RESOURCES AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the
 Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces;
 notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neigh-
 bours,

hours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributes its share to the imposts of the empire, and sends an envoy to the diet, but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who, at present, is his serene highness, prince Charles of Lorrain, uncle to the late emperor. The face of an assembly, or parliament, for each province is still kept up, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels.— Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor seldom or never finds any resistance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, subject to the regent. And causes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] These rise from the demesne lands and customs; but so much is the trade of the Austrian Flanders now reduced, that they are said not to defray the expense of their government; but by the late reductions of the garrisons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the crown.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of these garrisons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more. but the present emperor has demolished the fortifications of most of the places, and rendered the garrisons useless.

HISTORY.] Flanders, originally the country of the ancient Belgæ, was conquered by Julius Cæsar, forty-seven years before Christ; passed into the hands of France, A. D. 412; and was governed by its earls, subject to that crown, from 864 to 1369. By marriage it then came into the house of Austria; but was yielded to Spain in 1556. Shook off the Spanish yoke 1572, and in the year 1725, by the treaty of Vienna, was annexed to the German empire. See Universal History.

F R A N C E.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 600	} between { 5 west and 8 East longitude. 42 and 51 North latitude.
Breadth 500	

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the English channel and the Netherlands, North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, East; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biscay, West.

DIVISIONS.] As in the following Table.

T A B L E.

T A B L E.

EXTENT AND DIVISIONS.	Areas in square miles.	Population.	Num. of Inhabitants on each square mile.	TOWNS.
42° — 51° Latitude 5° — 8° East Longitude	163,200 St. Ueb. 160,000 Buich. 157,924 Necker.	25,300,000 Schibez 26,000,000 Buich. 24,800,000 Necker.	180 162 157	400 Cities. 1500 Smaller towns. 48,000 Parishes. 100,000 Villages.
France (without Corsica)	155,332 Necker.	24,676,000 Necker.	160	Names. Num. Inh. Marfelle 80,000 Aix 24,000 Toulon 28,000
Generalities according to Necker. 3. Aix Provence	6,601	754,400	41	Amiens 43,500 Calais 6,500 Abbeville 19,000 St. Quentin 16,500 Auch 7,500 Pau 9,000
2. Amiens The greatest part of Picardie	2,628	533,000	74	Belançon 25,000
3. Auch and Pau Oriental part of Guienne	7,751	813,000	40	Bordeaux 84,000 Bayonne 11,000 Bourges 25,000
4. Belançon Franche Comté	5,019	678,800	49	
5. Bourdeaux and Bayonne Western part of Guienne	9,362	439,000	56	
6. Bourges Berry and two little districts, one in the province of Bourbonnois, the other in that of Nivernois	3,954	512,500	47	

T A B L E CONTINUED.

EXTENT AND DIVISIONS.	Areas in square miles.	Population.	Num. of Inhabitants on each square mile.	TOWNS.
7. Châlons The greatest part of Champagne and part of Erie	7,068	812,300	44	Rheims Châlons Troyes
8. Dijon Bourgogne, Maçonnois, Cex, Bugey, Breffin, Dombé	6,821	687,300	57	Dijon Maçon
9. Grenoble Orange, Dauphiné	5,898	664,600	40	Grenoble
10. La Rochelle Saintonge, Aunis, part of Angoumois	2,672	479,700	64	La Rochelle Rochefort
11. Lille Artois, and almost the whole of Flanders	2,885½	734,600	110	Lille Dunkirk Arras Douay
12. Limoges Limoufin, and the greatest part of Angoumois	4,919	646,500	47	Limoges Angouleme
13. Lyons Lyonnais, Forez, Beaujolois	2,897½	638,600	95	Lyons St. Etienne
14. Metz Metz, Toul, Verdun, the French Luxembourg, Sedan, Raucour, and some districts of Alsace and Lorraine	2,960	349,300	119	Metz Sedan
15. Montauban. Rouergue and Guercy	3,352	590,300	160	Montauban Cahors

T A B L E CONTINUED.

EXTENT AND DIVISIONS.	Areas in square miles.	Population.	Num. of inhab. in each square mile.	T O W N S.
16. Montpellier Languedoc	12,330	699,200	139	Montpellier Foucause Nîmes Moulins Nevers
17. Moulins Bourbonnois, the greatest part of Nivernois, and a small part of Auvergne	5,166	264,400	109	
18. Nancy Lorraine, Bas-le-Duc	5,149	234,600	162	Nancy Lancyville Bas-le-Duc
19. Orleans Orleanois, Sologne, Blaisois, Vendomois, Lower Perche, Dunois, Beaucé, Chartres, great part of Gatinois, a small part of Nivernois	5,382	709,400	121	Orleans Blois
20. Paris The greatest part of Ile de France and la Brie	6,604	1,781,700	266	Paris Versailles
21. Perpignan Roussillon, Foix	1,649	188,900	114	Perpignan
22. Poitiers Upper and Lower Poitou	6,089	690,600	113	Poitiers
23. Rennes Bretagne	10,221	1,276,000	222	Rennes St. Malo Nantes Brest

TABLE

T A B L E CONTINUED.

EXTENT AND DIVISIONS.	Area in square miles.	Population	Num. of inhab- itants on each square mile.	TOWNS.
24. Riom	3,749	681,500	181	Clermont Riom
25. Normandy Rouen Caen Alençon	3,884 8,361 2,672	740,700 644,000 528,300	219 190 198	Rouen Caen Alençon Dieppe
26. Soissons Soissonais, Laonnois, Thierache, part of Brie	2,566	437,200	174	Soissons
27. Strasbourg Alsace	3,950	626,400	205	Strasbourg Colmar
28. Tours Touraine, Anjou, Maine, a small part of Lower Poitou	8,096	1,338,700	165	Tours Angers Le Mans
29. Valenciennes Hainaut, Cambresis, and a small part of Flanders	1,181	265,200	279	Valenciennes Cambrai
Total	155,338	24,676,000		
Island of Corsica	2,592	124,000	48	Bastia Ajaccio Corte

POSSESSIONS IN THE OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

1. In ASIA.

Some districts on the coast of Coromandel, of which Pondicherry is the capital. Some less considerable settlements on the Malabar coast and in Bengal, and several factories.

2. In AFRICA.

In Barbary, Bastion de France. The island of Goree, part of Senegambia, Fort Louis on the Senegal, and Podar, Galam, Portendic, Fort Arguin. On the coast of Guinea, François. In the Indian Sea, the islands of Bourbon and Isle de France.

3. In AMERICA.

The North-American islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon. In the West Indies, the largest part of the island of St. Domingo, the islands of Martinique, Guadeloupe, St. Lucia, Maria Galante, St. Martin and Tobago. In South-America, some settlements in Guiana and the island of Cayenne.

All these possessions, according to Neckar, contain about 600,000 inhabitants.

Since the Revolution, a new division of the kingdom has been made as follows: "Each district to be divided into cantons of about four square leagues each, with at least one primary assembly in each canton. If the number of citizens in a canton do not amount to 900, there is to be only one assembly; but if they amount to that number, there are to be two assemblies of 450 each. Each ordinary assembly to consist, as nearly as possible, of 600, which shall be the mean number; the least to be 446. The number of deputies sent to the national assembly by each district, to be in proportion to the population, taxes and territory, jointly considered."

This new political division of France, corresponds, in some respects, with the divisions of New England: Districts in France answer to counties in New-England—cantons to townships, and assemblies to town-meetings.

NAME.] France took its name from the Franks or *Freemen*, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty.

WATER.] No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauze, which divide Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which divides France from Switzerland; the Cévennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 300 miles. The Rhone flows on south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes

its course, first, north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add, the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is greatly improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1686, and completed in 1680: It was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work; and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Illbire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS. } The waters of Baréges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. Some think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental success, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzabach in Alsace are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagueis, not far from Baréges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort at spring and autumn. Forges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France. There is a spring near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

METALS AND MINERALS. } Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too extensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marbls, jasper, and coal,

coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem it is said that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the kingdom.

[FORESTS.] The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainebleau near as large; and near Morchimoit is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea-carriage to be of much national utility.

[WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] France is situated in a very mild climate; its soil is, in most parts, very fertile; it is bounded by high ridges of mountains, the lower branches of which cross the greatest part of the kingdom; it consequently abounds with large rivers, 200 of which are navigable, and it is contiguous to two oceans. These united advantages render this kingdom one of the richest countries of Europe, both with respect to natural productions and commerce. One of the most valuable articles of produce is wine, the great staple commodity of France. 1,600,000 acres of ground are laid out in vineyards; and the net profits from each acre are estimated at from 4l. to 7l. sterling. According to other statements, the yearly value of all the wine made in France amounts to 300 millions of livres; and that of the wine exported annually, to 24 millions. The best sorts of French wine are champagne, burgundy, portack, muscat, frontignac, eremitage, cote-roti, &c. of the inferior sorts brandy and vinegar is made in large quantities. Vines prosper, though not equally, in almost every province of France, except Normandy and Picardy.

Great efforts are making to encourage and improve agriculture; yet there is still a large portion of the ground in an uncultivated state. No more than about 36 millions of acres are cultivated. France is therefore obliged to import corn. During the administration of Mr. Necker this disadvantage was partly obviated; and there are now some provinces which export corn, for instance, Alsace and Languedoc. Flax and hemp which is imported from the north, might be more profitably cultivated in the kingdom in larger quantities than hitherto. The silk raised in considerable quantities in some provinces does not however sufficiently supply the numerous manufactures; about 200,000lb. are produced in Languedoc, and not much less in Provence. The most important silk manufactures are at Lyons and Tours; at the last mentioned place there are said to be 7000 looms, and at the first as many as 18,000. This must be understood however of the times preceding the repeal of the Edict of Nantes. By this unjust and impolitic measure a very great number of Protestant manufacturers were expelled the kingdom, and carried their valuable arts to more liberal countries. Next to these two cities, those of Paris, Chatillon, and Nimes, are distinguished for their silk manufactures.

factures. The first silk manufacture was established at Tours by Louis XI. in the year 1470. At the large fair of Beaucaire there used to be sold, in a few days, goods to the value of 6,000,000 livres, by far the greatest part of which were silks. Even now this trade is of an amazing extent; 7000 balls of silk, of 160lb. each, of which however a great part is imported from abroad, are conveyed annually to Lyons.

Olive oil is one of the principal commodities of France; most of it is produced in the provinces of Provence and Languedoc. The county of Roussillon alone gains annually 200,000 livres by this article; the consumption of it in France is however so great, that some oil is still imported from Italy. The inferior sort of oil is used in making soap; there are at Marseilles alone thirty-six soap manufactures. France abounds in excellent and high-flavoured fruits, as grapes, apples, lemons, oranges, chestnuts, &c. and likewise in manna, saffron, and wood. A great quantity of kermes and soda is produced in the most southerly parts. Salt is obtained in great plenty; the duties on this article, though very oppressive to the subject, are one of the largest branches of the revenue: They are farmed at 54 millions of livres annually. The salt however is not remarkable for its purity. The consumption of tobacco in France amounts to 20 millions of pounds; 15 millions are raised in the country, and five millions imported by smuggling.

Horses, cattle, and asses, are not remarkably good, except in a few districts. The flocks of sheep, though numerous, are not able to supply the large woollen-manufactures. Picardy, alone, however, produces annually 600,000lb. of wool; and so many live sheep have been smuggled over from England into Normandy and Bretagne, that the flocks of those two provinces are thought to be not inferior to those of England. By the same clandestine traffick English wool is imported to the value of 100,000l. sterling. The French cloth-manufactures are risen to very great consequence; the most considerable among them are those at Amiens, Abbeville, Lyons, Sedan, Paris, Rouen, Rysfel, &c. In the government of Lyons woollens are manufactured to the value of 13,000,000 livres, two thirds of which are exported. In Bretagne there are 800 looms for light stuffs; the manufactures at Abbeville have considerably injured those of England; as have likewise those in Languedoc and Provence, especially by their concurrence and superior demand in the Levant market.

The mineral kingdom in France has hitherto not afforded very large treasures. Some silver is found in Allace, at St. Marie aux mines, and Monerif; copper and iron, almost sufficient for the demand of the manufactures, is found in Roussillon, Bigorre, Foix, Navarre, Gasconne, Normandie, Bretagne, and Orleansois. Many of these mines contain lead. However, steel is annually imported to the value of 3,000,000 livres. Mineralogy has hitherto been in an infant state; but when duly attended to, the mines of France are likely to yield very ample profits.

There are manufacturæ of allum, vitriol, and saltpetre; in Franche Comté 1,200,000 lb. of the latter article are annually obtained.

France has very important fisheries. About 50,000 tons of herrings are caught annually by the French fishermen; the fishery of anchovies is said to be worth two million of livres. The French fisheries on the North-American coasts were estimated, before the year 1744, at

1,000,000l. sterling; they have since decreased, but it is likely they will be soon worth nearly as much as before, in consequence of the cessions made to France by the peace of 1763. In 1768, the French sent 114 vessels to Newfoundland, which brought home a cargo of cod, worth 3,000,000 livres; but the profits arising from this branch of fishery are not very considerable.

To enumerate the many manufactures of articles of luxury established in France, would exceed the limits of this book; it is sufficiently known, that France has long ago taken the lead in fashions, and has had the good fortune of seeing them imitated and adopted by most other nations of Europe. This fortunate pre-eminence is a very great source of profits. In the year 1773, there were in France 1500 silk-mills, 21,000 looms for silk stuffs, 12,000 for ribbands and lace, 20,000 for silk stockings; and the different silk manufactures employed 2,000,000 persons.

As a commercial state, France follows immediately after England and Holland. Its trade is carried on with all Europe; that branch of it which was carried on publicly with England was hitherto not very considerable. It exported to England in the year 1785, goods to the value of 117,366l. sterling, and imported from England to the value of 358,244l. sterling. But the smuggling trade between both countries is carried on to a great amount. It was publicly stated in the House of Commons, that only 60,000 cags of spirits paid the duties, and 3,000,000 cags were smuggled; the greatest part of which were French spirits. The French have made themselves masters of the greatest share of the Levant trade; they export the produce of their manufactures, chiefly woollens; and West Indian goods, from Marseilles to Constantinople, Smyrna, Syria, and Egypt. They take, however, so large quantities of the produce of these countries in return, that they are obliged to pay a balance in ready money. The French enjoy some valuable commercial privileges in Turkey. Their African and East-India trade is likewise unprofitable; but their West-India possessions, which are admirably cultivated and governed, make ample amends for these losses by the many articles of commerce they supply, which are valued at 125,000,000 livres. Before the late American war, the balance of commerce in favour of France was estimated at 70,000,000 livres, and it is said, that it has not diminished since. Inland trade is greatly facilitated by numerous navigable canals in several parts of the kingdom. The principal trading towns are, Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Bourdeaux, Nantes, Rouen, St. Malo, Rochelle, Ryssel, Havre de Grace, Dunkirk, &c.

The landtrade of France to Switzerland and Italy is carried on by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Strasburgh—To the Netherlands, through Lisse—To Spain (a most profitable one,) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for the naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and Africa has long been very considerable.

The West India islands, before the late disturbances, produced annually, on an average, Sugar, 224,000,000lbs—Coffee, 62,000,000lbs, Cotton,

Cotton, 7,700,000lbs—Indigo, 2,200,000lbs, with many other articles. Total value of West-India products, 190,000,000 livres, or 400,000l. Sterling. France exports to the amount of 102,000,000 livres, which deducted from 190,000,000 livrés, (the whole value) leaves 88,000,000 livres or 400,000l. sterling for home consumption.

The Newfoundland Fisheries employ annually 264 ships, containing 27,439 tons, and 9,403 men. Total value of the Fishery, 6,000,000 or 270,000l. Sterling.

The East-India importation is valued at 18,000,000 livres, or 800,000l. Sterling,

Total Exports of France 332,000,000 livres, or £.15,000,000 Sterl.
Imports 256,000,000 livres, or £.11,640,000

Balance in favour of France

£. 3,360,000

One great disadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profession of a merchant is not so honourable as in England and some other countries, so that the French nobility think it below them; which is the reason that the church, the law, and the army, are so full of that order. A great number of the cities of France, till the late revolution, had the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces; which was very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

Trade was much benefited in France by the following circumstances and regulations: First, By the great subordination the lower classes of the people were kept in habits of sobriety and industry; this was perhaps one of the few good consequences of the severity of a strict monarchical government, which may in some measure palliate some other hardships resulting from it. Secondly, No goods were permitted to be offered for sale which had not previously been examined by proper officers, in order to prevent impositions on the purchaser. Thirdly, The French colonies were under the necessity of being supplied with almost all necessaries from the mother country. Fourthly, In the ports, for instance, at Bourdeaux, the commodities imported by merchants were deposited in the royal warehouses adjoining the custom-house, and the duties of the whole purchase were not paid at once, but only the duties of such parts of it as the merchant took out gradually from the warehouses for sale.

The bank of France, called the Caisse d'Escompte, enjoys considerable credit. There is only one trading company, viz. the East India Company; the stock of which amounts to only ten millions of livres, and whose affairs are under the management of twelve administrators.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The sciences have risen to a very great height in this kingdom, and this nation can boast of having produced great master-pieces in almost every branch of scientific knowledge and elegant literature. The influence of a superstitious religion on science has been less felt in France than in other Catholic countries; probably from the emulation of the Catholics with their Protestant countrymen, who for many years enjoyed free exercise of their religion, and who made great progress in sciences. During the last hundred years, the French language has acquired the great privilege of being generally introduced as a polite language into all other European countries. Besides the excellence of the French writers of the age of Louis XV. the circulation of that language must be attributed

to the frequent wars and negotiations of the French, to the prevalence of their fashions, and to the dispersion of several hundred thousand banished Protestants over other countries, where the politeness of their manners effected a predilection for their language.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000*l.* per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises, upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation: The first was distinguished for skill in moving the passions; the second for majesty; and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In works of satire and in criticism, Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, possessed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakespeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly superior to the English: Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, Massillon and Saurin, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which the English may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government, was extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, and that the court and ministry, who had an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not therefore so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government, however despotic, no religion however superstitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is an honour to human nature: He is the legislator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go they enlighten and invigorate the human mind.

In the Belles Lettres and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, Voltaire and Marmontel, as the most considerable.

Descartes ranks among the greatest philosophers in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many of the present age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with all the precision of a geometrician, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since

Since the beginning of the present century, the French have vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his *Natural History* is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuse, for portraits and conversation-pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long superior to the English in architecture.

We shall conclude this head with observing, that the French have now finished the *Encyclopédie*, or general dictionary of arts and sciences, which was drawn up by the most able masters in each branch of literature, in 28 volumes in folio (six of which are copper-plates) under the direction of Messieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is one of the most complete collections of human knowledge.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] These literary institutions received a present loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France; but as the extinction of this body of men has served to lessen the influence of superstition in France, there is reason to believe that the interests of real learning and science have, upon the whole, been promoted by that event. It is not within our plan to describe the different governments and constitutions of every university or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follows: Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont-a-Mousson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournoise, and Valence.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones, the French Académie, that of Inscriptions, and that of the Sciences; one of painting and sculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horse, and other military exercises.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, }
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Italy, can boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches; but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Lucatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vast delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred; some of which are more entire than any to be met with in

Italy

Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewise at Vienné. Nîmes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Gard was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nîmes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city, and is as fresh to this day as Westminster-bridge: It consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, that all streams will rise as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nîmes; but the chief, are the temple of Diana, whose vestiges are still remaining; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maison Quarrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant; and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of a palace, or Thermae, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mallic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free-stone and bricks.

In Arles in Provence is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The most particular are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, besides the neighbourhood of Nîmes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endless to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] These are numerous in France; of which we shall mention only Paris, Lille, and their principal sea-ports, Brest and Toulon.

Lille, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camblets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demolish, is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers, and may now, by an article in the last treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French ministry may please. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures. Moving

Moving southward, we come to the Isle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. The population of Paris, according to Guthrie does not exceed 7 or 800,000; according to Zimmermann 680,000; so that if Aitkin's conjecture respecting the population of London be near the truth,* the population of Paris exceeds that of London.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris is said to be the paradise of splendor and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelins† is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honor to architecture itself; and the institution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elsewhere. The Tuilleries, the palace of Orleans's, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shewn; the royal palace, the king's library, the guild-hall, and the hospital for the invalids, are superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French noblesse at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The river Seine, runs through the centre of the city, but it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation; over it are many stone and wooden bridges. The police of Paris is so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happen; and strangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, meet with the most polite treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot; so judiciously stationed, that an offender can escape their vigilance. They likewise visit the publicans precisely at the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but for the same reason, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens and waterworks, (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance) are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of a luxurious court.

Brest

* See page 94. Note.

† One *Gobel*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

Brest is a small, but very strong town, upon the English channel, with a most spacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in all the kingdom: Its entrance however, is said to be difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, and academy for sea-affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. inasmuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy-royal of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a sea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy-royal. Its old and its new harbour, lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from the one to other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular storehouse for each ship of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its ropewalk, of stone, is 320 toises or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular store-houses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order. The other principal towns in France are mentioned in the Table.

RELIGION.] The established religion of this kingdom before the late Revolution was the Roman Catholic; and since the year 1685, in which the edict of Nantes was repealed, greatly to the prejudice of the kingdom, no other Christian sect was legally tolerated. In some parts of the kingdom, at Bourdeaux and Metz, Jews were tolerated under certain restrictions. The sect of Jansenists are very numerous. The Gallican church has always been able to defend its liberties against the encroachments of papal power, and it adopted only such parts of the canon law as did not militate against its rights. The bishoprics and prebends were entirely in the gift of the king. No other Catholic state, except those of Italy, had so numerous a clergy as France: there were in this kingdom so late as 1784, 18 archbishops, 111 bishops, 166,000 clergymen, 5400 convents, containing 200,000 persons devoted to a monastic life.* The numbers of the clergy were then, however, greatly decreasing, and according to some statements, they did not amount to more than 130,000 persons. The revenues amounted to 221 millions of livres; but they were subject to heavy taxation. The income of the bishops alone was estimated at 6,000,000 of livres. Every diocese had a court, called *bureau diocésain*, the jurisdiction of which respected the contributions payable by the clergy, and was limited to sums under 20 livres. From these courts appeal might be made to nine *chambres ecclésiastiques supérieures*.

The unsettled state of affairs in France, render it difficult, if not impossible, to give a just account of the present state of Religion in that kingdom.

*Statement**

* Since the Revolution all religious houses have been suppressed, and their immense funds appropriated to public uses. The revenues of the ecclesiastics of all kinds amounted to £ 6,000,000 sterling.

Statement of the Annual Revenue and EXPENDITURE of France, made out by M. Necker, first Minister of the Finances, and delivered by him to the Assembly of the States General, on the 4th of May, 1789.

R E V E N U E.

E X P E N D I T U R E.

	Liores.	Pounds Sterk.	Liores.	Pounds Sterk.
Revenue farmed, called <i>fermes générales</i> , being the duty on salt, on tobacco, entries at Paris, &c.	150,107,000 or	6,254,458		
Post-duty	12,000,000	500,000		25,000,000 or 1,041,666
Hackney-coaches, stage-coaches, and other public carriages	1,100,000	45,833	Expence of the household of the king, the queen, the king's sister Madame Elizabeth, and his two aunts	
Duties on cattle sold at the markets of Seaux and Poissy	630,000	26,250	Of the king's brother, Monsieur,	2,295,000
Duties of affnage	120,000	5,000	Of Madame, wife to Monsieur	1,380,000
Duties at port Louis in Brittany	47,000	1,958		
Duties compounded for in some of the maritime parts of Flanders	823,000	34,991	Of the Count d'Artois	2,296,000
Aides, or duties on wines and spirits, and a variety of other duties uniked under the direction of the same persons	50,220,000	2,092,500	Of the Counts d'Artois	1,366,000
The royal domains and forests	50,000,000	2,033,333	Of the duke of Angoulême the Count Berry	400,000
Revenue carried over	265,047,000	11,033,623	d'Artois	300,000
				4,356,000
			Expenditure carried over	38,012,000
				1,384,999

REVENUE BROUGHT OVER. EXPENDITURE BROUGHT OVER.

	Pounds Sterling.	Pounds Sterling.
Brought over	26,394,000	28,042,000
Lotteries	1,043,623	1,354,599
Cafal revenue, arising from the sue-	14,000,000	
cession to offices, &c. &c.	8,000,000	
Duty on wrought gold, called the	125,000	
marc d'or	62,500	
Powder and salt, petre	88,333	
Taxes; including the poll-tax, land-		
tax, &c. in Paris, and in the prov-		
inces called the <i>Pays d'Elision</i> and		
<i>Pays conquis</i>	355,655,000	5,150,000
In Languedoc	9,767,250	375,000
Britany	6,611,460	500,000
Burgundy	4,128,180	100,000
Provence	2,892,460	
Fau, Bayonne, and Foix	1,156,650	
Branches of the poll Tax and land		
Tax that are farmed	575,000	
Profit of the Mint	600,000	
Duties at the Royal forges	80,000	
Duties received by the board of Com-		
merce	636,000	366,416
Revenue carried over	466,249,000	99,091,000
	49,431,200	4,128,791
		5,820,166
		189,281,000
		5,820,166

Expenditure carried over

Expence of the Army, and every thing belonging to the war department

League with the Swifs

foreigners

Succours and annual al-

To the prince of Nassau

To the duke of Deux

Subsidies and succours to

secret service, &c.

ambassadors, ministers,

state, the public offices,

abroad, the secretary of

expenses at home and

Department of foreign

Brought over

REVENUE BROUGHT OVER.

Brought over	<i>Livres.</i>	<i>Pounds Sterk.</i>
Interest on about 36,200,000 livres owing by the States of America	466,349,000	19,431,202
Interest on 6,000,000 lent to the duke of Deux Points	1,600,000	66,666
Rent on ground and houses belonging to the hospital of the <i>Quinze Vingts</i>	300,000	12,500
Foll Tax and tenths deducted from pensions, &c.	180,000	7,500
Particular duties at fortified towns	6,390,000	264,082
	575,000	23,958
Total of Revenue,	475,294,000	19,803,909

EXPENDITURE BROUGHT OVER.

Brought over	<i>Livres.</i>	<i>Pounds Sterk.</i>
Marine department and colonies	139,423,000	5,820,166
Bridges and highways	40,500,000	1,687,500
Steads for breeding horses	5,680,000	236,666
Pensions	814,000	33,916
Allowances to different persons by way of indemnity, for rights and privileges relinquished	29,984,000	1,248,083
Salaries to Counsellors of State, and Magistrates	3,167,000	131,958
Wages and allowances to persons in different employments	2,815,000	117,291
Intendants in the provinces, and persons under them	351,000	14,625
Police of Paris	1,413,000	58,875
Guards, horse and foot, for the police of Paris	1,569,000	65,875
The guards called <i>Maréchaux</i> of the <i>Ile de France</i>	1,196,000	47,383
Paying the streets of Paris	251,000	10,458
Work in the quarries under Paris	627,000	26,125
Remissions and deductions made on taxes, &c. comm. an.	400,000	16,666
Allowances to the receivers and farmers general, and other expenses on the receipts	7,123,000	296,791
	19,514,000	812,958

Expenditure

254,743,000 10,614,784

80
68

REVENUE BROUGHT OVER.

Livres. Pounds Sterl.

Brought over 475,294,000 or 19,823,909

N. B. In this statement, the *écu* of three livres, is reckoned at two shillings and six pence sterling; for though the exchange with France has for some months past been sometimes even under twenty-six pence for the *écu*, the medium rate of exchange is from thirty to thirty-one pence.

EXPENDITURE BROUGHT OVER.

Livres. Pounds Sterl.

Brought over 254,744,000 10,614,784

Board and clerks of the treasury, payers of the annuities, &c. 3,372,000 140,500

Board of the general administration of the finances 2,345,000 97,708

Board of commerce, the mint, mines, and the board for settling the affairs of the late East-India company 794,000 33,089

Funds reserved for acts of charity to distressed families 173,000 7,208

Succours to the Dutch refugees in France 829,000 34,541

Religious communities, convents, and repairs of sacred edifices 2,082,000 86,756

Gifts, alms, hospitals, including the hospital for foundlings, 3,635,000 151,458

Persons employed out of charity in times of scarcity 1,911,000 79,625

Houses for vagabonds in different parts of the kingdom 1,144,000 47,666

Prizes, &c. for encouraging commerce and manufactures 3,862,000 160,916

Royal garden for plants, and cabinet of natural history 123,000 5,375

Expenditure carried over 275,020,000 11,459,624

REVENUE BROUGHT OVER.

Brought over 475,294,000 *Livres: Pounds Sterl.*

EXPENDITURE BROUGHT OVER.

Brought over 275,080,000 *Livres: Pounds Sterl.*

Royal library 1,591,000

Universities, academics, colleges, arts and Sciences 1,004,000

Passports and exemptions from duties to foreign ministers, &c. estimated at 460,000

Keeping up and constructing public buildings 1,874,000

Expenses of Plantations, &c. in the forests, &c. 817,000

Expense of criminal prosecutions and maintenance of prisoners 3,180,000

Various expenses, local and variable, made in the provinces, of succours in cases of inundations, encouragements to different useful establishments, &c. 4,500,000

Extraordinary and unforeseen expenses, estimated at 5,000,000

Perpetual annuities 56,796,924

Life annuities 101,469,586

Tontines 8,199,880

Carried over

* 161,466,390, instead of 161,466,000, in the addition stated by M. Necker.

41,883

16,666

78,083

84,041

181,500

187,500

208,333

2,266,338

4,227,890

133,328

18,892,960

REVENUE BROUGHT OVER.

Livres. Pounds, Shill.

Brought over 475,294,000 19,803,909

Deficiency or the amount of what the expenditure exceeded the revenue

56,239,000 2,848,391

Difference for the fraction

531,533,000 27,447,200

221,47,009

EXPENDITURE BROUGHT OVER.

Livres. Pounds, Shill.

Brought over 453,320,390 18,892,950

Interest of sums borrowed at different times

44,856,000 1,869,080

Money owing to the clergy Wages and salaries of places and offices, purchased, and which may be considered as interest on money borrowed

14,729,000 613,708

Interest and expense of anticipations on the revenue of 1790 and 1791

15,800,000 658,333

Total livres 581,005,390 22,138,167

Paris, 18 May, 1789.

Signed,

DU FRESNE,

and examined,

NECKER.

The foregoing statement of the Revenue and Expenditure of France, before the late revolution, may be considered as the most authentic of any that has been laid before the public. The experience of the Minister of Finance, aided by the immediate assistance of men who had long been in office, enabled him to procure the exactest information; and the solemnity of the occasion on which the account was produced precludes every idea of intentional deception.

ARMY.] In 1784 the whole French army consisted of

Infantry,	144,624
Cavalry,	58,176
Mineurs,	9,798
Engineers,	326

Total, 212,924

The following is said to be an actual statement of the French army, as reported to the national assembly, in the summer of 1792, by a committee of twelve, appointed for the purpose:

TROOPS OF THE LINE.

Marshal Luckner.

Effective men in the field,	23,049
In the several garrisons,	15,373
Total,	38,424
To complete the regiment of which these troops consist, there are wanting,	5409

So that when the regiments are complete, the number of effective men will be, 43,833

M. la Fayette.

Effective men in the field,	23,227
In the several garrisons,	15,127
Total,	38,354
Wanting to complete the several regiments,	7020

When complete they will be, 45,374

M. Lamohiere.

In the field,	20,943
In garrison,	11,630
Total,	32,573
Wanting to complete the several regiments,	4,924

When complete they will be, 37,497

M. Montesquieu.

In the field,	23,380
In garrison,	10,841
Total,	34,221
Wanting to complete the several regiments,	8,650

When complete they will be, 38,871

Of the four armies, the troops in the field, including some companies lately joined, are 90,599; in garrison 54,173; making, together, 144,772. Wanting to complete the regiments 21,885; so that, when completed, the four armies will consist of 166,657.

In the interior of the kingdom are 21,375 men; and when the regiments are completed they will be 26,375.

In the colonies there are 12,564.

The whole effective men of the troops of the line, are 178,518; and when completed they will be 205,286.

NATIONAL GUARDS.

With Luckner	21,000
With Fayette	22,000
On the Rhine	16,000
In the South	25,000
In the Colonies	5,000
In the Interior	3,500
Total,	92,500

The troops lately voted by the national assembly, and partly raised, will amount to 171,774. The troops of the line and volunteer national guards, when completed will amount to 400,000; and of these 271,000 are actually in the field, or in garrison.

NAVY. In 1785, France had 256 ships, viz.

Ships of the line	72
Frigates	74
Corvettes	28
Galleys	36
Cutters	27
Fire-ships	19

256

In the year 1780, 1782, the number of ships was 266.

The navy department is divided into the western and eastern departments (*du Ponent & du Levant*) the first of which has again three subdivisions. The chief ports of the royal navy are those of Toulon, Brest, Port Louis, Rochefort, and Havre de Grace; that of Cherbourg has lately been repaired.

All naval affairs are under the management of the *Secrétaire de la Marine*; the chief commander of the fleet is the Lord Admiral of France. There are in France six naval academies, and many military schools, for the formation of sea and land officers.

CONSTITUTION.] The French constitution, finally decreed by the National Assembly, and presented to the king on the 3d, and accepted by him on the 13th of Sept. 1791, contains a declaration of the rights of a man and citizen; a guarantee of natural and civil rights, and a frame of government. The declaration asserts, among other things, That all men are born and remain free and equal in rights—That these rights are liberty, property, security and resistance against oppression—That the principle of sovereignty resides essentially in the nation—That liberty consists in the power of doing every thing, except that which is hurtful to another—That the law has a right to forbid those actions only that are hurtful to society—That the law is the expression of the general will—That no person can be accused, arrested or detained, except in the cases, and according to the forms, prescribed by the law—That no person shall be molested for his opinions, even such as are religious, provided they be consistent with public order—That every citizen may freely speak, write and publish his sentiments; subject, however, to answer for the abuse of that liberty, in cases determined by the law—That society has a right to demand from every public

agent,

agent, an account of his administration—That no person can be deprived of his property, except when the public necessity, legally ascertained, shall evidently require it, and on condition of a just and previous indemnification.

The constitution, established on these principles, declares, That there is no longer nobility or peerage, or hereditary distinctions, or distinctions of orders, or feudal system, or patrimonial jurisdiction, or any of the titles, denominations and prerogatives derived from them, or any orders of chivalry, corporations or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required, or which supposed distinctions of birth, or any other superiority, but that of public officers, in the exercise of their functions.—That no public office is any longer saleable or hereditary.—That the law no longer recognizes religious vows or any other engagements contrary to natural rights, or to the constitution.

The constitution guarantees, as natural and civil rights, among others, That all citizens are admissible to places and employments without any distinction, but that of ability and virtue.—That all contributions shall be divided equally among all the citizens in proportion to their means.—That the same crimes shall be subject to the same punishments without any distinction of persons.—That the citizens have a right to choose the ministers of their worship.—It promises that a national festival shall be established to preserve the memory of the French revolution, &c. and that a code of civil law shall be framed for the common use of the whole kingdom.

By the constitution, the kingdom is one and indivisible; its territory, for administration, is divided into 83 departments, each department into districts, each district into cantons.—Those, by the constitution, are French citizens who are the offspring of French men or French women, whether born in the kingdom, or in foreign countries, provided their fixed residence be in France.—The legislature may naturalize a foreigner on no other condition than that of his residing in France, and taking the civic oath.—The civic oath is—“*I swear to be faithful to the nation, the law and the king; and to maintain with all my power the constitution of the kingdom decreed by the National Assembly during the years 1789, 1790, and 1791.*”

The constitution declares, That the sovereignty is one, indivisible, unalienable, and imprescriptible, and it belongs to the nation.—That the nation, from which alone flow all powers, cannot exercise them but by delegation.—The French constitution is representative.—The representatives are the legislative body and the king.

The government is monarchical. The legislative power is delegated to a National Assembly, consisting of one chamber only; composed of representatives, freely chosen by the people every two years, and to be exercised by this assembly, with the sanction of the king, in manner hereafter determined.—The legislative body shall not be dissolved by the king.—The executive power is delegated to the king, to be exercised under his authority, by ministers and other responsible agents, in manner afterwards determined.

The constitution declares, that the number of representatives to the legislative body shall be 745; and that they shall be distributed among the 83 departments, according to the three proportions of land, of population, and the contribution direct.—Of the 745 representatives,

247 are attached to the land—249 to the population; and 249 to the contribution. In order to form a legislative National Assembly, the active citizens shall convene every two years on the second Sunday in March, if not sooner convoked, in primary assemblies, in the cities and cantons. To be an active citizen, it is necessary to be a Frenchman, or to have become a Frenchman—to have attained 25 years, complete—to have resided in the city or canton during the period determined by law—to pay a contribution, to the value, at least, of 3 days labour—not to be a servant receiving wages—to be inscribed in the municipality of the place of his residence, in the list of the national guards—and to have taken the civic oath.—Every 6 years the legislative body shall fix the maximum and minimum of the value of a days labour. The primary assemblies shall name electors, in proportion to the number of active citizens residing in the city or canton, viz. one elector for 100 active citizens; two electors, from 150 to 250, and so on in this proportion. In order to be nominated an elector, a man must have the qualifications of an active citizen, and also, in towns of above 6000 souls, must possess property, or the usufruct of property, valued on the rolls of contribution at a rent equal to the local value of 200 days labour; or be the renter of a habitation, valued, on the same rolls, at a rent equal to the value of 150 days labour. In towns of less than 6000 souls—must possess property, or the usufruct of property, valued as above, at a rent, equal to 150 days labour; or be the renter of a habitation, valued at a rent, equal to 100 days labour; and in the country—must possess property or the usufruct of property, valued, as above, at a rent equal to 150 days labour; or of being farmer or lessee of property valued at a rent equal to 400 days labour.

The electors named in each department shall convene, of full right, if they have not been convoked by the proper officers, on the last Sunday in March, to choose the number of representatives, whose nomination shall belong to their department, and a number of substitutes equal to a third of the representatives. The representatives and substitutes shall be chosen by a majority of voters, from the active citizens of the department. All active citizens, whatever be their state, profession, or contribution, may be chosen as representatives of the nation, except ministers and other agents of the executive power, commissioners of the national treasury, collectors and receivers of the direct contributions, superintendants of the indirect contributions and national domains, civil and military officers of the king's household. The exercise of the municipal, ministrative and judiciary functions, shall be incompatible with the function of a representative of the nation during every period of the legislature. The members of the legislative body may be re-elected to a subsequent legislature, but not afterwards, until an interval of one legislature. The representatives named in the departments, shall not be representatives of a particular department, but of the whole nation, and no instructions can be given them.

No active citizen can enter or vote in an assembly, if he be armed. In no case, and under no pretext, shall the king, or any agents named by him, interfere in questions relative to the regularity of the convocation, the sitting of assemblies, the form of elections, or the political rights of citizens, without prejudice to the functions of the king's commissioners, in cases determined by law, when questions relative to the political rights of citizens are to be brought before the tribunals.

The representatives shall convene on the first Monday of May, at the place of the sitting of the last legislature. The eldest of their number shall preside in order to verify the powers of the representatives present. When 373 representatives shall be present, and their powers verified, they shall constitute themselves under the title of "The Legislative National Assembly"—name a president, vice-president, and secretaries, and enter on business. The representatives shall pronounce in a body, in the name of the French people, the oath—"TO LIVE FREE, OR DIE."—They shall then individually take the civic oath. The representatives of the nation are inviolable.

The royalty is indivisible, and delegated hereditary to the race on the throne from male to male, and by order of primogeniture to the perpetual exclusion of women, and their descendants.—The person of the king is inviolable: His only title is "KING OF THE FRENCH." There is no authority in France superior to that of the law. The king reigns only by it, and it is only in the name of the law that he can require obedience. The king, on his accession to the throne, or at the period of his majority, shall take to the nation, in the presence of the legislative body, the oath "To be faithful to the nation and the law, to employ all the power delegated to him, to maintain the constitution decreed by the Constituent National Assembly in the years 1789, 1790, 1791, and to cause the laws to be executed." If the king does not take this oath within one month after an invitation by the legislative body, or if, after taking it, he shall retract; if the king put himself at the head of an army, and direct the forces of it against the nation, or if he do not oppose, by a formal act, any such enterprize undertaken in his name; or if the king shall go out of the kingdom, and if after being invited by a proclamation of the legislative body, he do not return, in the delay to be fixed by the proclamation, and not to be less than two months; in either of these cases he shall be held to have abdicated the throne, be ranked in the class of citizens, and may be accused and tried like them, for acts posterior to his abdication. The constitution provides for the splendor of the throne by a civil list, and allows the king, besides the guard of honour, a guard paid out of the civil list, not exceeding 1200 infantry and 600 horse.

The king is a minor till the age of 18 complete; and during his minority there shall be a regent of the kingdom, who must be a relation of the king, the next in degree according to the order of succession to the throne, 25 years of age, a Frenchman, resident in the kingdom, not a presumptive heir to any other crown, and have previously taken the civic oath; or if the minor king have no relation thus qualified, a regent shall be chosen by electors in each district, appointed for the purpose. The regency of the kingdom confers no right over the person of the minor king; the care of whom shall be confided to his mother; or, in case he have no mother, or she be legally disqualified, to the legislative body.

The presumptive heir to the crown shall bear the name of *Royal Prince*. He cannot go out of the kingdom, without a decree of the National Assembly and the consent of the king; If, when out of the kingdom, he be required by the legislative body to return to France, and refuse, he is held to have abdicated the right of succession to the throne. To the king alone, belongs the choice and revocation of ministers;

ministers; who are responsible for all the offences committed by them against the national safety and the constitution; and in no case can the written or verbal order of a king, shelter a minister from responsibility.

The constitution delegates to the legislative body, the powers and functions which are usually given to such bodies. The king can only invite the legislative body to take an object into consideration. War cannot be resolved on but by a decree of the National Assembly, passed on the formal and necessary proposition of the king, and sanctioned by him. It belongs exclusively to the legislative body to ratify treaties of peace, alliance and commerce. The executive power cannot march, or quarter, or station any troops of the line within 30,000 toises of the legislative body, without their consent. The deliberations of the legislative body shall be public, and the minutes of the sittings be printed.

The decrees of the legislative body are presented to the king, who may refuse them his assent; but his refusal is only suspensive. When the two following legislatures shall successively present the same decree, in the same terms in which it was originally decreed, the king shall be deemed to have given his sanction. The king must express his assent or refusal within two months after the decree is presented to him. If he assents, he must say—“*The king consents and will assist to be executed.*”—If he refuses, he must say—“*The king will examine.*”

When the legislative body is definitively constituted, it shall send a deputation to inform the king. The king may every year open the session, and propose the objects, which, during its continuance, he thinks ought to be taken into consideration; this form, however, is not to be considered as necessary to the activity of the legislative body. Eight days, at least, before the end of each session, the legislative body shall send a deputation to the king, to announce to him the day on which it proposes to terminate its sittings. The king may come in order to close the session.

The supreme executive power resides exclusively in the hands of the king, who is the supreme head of the general administration of the kingdom, and also of the land and sea forces. He appoints ambassadors—bestows the command of armies and fleets, and makes all other appointments, and transacts all other business which commonly appertain to the office of supreme magistrat. The king alone can interfere in foreign political connexions, conduct negotiations, make preparations of war, distribute the land and sea forces, as he shall judge most suitable, and regulate their direction in case of war. Every declaration of war shall be made in these terms—“*By the king of the French, in the name of the Nation.*”—It belongs to the king to agree upon and sign, with all foreign powers, all treaties of peace, alliance and commerce, and other conventions, which he shall judge necessary for the welfare of the state, saving the ratification of the legislative body.

The judicial power can, in no case, be exercised by the legislative body or the king. Justice shall be gratuitously rendered by judges chosen for a time by the people, instituted by letters patent of the king, who cannot refuse the same; and who cannot be deposed, except from a forfeiture duly judged, or suspended, except from an accusation admitted. The public accuser shall be named by the people. The tribunals cannot either interfere in the exercise of the legislative power, or suspend the execution of the laws, or undertake the administrative

tive functions. There shall be one or more judges of peace in the cantons and in the cities. In criminal matters, no citizen can be judged, except on an accusation received by jurors or decreed by the legislative body in the cases in which it belongs to it to prosecute the accusations. After the accusation shall be admitted, the fact shall be examined, and declared by the jurors. The party accused shall have the privilege of rejecting twenty. The jurors who declare the fact shall not be fewer than twelve. The application of the law shall be made by judges. The process shall be public, and the accused cannot be denied counsel. No man acquitted by a legal jury, can be apprehended or accused again on account of the same fact.

For the whole kingdom there shall be one tribunal of errors, established near the legislative body. Its functions shall be to pronounce, on applications to quash judgments, tendered by the tribunals in the last resort.—On applications to refer causes from one tribunal to another on lawful grounds of suspicion.—On questions respecting jurisdiction or cognizance, and suits brought against a whole tribunal for illegal or corrupt judgment.—The tribunal of errors can never determine on the merits of a case.

A high national court, composed of members of the tribunal of errors and high jurymen, shall have cognizance of the crimes of ministers and principal agents of the executive power, and of crimes against the general safety of the state, when the legislative body shall have issued a decree of accusation. They shall not convene but on the proclamation of the legislative body, and at the distance of 30,000 toises at least from the place where the legislature shall hold its sessions.

The constituent national assembly declares, that the nation has the inalienable right of altering the constitution; and the constitution accordingly, prescribes the mode in which alterations shall be made.

The French colonies and possessions in Asia, Africa and America, although they constitute a part of the French empire, are not included in the present constitution.

The Constituent National Assembly, commits this deposit to the fidelity of the legislative body, of the king and of the judges; to the vigilance of fathers of families, to wives and mothers; to the affection of young citizens, and to the courage of Frenchmen.

(Signed) VERNIER, President.

[HISTORY OF THE LATE REVOLUTION.] To give some idea of the origin of this memorable event, we must take notice, that the liberties of France, as well as those of Britain, were secured by their parliaments; but in the French constitution there was this capital defect, that the offices of its members were attached to particular families, titles, or situations; so that though the sanction of parliament was requisite for rendering every act of the king valid, they never were in a condition to refuse it. By degrees it was generally perceived by the people, that this excessive power with which the monarch was invested did not originate either in the principles of the constitution, or the natural rights of mankind; but, as the kings were always in possession of a great standing army, any attempt at innovation would have been exceedingly dangerous. After the conclusion of the treaty of Paris in 1763, the French ministry seemed to adopt a plan different from what they had formerly pursued. Justly supposing that the im-

mense

menſe trade carried on by the Britiſh was the true ſource of their power, they leſſened the army in order to increaſe the marine; and in this they ſucceeded ſo well, that in the laſt war the French navy became much more formidable to Britain than ever it had been. But by this improvement, the power of the king, whole deſpotiſm could only be ſupported by a great ſtanding army, was leſſened of courſe. The army which aſſiſted the Americans imbibed from their enthuſiaſtic notions of liberty, which they would probably diſſuſe among their countrymen, and conſequently render them more impatient of the tyranny they laboured under than they were before. Beſides this, the vaſt expenſes attending the war with Britain had augmented the national debt far beyond every reſource which the kingdom could afford, ſo that government were put to the laſt ſhift in order to carry on the neceſſary operations. In 1776, the finances had been put under the direction of M. Neckar, a native of Switzerland, and a Proteſtant, by whom a general reformation was made throughout every department in the revenue. In the beginning of the year 1780, a variety of unneceſſary offices in the royal houſehold were aboliſhed, as well as many ſalutary regulations made for the public benefit. By his activity, the exceſs of diſburſements above the revenue, which in the year 1776, had amounted to at leaſt a million ſterling, was converted into an exceſs of revenue above the diſburſements, amounting to 445,000*l*. Theſe reformations, however, not being calculated to pleaſe ſuch as had found their intereſt in the abuſes of revenue, he was diſmiſſed, and others more agreeable to the views of the courtiers appointed. Succeſſing miniſters being endowed neither with the integrity nor abilities of M. Neckar, the finances and credit of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined, when the aſſembly of notables was convened. This aſſembly had been inſtituted in the early ages, and was compoſed of arch-biſhops, biſhops, various preſidents of the different parliaments, and deputies of the different ſtates. Thus it was a proper repreſentation of the whole kingdom, and as ſuch had been frequently called in times of public danger and diſtreſs. The miniſter at this time was M. de la Caſſonne, who is acknowledged not to be poſſeſſed of that diſinterreſtedneſs for which M. Neckar was ſo eminently diſtinguiſhed. He is ſaid to have prevented the Aſſembly from ſitting, from the 29th of January 1787, when it was convened, to the 22d of February; and to this the ſubſequent revolution is ſaid immediately to have been owing; as, during the interval, an opportunity was given to the members of converſing with each other, communicating their complaints, and forming ſchemes for redreſs.

When the Aſſembly at laſt met for buſineſs, the king told them, that the object of their meeting was to improve the revenues; to aſcertain their freedom by a more equal partition of taxes; to diſengage the commerce of the kingdom from ſome of its embarraſſments; and to ſupport, as far as poſſible, the poorer part of the community. M. de Caſſonne acknowledged the deficiency of the annual revenue to be about 80 millions of livres (about three millions ſterling) which deficiency he traced as far back as the time of Cardinal Fleury, preceptor, and afterwards miniſter to Louis XV. The Abbe Terai, he ſaid, had found the deficiency at 74 millions, and left it at 40; while M. Neckar, who had found it at 37 in the year 1776, had left it at 56.

in 1780; and in 18 months after that time it had risen to 80. M. Neckar offered to refute this charge; but Calonne refused to enter into any discussion of the matter, and the king would not allow of an inquiry. On a fair state of the case, however, it appeared that the deficiency of the revenue was at least 130 millions; and this was the more alarming, as during the administration of Calonne, no less than six hundred millions of debt had fallen in. The remedy he proposed was a general tax on land, and a stamp act. This last, called the *Timbre*, occasioned the greatest alarm. It was even said, that every letter, which at any time might be adduced as a proof in a process at law, was to be stamped. Calonne's speech was published and severely criticised; he was supposed to have traced the deficiency of the revenue very high, in order to conceal his own faults; and he was opposed by the nobility and clergy; whose privileges he was supposed to have invaded by his land tax. In short, so great were the difficulties and embarrassments of the minister, that he appealed from this Assembly to the people, blaming the Notables for their opposition, as he did not mean to impose any new tax on the people, but to relieve them. In a general meeting, on the 23d of April, the king expressed his sorrow for the vast deficiency of revenue, and promised a more exact economy for the future; but concluded with mentioning the stamp act. The Notables received the speech with the utmost applause, but ventured to inquire into the necessity of a new tax, the proposed term of its duration, and the nature and extent of the savings to be made by it. This uncommon boldness did not give offence. The king condescended to enter into particulars, and calculated the increase of revenue at 40 millions. The Notables proceeded in their inquiries, and it was now suggested that an Assembly of the States should be called, as the Notables were not competent to impose a new tax. As the deliberations of the Notables were not carried on in secret, this proposal was instantly circulated through the capital, and supposed to be a new discovery. The Notables were soon after dissolved, without having accomplished any thing, excepting the justification of M. Neckar. During their researches into the affairs of the revenue, it was found, that at the end of his administration, there was an excess of ten millions annually; while at present the six hundred millions which were fallen in, had not been accounted for, and a deficiency of between 130 and 140 millions was to be supplied.

The Assembly of Notables was succeeded by the establishment of the Council of Finance; a free passage for corn was allowed from one province to another; and the *Corvées*, or personal services to the lord, were abolished by edict; but at the same time, the stamp act was established. It extended to all letters and commissions for every office and place, either honorary or useful; for every grant, title, or concession; certificates for study; grants under the privy seal; commissions in the affairs of the king; accounts and receipts of every kind, &c. &c.

The weight of this tax was looked upon to be so intolerable, that the parliament refused to register it. Instead of this, they called, in their turn, for accounts, till, in the discussion of the affair, it was also supposed to be discovered, that the parliament had no right to tax, but that it existed only in the States General. The peers were convened by the parliament on the 30th, and joined with them in all their views.

A bed of justice was held by the king on the 5th of August, at which the parliament was obliged to attend, and the edict was registered notwithstanding their protest to the contrary. Ten days after, they were banished to Troyes, and the edict registered, by authority, in the Chamber of Accounts, and the Court of Aids; though each body joined the parliament in their opposition and protests, applauding them for their firmness and propriety of conduct.

The banishment of the parliament of Paris, was resented so much by the whole nation, that in a short time it was found necessary to recall them, and matters were for a time conciliated; though on this occasion, it is said, that the parliament departed from the principles they had formerly proceeded upon. Disturbances, however, were very soon revived. The parliament of Bourdeaux was banished in the month of August, the same year, and the consequences were similar to what have been related concerning that of Paris. The latter was scarcely recalled, when they were desired to register a loan to be taken up by gradual instalments, which the minister pretended, would in 1792, render the revenues more than equivalent to the expenses; but as this loan amounted to no less than 240 millions, somewhat more than 15 millions sterling, the parliament hesitated, notwithstanding all the manoeuvres of the minister. At last the king himself came to the house, and held what is called a Royal Session. The edicts were now registered, but the duke of Orleans protested, in the presence of the king, against the legality of the proceeding. The parliament protested against the legality of the session itself, but to no purpose. The duke of Orleans, with four others, were banished; the king called for the journals of the house, destroyed the protest, and forbade it to be inserted again. Great clamours were raised by the banishment of the duke of Orleans, and other members of parliament; remonstrances were presented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes, but the exiles were not recalled till the spring of 1788.

Towards the end of 1787, matters were apparently in a state of tranquillity, the loans being filled, and the royal payments exact. Secret discontents and commotions, however, had undoubtedly taken place; the passion for liberty, which had already displayed itself in great freedom of speech, continued to gain ground, and at last broke forth with irresistible fury in the month of June, 1789. The National Assembly, or Estates of the Kingdom, were then sitting, and had been so for some time, when on the 20th of the month, an address to the king was presented by the nobility, complaining that "the deputies of the Third Estate had attempted to centre, in their own persons, the whole authority of the States General, without waiting for the concurrence of the other orders, or the sanction of his Majesty—that they had attempted to convert their decrees into laws; and had ordered them to be printed, published and distributed in the provinces; had repealed, and re-enacted the taxes, and seemed to attribute to themselves the united rights of the monarch, and the three great orders who compose the States General." In consequence of this the king issued a proclamation, intimating that he would hold a Royal Session in two days. At nine in the morning, Mr. Baille, the president of the commons, went to the hall with his two secretaries, but found the door shut, and guarded by soldiers; the hall was also filled with soldiers, and all the benches torn

up.

up. The commanding officer informed them that he had orders to allow nobody to enter the hall; to which the president replied, that he had no orders to discontinue the meetings of the National Assembly; but was again told, that positive orders had been given to allow nobody to enter the halls of the States General before the Royal Sessions. It was then moved by Mr. Target, an eminent lawyer, and member for Paris, that an oath should be taken by all the members of the Assembly, that they were called together to fix the constitution, and operate the regeneration of public order; that nothing could prevent them from continuing their deliberations, in whatever place they were compelled to hold their meetings; that wheresoever the members are collected, there the National Assembly is; and that each member take a solemn oath never to separate, but to assemble together wherever circumstances require, until the constitution be established, and consolidated on proper foundations.

This proposal was received with loud acclamations; the oath was signed by the president and members, as well as by the deputies from St. Domingo, who requested leave to do so; after which the National Assembly proceeded to business. They began with resolving that an address should be presented to the king, for augmenting the pay of the national troops of France, to an equality with those of foreigners in the French service, viz. from four and a half to six and half sous per day; thus conciliating the army to their side, in case there should be occasion for their assistance in the affair. These proceedings were far from being agreeable to his Majesty. On the 23d of June, he held a session of the Three Estates, to whom he made a speech, complaining that he was not seconded in his benevolent intentions; that the States General had been sitting more than two months, without having even agreed on the preliminaries of their operations. Instead of consulting the good of their country, they had raised an opposition, and made pretensions to which they were not entitled. His Majesty considered it as incumbent upon him to destroy the seeds of these fatal divisions, and he called upon the two principal classes, the nobility and clergy, to assist him in his endeavours, and to propose a re-union of consultation and opinion, which ought to take place for the general good of the kingdom. A declaration was then read by the keeper of the seals, consisting of 35 articles, by way of concession to his subjects, the most remarkable of which were the abolition of *lettres de cachet*; the liberty of the press left to the judgment of the States; the present States General to fix the manner of convening the next, and to form the provincial states; custom houses to be removed to the frontiers; the salt duty to be softened till it could be abolished; civil and criminal justice to be reformed by the king; corvees and mortmain to be abolished, and no tax imposed without the consent of the States, &c. After this declaration, the king, and keeper of the seals left the hall; but the *Tiers Etat*, or Commons, remained, with some of the nobility and clergy who had joined them; and passed some very spirited resolutions in support of what they had already done. Next day the oath was subscribed by the duke of Orleans, at the head of 40 of the principal nobility, and 200 of the clergy. They now began to exert themselves in the cause of liberty with great spirit. On the introduction of a deputation from the nobles, the president of the commons was not allowed to address them

them in the usual terms, "I have the honour to acquaint you;" but, "I am requested to acquaint you." In taking the oath, it was insisted that the country should be put before the king. A proposal of annulling all the taxes, and laying them on by the authority of the National Assembly was made by Mr. Target, and instantly agreed to without one dissenting voice.

In the mean time, the commons had the satisfaction to find that their proceedings were agreeable to the nation at large. Deputations were received, not only from the inhabitants of Paris, but from the electors of the provinces, assuring the assembly of their firm support and determination to stand or fall with them in the cause they had undertaken. But while thus employed, to the mutual satisfaction of themselves and of the people, the commons received a message from the king, commanding them to depart from the hall. Some of them replied, that they might be taken out dead, but would not go alive. The soldiery were then commanded to interfere, but they positively refused; and the king was informed by the commander in chief, the Duc de Choiseul, that he could not answer for the safety of his royal person, if the orders given to the troops were to be enforced. His Majesty then wrote a letter to the nobility and clergy, desiring them to join the commons, which was accordingly done; but any little hope of accommodation which might now take place was entirely overthrown by the following accident. Two soldiers of the French guards formed a design of entering the National Assembly, in order to complain of the Duc de Choiseul, their colonel, in the name of the whole regiment. With this view they had dressed themselves in plain clothes; but being observed by the duke, they were by him committed to prison. From thence they sent a letter to the Assembly, informing them of the danger in which they were, on account of the patriotic behaviour of the regiment who had refused to fire on their countrymen. This letter produced the most astonishing effect. A multitude of people set out from the Palais royal, where the friends of liberty were assembled, with a design to release the prisoners. As they proceeded on their journey, they were joined by many thousands of others, among whom were a number of the French guards. Having procured the necessary instruments, as they went along, the gates and bolts of the prison were forced, and the prisoners released in less than an hour. Troops of dragoons and hussars were sent for, but they refused to act, drank with the multitude, and joined in their acclamations.

Such an alarming tumult could not fail to affect even the boldest patriots. A deputation was therefore sent, at the motion of Mr. Target, to the king, requesting him to take effectual measures for putting an end to the present troubles, and to forgive what was past. His Majesty consented, and the Assembly continued its proceedings. Some of the nobility and clergy attempted to enter a protest against every thing that had been done, but they were overpowered by a vast majority. The presidency of the Assembly was offered to the duke of Orleans, but on his declining the office, it was offered to the archbishop of Vienne, who accepted it. The king, however, perceiving his authority almost annihilated, resolved to overawe the Assembly by encamping his troops in the neighbourhood. This excited a general alarm, and the Assembly became tumultuous. M. Mirabeau now began

gan to distinguish himself as a speaker. After taking notice that the station of the troops was an infringement on the liberty of the Assembly, and that the very finding them in provisions in such a time of scarcity must be a grievance, they being no less than 95,000 in number, he proposed an address to the king, praying that he would order back the troops to the place from whence they came, together with the train of artillery they had along with them; and informing him, that in case any disturbances were apprehended at Paris or Versailles, he might raise companies of armed burghers, who would be a sufficient protection. This address was presented, but the king did not think proper to send away his troops, though he assured the Assembly that they had nothing to fear, and offered to remove the place of their sitting to Noyon, or Soissons.

These assurances seem to have removed the apprehensions of the Assembly. They now proceeded to consider the dismissal of M. Neckar, and his associates in the ministry; they presented an address to the king, in which they set forth the virtues of the dismissed ministers, assuring his Majesty that the nation neither could nor would have any confidence in the new ones. They represented the horrors of the scene which must ensue, if the troops should act against the Parisians, and proposed to send a committee to the capital to prevent bloodshed. To this an unfavourable answer was given; the king refusing either to remove the troops, or to allow the committee to be sent to Paris. This answer produced a number of spirited resolutions; among which was the following: "That this Assembly, dreading the fatal consequences which his Majesty's answer may produce, must continue to insist upon the removal of the troops, drawn together in an extraordinary manner, in the neighbourhood of Paris and Versailles; and upon the establishment of armed bodies of citizens." These resolutions were taken on the 13th of July, and next day the people began to arm themselves; a party of troops entered the capital, but the French guards having joined the people, only a slight skirmish happened, in which two dragoons, of the duke de Choiseuil's regiment, were killed and two wounded. The troops then left the city, and the people proceeded to act openly in support of the cause of liberty. The police of the city was now entirely without influence, and its place was supplied by armed burghers; the shops were shut up; a general consternation prevailed all over the city; and it was proposed to raise a militia of 48,000 men.

The first exploit performed by these patriots, was forcing the convent of St. Laxaire, where they found a considerable quantity of corn, as well as of arms and ammunition, supposed to have been brought thither from the arsenal, as to a place of security. Next day the hospital of invalids was summoned to surrender, and taken possession of after a slight resistance. The cannon, small arms, and ammunition were seized, and thus all the citizens, who chose to arm themselves, was supplied with what was necessary. The ammunition lodged in the Bastille was then demanded the same evening. A flag of truce had preceded the body of people who made the demand, and was answered from within; but, nevertheless, the commandant gave orders to his troops to fire, and killed several of them. Enraged at this proceeding, they rushed forward to assault the place. The governor then consented to admit a certain number of them, upon condition that they should make

make no disturbance. This being readily agreed to, about 40 passed the draw bridge, which was instantly drawn up, and the whole party massacred. Exasperated at this, the people assaulted the fortrefs with such violence that it soon surrendered; and the governor, with some of the more active persons in this treachery were put to death, and their heads carried on pikes round the city. Only four or five prisoners were found in the Bastile. Some account say seven.*

The king now perceiving that all the troops he could command would be insufficient to quell the insurrection, repaired to the Assembly, and informed them, that he had ordered the troops to retire to a certain distance from Paris and Versailles. This speech was received with universal applause; and soon after the troops had retired, the marquis de la Fayette, who distinguished himself so much in the army of the United States, was appointed to command the Paris militia, along with M. Bailly, Prevot de Marchands. The number of armed men in the capital were now computed at 150,000. The king put himself into the hands of the citizens, and passed through Paris to the Hotel de Ville, escorted only by them. On entering that place, he declared that he appeared there only to gratify the wishes of the people, and to assure them of his readiness to do every thing in his power to restore tranquillity to the city. In return he received every testimony of affection that could be expressed by a numerous and orderly people. This was followed by a dismissal of all his new servants, and the recal of Mr. Neckar.

All this time the patriotic party continued to gain ground. The capital was guarded by the militia; the troops removed speedily to the places from whence they came: The Duc de Chatelet resigned his command; and several changes were made in the ministry. The Duc de Liancourt was chosen president of the National Assembly in room of the archbishop of Vienne, whose time was expired; and the king, hearing that a number of his guards had joined the militia, granted leave to the marquis de la Fayette to retain as many as chose to stay; at the same time, he authorised the guards to enter among the militia, with a promise to continue their pay and maintenance till the city was reduced into a state of tranquillity.

Though this extraordinary revolution was attended with much less bloodshed than what usually accompanies affairs of this kind, yet it was not wholly bloodless. Besides those who perished immediately in the affair of the Bastile, several other victims were offered up at the shrine of liberty. One of these was M. de Foulon, late intendant of Paris, who was accused of having caused, or increased the scarcity in that capital. To avoid the popular fury, he had spread a report of his death, and retired to his house in the country. Here he was discovered, and dragged to Paris, where he was first hanged, his head then cut off, and carried upon a pole to meet his son-in-law, M. Berthier, the intendant at that time, whose death had been already determined upon, and who had been seized at Compeigne. The marquis de la Fayette interceded for Berthier as far as he could with safety, but to no purpose. In the provinces the most grievous disorders took place. In Brittany several

* This affair has been differently represented; and the public must patiently wait for an authenticated account of this, and other particulars of this interesting Revolution, till it shall be fully accomplished and national tranquillity restored.

several regiments laid down their arms when ordered out against the insurgents. At Havre de Grace the whole garrison left the fort on hearing what had happened at Paris, and the burghers immediately took possession of it. A most melancholy affair, happened at Befancon, which at once discovered the greatest cruelty and depravity in the perpetrators. The people there having resolved to celebrate the revolution at Paris by rejoicings, a nobleman of the opposite party, by name M. de Melmay, projected the horrid scheme of pretending to enter into the views of the people, with an intention of destroying them at once. For this purpose he invited them to an entertainment at his castle of Quenay. A great number of the people attended, and were most barbarously massacred at once, by blowing them up with gunpowder, by means of a concealed mine. The wretch himself escaped, but his castle was demolished by the enraged populace, and not only that of Quenay, but many others in the neighbourhood; and on this occasion, it is not to be doubted, that several valuable buildings were destroyed. Among these was the rich Abbey of the order of Citeaux, frequently animadverted upon by Voltaire. On examining into this affair, however, by a committee of the National Assembly, it was said to have happened by accident, though it is difficult to conceive how it could be so.

While these disturbances were going on, the roads were beset by troops of banditti and robbers, chiefly foreigners. At Montmartre 5000 desperadoes began to level the platforms, with a view to erect batteries for destroying the city; but being dispersed by the citizens, they formed themselves into several bands, and committed many depredations; but at last, intelligence having been received at the Hotel de Ville of these and other enormities, 200 citizens set out in quest of the robbers, whom they found dispersed in parties all over the country. They attacked the citizens with stones, &c. but being soon put to flight, and 200 taken prisoners, the country was restored to tranquillity.

The impatience of the nation for the return of M. Neckar now grew to such a height, that the Assembly wrote a letter to the king, demanding it, in the following terms:

“SIRE,

“You came yesterday among us, and testified your confidence in our counsels, requiring us to give them in the present dreadful state of affairs. We were yesterday in the capital, where we saw and heard every thing. Your whole people are afflicted at the fate of Mr. Neckar, and demand him of your Majesty. Every body holds your present ministers in horror; the public indignation is at its height; we therefore, Sire, for the happiness of your kingdom, for your own happiness, advise you to recal Mr. Neckar.”

We may judge of the state of humiliation to which the mighty sovereign of France was now reduced, by his sending the following letter, addressed to Mr. Neckar, unseated, to the National Assembly, for their inspection:

“The KING of FRANCE to Mr. NECKAR.

“I have been deceived respecting you. Violence has been committed on my character. Behold me at length enlightened. Come, Sir,
come

come without delay, and resume your claims to my confidence, which you have acquired forever. My heart is known to you. I expect you with all my nation; and I very sincerely share in its impatience. On which, I pray God, Sir, until you return, to take you into his holy and worthy keeping."

In consequence of this letter, M. Neckar hastened to Paris, where he was received by the people with the most excessive exultations, and by the king with the greatest cordiality and affection. He was attended to the Hotel de Ville, by M. de St. Priest, the secretary of state, and escorted by a numerous company of the horse and foot militia. The people who were in the Place de Greve, being impatient to see him, he was obliged to go into an adjacent room; and during the short time of his absence, the Assembly came to a resolution of passing a general amnesty, in consequence of the festival which existed by the return of Mr. Neckar, and that the same should be read in all the churches of France; which resolution was in the highest degree acceptable to the worthy minister on his return. On the report of this transaction to the States General at large, however, some disputes ensued, and it was urged by some, that the electors of Paris had no right to grant a general amnesty, as such power belonged only to the Assembly; and the same day a resolution was brought forward, in which it was insisted, that a tribunal should be erected for judging of the demerits of such offenders as should be brought before it, on accusations of having attacked the safety, peace, or liberty of the public, though the people had a right to pardon them if they thought proper.

During this time of trouble and confusion, the English nation had become highly obnoxious to the French patriots. The reason of this was, that the people of England were reported to be such enemies to the French, that they had even denied them a morsel of bread in the time of their present calamity. The duke of Dorset had written a letter to the count d'Artois, which was found among the papers of the baron de Castelnau; and this was said to be in favour of the noblesse, and the party of the queen, who were inimical to the liberties of the people; though, in truth, it was merely complimentary. News had likewise been circulated of an English fleet sailing from Plymouth, to make an attempt on Brest; and a pamphlet against the commons had been published by lord Camelford. All these aspersions, however, were quickly wiped off, by a letter from the earl of Dorset to the count de Montmorin, and which was read in the National Assembly. On receipt of this letter, the Count de Liancourt, president of the Assembly, wrote a letter to the Count de Montmorin, in which he expressed the greatest satisfaction; and in consequence of this the English, from being treated as enemies, were held as affectionate friends, and the reconciliation was confirmed by some further correspondence between Dorset and Montmorin.

The national Assembly having now in a great measure overcome all opposition, proceeded to new model the constitution. For this purpose twenty two articles were formed; in which were included, an equal taxation; a renunciation of all privileges, whether personal, provincial, or municipal; redemption of feudatory rights; various suppressions and abolitions of particular jurisdictions, duties, and services; abolition of the sale of offices; justice to be executed without any

any expense to the people; admission of all citizens to civil and military offices; his Majesty to be proclaimed the Restorer of French Liberty; a medal to be struck, and *Te Deum* celebrated in memory of this remarkable event. On the representation of the minister, a loan of 30 millions was voted, in order to provide for the pressing exigencies of the state, until the finances could be properly regulated. The French guards were voted a medal of 50 livres; but, in the most patriotic manner, they sent three of their body to the Hotel de Ville, begging leave to decline this honour, on account of its expense; likewise refusing to accept of any pecuniary acknowledgement from their fellow citizens; but, however, as a mark of their approbation, desiring a medal of six livres each, to wear at their buttons. They were to be incorporated with the city militia, and to have 20 sols per day.

While the assembly were thus proceeding vigorously in their work of reformation, a report was spread of a mine having been formed from under the stables of the count d'Artois, to the hall of the Assembly, with a design to repeat the horrible scene at Quisnay. After the most diligent search, a vast hole of great depth was discovered in one of the cellars, but which did not appear to have any communication with any place in the neighbourhood; though from hence it was concluded, that some such horrid plot had been in agitation. In other respects they were disturbed by intelligence of dreadful disorders committed in the provinces; where, among many other shameful proceedings, it was proved, that a number of persons went from province to province, spreading false news; and encouraging the populace to insurrection; and even the authority of the king was pretended to be produced by these miscreants for every species of disorder. To remedy this atrocious evil they passed a decree, that all municipal bodies of the kingdom, as well in towns as in the country, should watch over the maintenance of general tranquillity; that, at their requisition, the national militia, and all the troops should come to their assistance, in pursuing and apprehending all public disturbers of the peace, &c. and to prevent any abuse of power, the national militia and soldiers should take a certain oath, the form of which was mentioned. This scheme was at first opposed by M. Mirabeau; but in a short time he dropped his opposition, and the resolution was carried unanimously, and had, soon after, the sanction of a royal proclamation to the same purpose.

The authority of the Assembly continuing still to increase, they next proceeded to take into consideration the revenues of the clergy, to examine the pension list, and to assign a particular sum of the royal revenue in time to come. The utmost extent of a country clergyman's revenue was fixed at 1500 livres, or L. 62, their curates to have L. 25; the city priests L. 100, and their curates, L. 53. The bishops, and other beneficed clergymen to undergo a proportionable reduction. They began also to consider the suppression of monastic orders, from which, and the proposed reduction of the clerical revenues, it was computed that the finances of the nation must be considerably augmented. From some calculations it appeared that the number of ecclesiastics, secular and regular, with the nuns, amounted to 316,274; and that, for their support, an annual revenue, of 117,699,500 livres was required. Near 80,000 of both sexes were supposed to belong to the dissenting orders, and there were 17,000 mendicants. The distressed state of the

the national finances now began to draw the attention; not only of the Assembly, but of the nation at large. In the beginning of September, it was announced to the Assembly, that there was a deputation of ladies from Paris, who came to offer their jewels and valuable ornaments for the service of their country. These fair patriots were received with the utmost politeness, and it was proposed by the ladies themselves, that an office should be established, merely for the reception of jewels, which should be sold, and the sum applied to the diminution of the national debt. An address of thanks was voted by the Assembly to these generous females; their names were ordered to be published in the votes of the Assembly; and they were authorized to wear a badge of distinction, on account of their having made such an honorable sacrifice. The example of the ladies of Paris, in giving up their jewels, was followed by a vast number of individuals throughout the kingdom, and many gifts of great value were every day brought in by patriots of all denominations.

But while matters were thus going on, seemingly in the most successful manner for the patriots, the king, at the head of the aristocratic party, had so far strengthened himself, that he ventured to give a very unfavourable answer to most of the requisitions of the Assembly. This, however, was the last effort of royalty. The commons, conscious of their own power, adhered strictly to the principles they had laid down, and which the other two orders were by no means able to oppose. The following articles were finally determined, as part of the new constitution of the kingdom.

1. All powers flow essentially from, and can only emanate from the nation.

2. The legislative power resides in the National Assembly, composed of the representatives of the nation freely and legally elected.

3. No act of the legislative body shall be deemed law, unless consented to by the representatives of the nation, and sanctioned by the king.

4. The supreme executive power resides in the hands of the king.

5. The judicial power can in no case be exercised by the king, nor by the legislative body; but justice shall be rendered in the name of the king, by the tribunals established by the law, according to the principles of the new constitution.

The distressed state of the national finances at last overcame every other consideration, and for sometime engrossed the attention of the Assembly. A bill was brought in by Mr. Neckar, taking into consideration the urgent necessities of the state; and proposing certain reductions in the royal households, pensions, clergy, &c. requesting also a contribution from all the inhabitants of the kingdom, but which was to be made only once, and not to be renewed on any pretence whatever.—The contribution was restricted to a nett fourth of the income, without any inquiry into the person's fortune; a list of contributions to be made out, and the money returned to them, if alive, in the year 1792, but their heirs not to be entitled to any benefit from it. None, whose income did not exceed 400 livres, to be included in the tax. This was followed by a donation of 100,000 livres from M. Neckar himself.—The plan was laid before the king, with the articles of the new constitution; but his Majesty informed them, that though he assented to the plan

plan of the new constitution, it was on this positive condition, that the general result of their deliberations should leave him in the full possession of the executive power. However, after making some remarks on the constitution, he acquiesced in it for the present, until a more perfect system could be adopted. This answer was deemed insufficient, and a deputation was sent to his Majesty, requiring his unequivocal assent to the new constitution.*

This was followed by most violent tumults. A new regiment of troops happening to arrive at Versailles, were sumptuously entertained by the Gardes du Corps in the palace. The king and queen themselves honoured them with their presence, by which the whole assembly were so elevated, that among other instances of their exultation, they tore the national cockades, the badge of patriotism, from their hats, trampled them under their feet, and supplied themselves with black ones. This produced such disturbances at Paris, that all the districts of the capital were summoned, and the marquis de la Fayette was ordered to proceed immediately to Versailles, at the head of a large body of troops, and bring the king under his guard to Paris. The marquis hesitated at first, but was soon glad to comply, on hearing that a gibbet was prepared for himself, and another for the mayor, in case of his refusal. In consequence of this pre-emptory command, he set out at the head of 20,000 men, and attended by several of the magistrates of Paris. The flame of patriotism, however, had now extended itself even to females of the lowest class. Eight thousand fish women had preceded the marquis, and about two o'clock next morning had entered the palace with an intention to seize and kill the queen. It was afterwards found, that several of the French guards had mixed among them in women's dresses. On their arrival, they forced their way to her Majesty's apartment, who instantly ran to that of the king, with only her shift on. The mob, however, were fortunately repulsed by the guards; of whom a greater number than ordinary had been ordered to sleep in the antichambers adjoining to the queen's apartment. On the arrival of the Parisian troops, a skirmish ensued betwixt them and the guards, in which several were killed on both sides, and among the rest several women who had mixed themselves with the patriotic soldiers. The regiment of Flanders, notwithstanding the affection they had pretended for the king, laid down their arms, and refused to fire. The body guard resisted as long as they were able, but at last were overpowered and put to flight; however, by the authority of the marquis de la Fayette, the Parisians were prevented from entering the palace. In a little time the marquis was introduced to the king, along with some of the magistrates of Paris, by whom the desire of the people was communicated to his Majesty that he should remove to the capital. As he knew that resistance would be vain, he complied with their desire on assurance of protection; and, the royal equipages being ordered to be got ready, he set out with the queen, the dauphin, Monsieur, the king's brother, and the king's aunts, attended by the marquis de la Fayette and about 5000 guards. The road was so crowded with people, that though 50,000 of the Parisian troops had been sent out to keep the way clear, it was six hours before they reached the Hotel de Ville, though the distance is only twelve miles. In this humiliating procession, it is not to be supposed but their Majesties must have met with many insults, sufficiently

disagreeable to people in their high station, abstracted from all considerations of personal safety. Indeed even of this there seemed now to be very considerable danger. The queen particularly was abused by the patriots of her own sex, who called loudly for her to be given up to them, that they might put out her eyes, and cut off her ears. On their arrival at the Hotel de Ville, the king was harranged by M. de St. Mery, who assured his Majesty that he had only been conducted to Paris for his better security, and that he would find himself more happy among his loyal children there than he had been at Versailles; after which he was conducted to the palace of the Thuilleries, an old and ruinous place, which had not been inhabited since the time of Louis XIV, and where no preparations had been made for the reception of the royal family.

Thus was the finishing stroke given to the authority of the French monarch. He instantly caused it to be announced to the National Assembly, that he complied with their demands in the fullest extent. Since that time he has continued a kind of prisoner, inasmuch, that he has not the freedom of going any where, even to the shortest distance, for the purpose of amusement, without the attendance of some persons under the name of guards. Having once spoke of taking the diversion of the chace, he was instantly informed, that 1000 of the Paris militia were ready to attend him; on which he declined the amusement. The marquis de la Fayette, touched with the miserable situation to which his sovereign was reduced, made a proposal for recalling his own guards; but this excited such murmurs among the people at large, that it was thought proper to drop the scheme altogether. At first the royal pair were overwhelmed with addressees and congratulations, many of them of a very disagreeable kind. The queen was constrained to give audience to a deputation of females of the very lowest class, some of whom were among those who had attempted to murder her a few nights before. These, by one whom they had chosen for their president, demanded the liberty of all prisoners who were not malefactors, deserters not excepted. The Count de Luxemburg then demanded in the name of the queen, the pardon of those princes of the blood royal who had been obliged to fly into foreign countries, viz. the count d'Artois, the princes of Conde, and Conti, which was agreed to. The fair president of this illustrious band is said to have appeared so pretty in the eyes of the king, that he did not suffer her to depart without a kiss.

The mob having thus presumed so far, soon ran into the greatest excesses; and, assuming the power of life and death, shewed a determination to proceed to execution in a summary way against every one who was obnoxious to them; but having put to death in this manner a baker, with some circumstances of barbarity, the Assembly instantly determined to put the capital under martial law. This was attended with so good an effect, that in a short time the disturbances ceased, and the Assembly were no more interrupted in their deliberations. Only a single attempt has been made to rescue the king, and this ended very unfortunately for the projector, the marquis le Faveras. In consequence of the discovery, this nobleman, with his wife, who is also princess of Anhalt Chambourg, were taken into custody. One of the witnesses against them was M. de St. Priest, secretary of state. He deposed, that, about the middle of August, he was accosted by an unknown gentleman,

gentleman, who afterwards owned himself to be the marquis le Faveras. This stranger told him that he felt for the king and royal family, and was ready to sacrifice himself if he could preserve them from the disasters which threatened both them and the kingdom in general. The privileges of the clergy and nobility, he said, ought to be supported; and he had a force of 1200 men ready to act against the National Assembly, and the marquis de la Fayette. The design is further said to have been that the marquis, M. Bailli, and the mayor, should have been murdered in the first place; after which the king and queen were to have been escorted to Lille, in Flanders, by a band of 3000 volunteers. The guard at the barrier towns, it is said, had been gained over to this scheme, and a loan of three or four millions procured for putting it in execution. A committee of inquiry was set on foot, and it having appeared to them that the marquis was really concerned in the affair, he was impeached, tried, and condemned by 21 judges against 19, to make the *Amende Honorable*, and then to be hanged; but as the new regulations required that four-fifths of the judges should be unanimous before a prisoner could be condemned, the execution of the sentence was suspended. But on the 18th of February 1790, he was again condemned to make the *Amende Honorable* before the gate of the cathedral of Notre Dame, from thence to be drawn in a cart to the Place de Greve, with his head and feet bare, a lighted flambeau of two pounds weight in his hand, and clothed in a linen frock covered with brimstone, having a label on his breast, with the words CONSPIRATOR AGAINST THE STATE, wrote upon it in large characters. And lastly, having confessed, on his knees, the crimes meditated against his country, and begged pardon of God, his country, his sovereign, and justice, he was to be hanged on a gallows erected for the purpose. This severe sentence was put in execution next day, without the least mitigation.

No institution does the Assembly more honour than the unlimited toleration in religious matters, which has at length taken place in that once intolerant country; and, what is very remarkable, this important point was carried without a division. By this act of toleration, every person, of whatever profession, the Jewish only excepted, is entitled to bear offices in the state, whether civil or military; nor can any thing be accounted an unlawful impediment, except disobedience to some of the decrees of the National Assembly. Thus it appears, that Catholics at last can shew unlimited toleration to Protestants, while the latter, in some countries, cannot bear with one another without the security of a *Test Act*; and while they are thus new-modelling the government, we cannot help observing, that every method is used to extinguish the debts of the French nation, without overburthening the people with taxes; a consideration which seems to have been long forgotten in Great Britain, where a tax is seldom taken off after being once laid on; while the produce seems to be employed for the purposes of luxury and idleness to individuals, rather than to supply the exigencies of the state. Even the Jews at Bourdeaux, and some other places, have had their privileges confirmed to them, which are very considerable viz. a liberty of partaking of the rights of citizens, of purchasing property, voting at elections, serving offices military and civil, and discharging the duties of them, even on the sabbath day. Another resolution has passed, that there shall be no distinction of orders in France, in consequence

consequence of which the whole body of nobility are annihilated. A third resolution determines, that it shall not be lawful for the officers of the police to imprison any person, by way of correction, for more than three days, without bringing him to a trial.

Among the patriotic exertions of the people we must reckon the destruction of the Bastile to have been the most remarkable.

"The mind," says Mr. Paine, "can hardly picture to itself a more tremendous scene than what the city of Paris exhibited at the time of taking the Bastile, and for two days before and after, nor conceive the possibility of its quieting so soon. At a distance, this transaction has appeared only as an act of heroism, standing on itself; and the close political connexion it had with the Revolution is lost in the brilliancy of the achievement. But we are to consider it as the strength of the parties, brought man to man, and contending for the issue. The Bastile was to be either the prize or the prison of the assailants. The downfall of it included the idea of the downfall of Despotism; and this compounded image was become as figuratively united as Bunyan's Doubting Castle and Giant Despair.

The National Assembly, before and at the time of taking the Bastile, was sitting at Versailles, twelve miles distant from Paris. About a week before the rising of the Parisians, and their taking the Bastile, it was discovered that a plot was forming, at the head of which was the Count d'Artois, the King's youngest brother, for demolishing the National Assembly, seizing its members, and thereby crushing, by a *coup de main*, all hopes and prospects of forming a free government. For the sake of humanity, as well as of freedom, it is well this plan did not succeed. Examples are not wanting to shew how dreadfully vindictive and cruel are all old governments, when they are successful against what they call a revolt.

This plan must have been some time in contemplation; because, in order to carry it into execution, it was necessary to collect a large military force round Paris, and to cut off the communication between that city and the National Assembly at Versailles. The troops destined for this service were chiefly the foreign troops in the pay of France, and who, for this particular purpose, were drawn from the distant provinces where they were then stationed. When they were collected, to the amount of between twenty-five and thirty thousand, it was judged time to put the plan into execution. The ministry who were then in office, and who were friendly to the Revolution, were instantly dismissed, and a new ministry formed of those who had concerted the project; among whom was Count de Broglie, and to his share was given the command of those troops. The character of this man, as described to me in a letter which I communicated to Mr. Burke before he began to write his book, and from an authority which Mr. Burke well knows was good, was that of "an high flying aristocrat; cool, and capable of every mischief."

While these matters were agitating, the National Assembly stood in the most perilous and critical situation that a body of men can be supposed to act in. They were the devoted victims, and they knew it. They had the hearts and wishes of their country on their side, but military authority they had none. The guards of Broglie surrounded the hall where the Assembly sat, ready, at the word of command, to seize

feize their persons, as had been done the year before to the Parliament in Paris. Had the National Assembly deserted their trust, or had they exhibited signs of weakness or fear, their enemies had been encouraged, and the country depressed. When the situation they stood in, the cause they were engaged in, and the crisis then ready to burst which should determine their personal and political fate, and that of their country, and probably of Europe, are taken into one view, none but a heart callous with prejudice, or corrupted by dependance, can avoid interesting itself in their success.

The Archbishop of Vienne was at this time President of the National Assembly; a person too old to undergo the scene that a few days, or a few hours, might bring forth. A man of more activity, and bolder fortitude, was necessary; and the National Assembly chose (under the form of a Vice-President, for the presidency still resided in the archbishop) M. de la Fayette, and this is the only instance of a Vice-President being chosen. It was at the moment that this storm was pending (July 11) that a declaration of rights was brought forward by M. de la Fayette. It was hastily drawn up, and makes only a part of a more extensive declaration of rights, agreed upon and adopted afterwards by the National Assembly. The particular reason for bringing it forward at this moment (M. de la Fayette has since informed me) was, that if the National Assembly should fall in the threatened destruction that then surrounded it, some traces of its principles might have the chance of surviving the wreck.

Every thing now was drawing to a crisis. The event was freedom or slavery. On one side, an army of nearly thirty thousand men; on the other, an unarmed body of citizens; for the citizens of Paris, on whom the National Assembly must then immediately depend, were as unarmed and as undisciplined as the citizens of London are now. The French guards had given strong symptoms of their being attached to the national cause; but their numbers were small, not a tenth part of the force that Broglie commanded, and their officers were in the interest of Broglie.

Matters being now ripe for execution, the new ministry made their appearance in office. The reader will carry in his mind, that the Bastille was taken the 14th of July; the point of time I am now speaking to, is the 12th. Immediately on the news of the change of ministry reaching Paris in the afternoon, all the play houses and places of entertainment, shops and houses, were shut up. The change of ministry was considered as the prelude of hostilities, and the opinion was rightly founded.

The foreign troops began to advance towards the city. The Prince de Lambesc, who commanded a body of German cavalry, approached by the Place of Lewis XV, which connects itself with some of the streets. In his march, he insulted and struck an old man with his sword. The French are remarkable for their respect to old age, and the insolence with which it appeared to be done, uniting with the general fermentation they were in, produced a powerful effect, and a cry of *To arms! to arms!* spread itself in a moment over the city.

Arms they had none, nor scarcely any who knew the use of them; but desperate resolution, when every hope is at stake, supplies for a while, the want of arms. Near where the Prince de Lambesc was drawn

drawn up, were large piles of stones collected for building the new bridge, and with these the people attacked the cavalry. A party of the French guards, upon hearing the firing, rushed from their quarters and joined the people; and night coming on the cavalry retreated.

The streets of Paris, being narrow, are favourable for defence; and the loftiness of the houses, consisting of many stories, from which great annoyance might be given, secured them against nocturnal enterprises; and the night was spent in providing themselves with every sort of weapon they could make or procure: Guns, swords, blacksmith's hammers, carpenters' axes, iron crows, pikes, halberds, pitchforks, spits, clubs, &c. &c.

The incredible numbers with which they assembled the next morning, and the still more incredible resolution they exhibited, embarrassed and astonished their enemies: Little did the new ministry expect such a salute. Accustomed to slavery themselves, they had no idea that Liberty was capable of such inspiration, or that a body of unarmed citizens would dare to face the military force of thirty thousand men. Every moment of this day was employed in collecting arms, concerting plans, and arranging themselves into the best order which such an instantaneous movement could afford. Broglio continued lying round the city, but made no farther advances this day, and the succeeding night passed with as much tranquillity as such a scene could possibly produce.

But defence only was not the object of the citizens. They had a cause at stake, on which depended their freedom or their slavery.— They every moment expected an attack, or to hear of one made on the National Assembly; and in such a situation, the most prompt measures are sometimes the best. The object that now presented itself was the Bastille; and the eclat of carrying such a fortress in the face of such an army, could not fail to strike a terror into the new ministry, who had scarcely yet had time to meet. By some intercepted correspondence this morning, it was discovered, that the Mayor of Paris, M. Desflesselles, who appeared to be in their interest, was betraying them; and from this discovery, there remained no doubt that Broglio would reinforce the Bastille the ensuing evening. It was therefore necessary to attack it that day; but before this could be done, it was first necessary to procure a better supply of arms than they were then possessed of.

There was adjoining to the city, a large magazine of arms deposited at the hospital of the invalids, which the citizens summoned to surrender; and as the place was not defensible, nor attempted much defence, they soon succeeded. Thus supplied, they marched to attack the Bastille; a vast mixed multitude of all ages, and of all degrees, and armed with all sorts of weapons. Imagination would fail in describing to itself the appearance of such a procession, and of the anxiety for the event which a few hours or a few minutes might produce. What plans the ministry was forming, were as unknown to the people within the city, as what the citizens were doing was unknown to them; and what movements Broglio might make for the support or relief of the place, were to the citizens equally unknown. All was mystery and hazard.

That the Bastille was attacked with an enthusiasm of heroism, such only as the highest animation of liberty could inspire, and carried in the

the space of a few hours, is an event which the world is fully possessed of. I am not undertaking a detail of the attack, but bringing into view the conspiracy against the nation which provoked it, and which fell with the Bastille. The prison to which the new ministry were doom- ing the National Assembly, in addition to its being the high altar and castle of despotism, became the proper object to begin with. This enter- prise broke up the new ministry, who began now to fly from the ruin they had prepared for others. The troops of Broglie dispersed, and himself fled also.

It is much to be wished that a particular history and description of this celebrated engine of tyranny were made public. At present we can only inform our readers in general, that in it were found the most horrible machines, calculated for grinding to mummy those unhappy criminals whom the cruelty or jealousy of the monarch, or even of his favourite mistress, had determined to destroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the skeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid mansion. Among the prisoners released by its destruction were major White, a Scotsman, and the earl Mazarine an Irish nobleman. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almost totally impaired by the long confinement and miseries he had endured; and, by being unaccustomed to converse with any human creature, he had forgot the use of speech. Earl Mazarine, after having left Paris, narrowly esca- ped being detained at Calais, but luckily escaped the danger, possibly owing this good fortune to his being taken for a madman. On his arri- val at the British shore, he eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on the ground, and kissed it. It doth not appear that any remarkable particulars concerning the treatment of prisoners in the Bastille have transpired from the accounts of these two persons. This cursed build- ing is now totally destroyed. The last stone of it was presented to the National Assembly in the beginning of the month of February 1790, by those brave soldiers and citizens who had exposed their lives in storming the place. M. Maillard, who presented the gift of these pa- triots, made the following speech. "Gentlemen, we are poor, and can therefore only offer the *Poor Man's Mite*, but we accompany it with an offering which, we flatter ourselves, will prove acceptable to our country, and, we hope, glorious to ourselves. It is the *Last Stone of the Bastille*." The gift was received with the loudest applause.

The demolition of this place, where people, without any crime, ex- cept perhaps having given offence to a strumpet, might be suddenly imprisoned for life, or even destroyed in a short time, must give pleasure to every friend to humanity. Unluckily great numbers of the papers belonging to it were burnt by the mob; but such as have been preserv- ed, abundantly shew the way in which the prisoners were sometimes treated. The following letter, from M. S—e, intendant of the police at Paris, to de Launay the governor of the Bastille, killed by the mob, was much spoke of. "My dear de Launay, I send you F—, an atrocious offender. Keep him eight days, after which order mat- ters;" i. e. let him be put to death. A memorandum was found in de Launay's hand writing, intimating, that, after the time specified, he had sent to S—e, to know under what name F— should be entered.

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The destruction of the Bastile has again called the attention of the public to a piece of history, which engaged the pens of several authors of the last and beginning of the present centuries. In the year 1661, a short time after the death of the cardinal Mazarine, an unknown prisoner was sent to the isle of St. Margaret, in the Mediterranean, near Provence. This person always wore a black mask, supposed to be of iron, but on examination found to consist of black velvet and whalebone. It was fastened on by steel springs, and fixed with a padlock, in such a manner, that he could not put it off himself, though he could eat and drink without being greatly incommoded by it. He was treated with the greatest respect, insomuch, that the governor of the castle where he was kept, always waited on him bare-headed, and never sat down in his presence, but it was understood that any discovery of himself would be attended with immediate death. He was exceedingly well made, and had something engaging in the sound of his voice; and according to the account of an old physician, who had seen the lower part of his face, in examining his tongue when sick, his complexion was very dark, and the skin of the rest of his body brownish. He never complained of his situation, or discovered the least inclination for liberty. He amused himself with playing on the guitar, and orders were given to supply him with every thing he required; but his chief passion seemed to be for fine laces and linen. His rank and quality were undoubtedly very high, as appeared from the respect shewed him not only by the governor, but by the prime minister of France, who once paid him a visit during his confinement in the isle of St. Margaret, and never sat down in his presence. The prisoner himself, however, did not at any time drop the least hint by which it might be conjectured who he was; but it seems that had it been in his power to make a discovery of himself, which might have been accounted accidental, it would undoubtedly have been done. The room in which he was confined had but one window, which looked towards the sea. A barber one day perceived something white floating under the prisoner's window, and taking it up, found it to be a very fine shirt carelessly folded up, which he had filled from one end to the other with writing. The unsuspecting barber carried it to the governor, but his officiousness cost him dear. He was found dead in his bed a few days after, murdered undoubtedly by the cruel instruments of oppression and despotism by whom the prisoner had been so long confined. Another time the prisoner wrote some words with a fork upon a small silver dish, and threw it out of the window towards a fishing boat which had approached almost to the foot of the wall; but this being also carried to the governor, the fisherman was in danger of sharing the same fate with the barber, had not the governor been assured that he could not read. In 1698 he was removed from this place of confinement to the Bastile, where he remained till the time of his death, November 19th, 1703. After his death the head was separated from the body, cut into small pieces and interred in different places. Orders were given to burn all his clothes, linen, matras, and coverlets. Even the panes of glass in the windows of his room were destroyed, the walls of it scraped and new-plastered, lest he should have wrote something on them which might tend to a discovery.

Such extraordinary secrecy could not but excite the curiosity of the public in a proportionable degree; but it would have been death to

any

any of those concerned in it to divulge the least article. M. Chamillard was the last minister to whom the secret was known. When on his death bed, his son-in-law, Marshal de Feuillade, conjured him to tell him who this prisoner was; but he replied, that it was a state secret, and he had sworn not to reveal it. While the prisoner remained in the Bastille, he found means to converse with another person confined in an adjacent apartment, through the funnels of the chimnies. The latter asked him why he concealed his name, and why he was shut up there; but he replied, that his confession would cost him his life, and occasion the destruction of all those to whom he might reveal the secret. Many conjectures have been formed concerning this extraordinary personage. Some have imagined that he was the duke of Beaufort, a turbulent nobleman who took an active part in the civil wars during the minority of Louis XIV. and was said to have been killed by the Turks at the siege of Candia. But this opinion is undoubtedly refuted by the profound respect on all occasions shewn to this prisoner by the greatest personages in the kingdom. Other imagine that he was the count de Vermandois, a natural son of Louis XIV. The cause of his imprisonment is said to have been his giving the dauphin a box in the ear; but this cannot be the case, if it be true that the man with the iron mask was confined in 1661, and that the count de Vermandois was only born in 1667. A third party suppose him to have been the duke of Monmouth, who rebelled against James II. He was sentenced to be beheaded, and the sentence said to be put in execution. A report however went, that the duke did not really suffer; but that one of his followers, who resembled him, had the courage to die in his stead. This opinion is still more untenable than the former; but it is now said to be fully manifest, from an original letter from the prince of Modena to the duke de Fronfac, that he was twin-brother of Louis XIV. and born only four hours after him. Thus the unfortunate prince, through the jealousy and bigotry of the times, was forever concealed from the eyes of the world all his life-time, and lingered out an useless and melancholy life. This account seems to be the only probable one, as it explains at once the very great respect shewn to the prisoner, and likewise the circumstance, otherwise unaccountable, that, at the time of his confinement, no person of consequence disappeared in Europe.

The foregoing account of the Revolution in France, is taken from Kincaid's Geographical Grammar. It has the appearance of being written by an impartial hand; and we give it as the best account, in detail, of this event, so far as it goes, of any that has come to our knowledge.

We are not furnished with materials sufficiently authentic and connected, to authorize a detail of the interesting events that have taken place in the course of the two last years, 1791 and 1792. We can only say in general, that the Revolution is not yet completed—that a Counter-Revolution has been set on foot by the French emigrants, in which the United powers of Austria, Prussia, part of the Germanic-body, Naples and Sardinia, are engaged—that their forces, to the amount, it is said, of upwards 500,000 men, are now on the borders of France—that France is torn by violent internal dissensions—that the National Assembly, on the 9th of August, passed a decree, “revoking the

the authority entrusted by the constitution to Louis XVI. and suspending him from that moment, until a National Convention shall have decreed the measures necessary to be pursued for preserving the National Independence—that the primary assemblies were to convene on the 26th of August, to elect their delegates to the National Convention, which was to meet at Paris on the 26th of September—that the National Assembly have named four commissioners, for the four armies, who have power to issue mandates of arrest, and pronounce the *suspension* and *dismissal* of the *General* and *Staff Officers*, who act against the general safety—and that the following decree of accusation against M. La FAYETTE, was passed on the 18th of August.

I. It appears to this Assembly that there is just ground for accusation against M. la Fayette, heretofore Commander of the Army of the North.

II. The Executive Power shall in the most expeditious manner possible, put the present decree into execution; and all constituent authorities, all citizens, and all soldiers, are hereby enjoined, by every means in their power, to secure his person.

III. The Assembly forbids the Army of the North any longer to acknowledge him as General, or to obey his orders; and strictly enjoins, that no person whatsoever shall furnish any thing for the troops, or pay any money for their use, but by the orders of M. Dumourier.

To give the reader some idea of the objects aimed to be accomplished by the Counter Revolutionists we add the following summary of the MANIFESTO on the part of the combined forces of AUSTRIA and PRUSSIA.

The King of France shall name the frontier town of his kingdom to which he desires to repair. The Duke of Brunswick shall send him a guard, besides his Military Household, which will be appointed by the Princes, his brothers.

The Emperor and the King of Prussia do not desire that the kingdom of France should be dismembered in any of its franchises; nor do they wish to intermeddle in the government.

They desire the restoration of the King to his liberty and full authority, the Ministers to their altars, and property to its proprietors.

The Deputies to the first and second Legislature shall be tried.

The National Assembly and the city of Paris are answerable, upon their heads and effects, for the life of the King, and that of all the Royal Family, to commence from the day of the publication of the Manifesto.

Every man who shall be taken with arms in his hands, shall be treated as a rebel, and tried according to military law.

Every man taken in the act of firing or throwing stones from his windows, shall be put to the sword, and his house burnt or demolished.

The National guards are enjoined to maintain good order, and are responsible, as well as all administrators, both collectively and individually, upon their heads and effects, for every event.

The Duke of Brunswick and the Prussian army, will protect all individuals that shall declare for the King; and the said army is prohibited, under pain of death, from committing any act of vengeance or justice, without receiving orders.

The Duke of Brunswick will retain in his pay all regiments or military that shall declare for the King.

No pardon will be granted to whoever shall oppose the King's departure, and his passage to the town that he may appoint.

Lewis XVI. king of France and Navarre, was born in 1754, succeeded his grandfather Lewis XV. in 1774, married, 1770, to Maria Antoinetta, sister of the emperor of Germany, born 1755. Their issue are Madame Maria Theresa Charlotte, born on the 19th of December 1778; and Lewis Joseph-Xavier-Francis, dauphin of France, born October 22, 1781.

N. B. The reader who wishes to obtain a knowledge of the history of France, may consult Cæsar's Commentaries, Rollin's Ancient History, Universal History, Voltaire, and Sully's Memoirs.

S P A I N.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 700	} between { 10 and 3 east longitude, 36 and 44 north latitude.
Breadth 500	

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the West, by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the East; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from France, on the North; and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar, on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean; as in the following table:

T A B L E.

T A B L E.

DIVISIONS.	Areas in square Miles.	Population.	Population for every square Mile.	TOWNS.
	148,448 ac- cording to Lopez's map.	10,500,000 Ct. Aranda.	70	130 Villages and Boroughs 21,000 according to others 18,000
1. New Castile	28,000			Inhabit. Madrid — 140,000 Toledo — 16,000 Aranquez — 7,000
2. Old Castile	11,840			Burgos — 10,000 Segovia — 9,500
3. Leon	12,880			Leon — 6,000 Valladolid — 19,000 Salamanca — 13,000
4. Granada	9,260	500,000	53	Granada — 52,000 Malaga — 41,000
5. Andalusia, viz. Sevilla or Seville Cordova and Jaen	15,960	325,000		Seville (120,000) — 80,000 Cadiz — 80,000 Cordova — 20,000 Jaen — 27,000 Antequera — 19,600
6. Murcia	3,000			Murcia — 44,000 Cartagena — 28,000

T A B L E.

T A B L E - C O N T I N U E D.

D I V I S I O N S.		Areas in Square Miles.	Population.	Population for every Square Mile.	T O W N S.
7.	Valencia	7,850	716,000	91	Valencia Alicante
8.	Catalonia	9,280	Cavanilles		Barcelona Tarragona Lerida
9.	Aragon or Arragon	11,360	471,000	41	Sarragoça Huesca
10.	Navarra or Navarre	2,880			Pampelona Tudela
11.	Biscaya, Guipuzca, and Alava	4,460			Bilbao St. Sebastian
12.	Asturia	3,840			Oviedo
13.	Galicia	10,240			St. Jago Compostella
14.	Eftremadura				Corunna Ferrol
15.	Balearic Islands				Badayoz Merida
	Majorca	1,440			Palma
	Minorca	753	27,800	37	Mahon
	Ivica		Murray		Ciudadella Ivica

POSSESSIONS IN OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

1. In *Africa*. On the Coast of Barbary, the towns of Ceuta, Oran, Melilla, and Mafalquivir: the Canary Islands, viz. Canaria, Ferro, Teneriffe, &c. The islands of Annabon and Delpo, under the Equator.

2. In *Asia*. The Philippine Islands; the principal of which is Luzon, whose capital is Manilla. The Marian, the Caroline, and Palaos Islands.

3. In *America*, immense provinces, much larger than all Europe, most of which are astonishingly fertile.

(1.) In North America, Louisiana, California, Old Mexico, or New Spain, New-Mexico, both the Floridas.

(2.) In the West-Indies, the island of Cuba, one half of St. Domingo, Potorico, Trinidad, Margareta, Tortuga, &c.

(3.) In South-America, Terra-Firma, Peru, Chili, Tucuman, Paraguay, Patagonia.

These extensive countries we have already described.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Hesperia, as well as Hispania. It was about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Uterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Uterior, which was the largest part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whose ancient history, at least the interior part of it, we know less than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, AND WATER.] Excepting the period of the equinoxial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessively hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreshing breezes that come from them in the southernmost parts; though those towards the north and north-east are, in the winter, very cold.

The waters of Spain, especially those that are medicinal, are little known; but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are outdone by those of no country in Europe; and the inclosing, and encouraging a resort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, especially at Alhamat in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous: The chief, and the highest, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France, and the road over the pass that separates Roussillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the strength of 30 men to support, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage; which four horses now do with ease. The Cantabrian mountains are a continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. The celebrated Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, was in former times, known under the name of one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lies opposite to it in Africa.

Among

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape and composition. It stands in a well plain about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte Serrado, or Mount Seir, words which signify a tall or lofty mountain, and is so called from its singular and extraordinary form. For it is broken and divided, and so composed with an infinite number of spiring cones or pine heads, that it has the appearance, at a distant view, to be the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, to be evidently a natural production. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose habit now it never is to forsake it. When the mountain is first seen at a distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of granite work, or Gothic spires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain, and the whole composed an enormous mass about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands quite unconnected with any, though not very distant from towns that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our Lady of Montserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the farthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons assemble on one day; and monks of condition pay a reasonable price for that they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages; all of which have their little chapels, or names for saying mass, waives, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitants of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Basile, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain priest; and after divine service, dine together. They meet also at this hermitage, on the days of the saints to which their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very solitary and seclude manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence, nor do they ever eat flesh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, fowl, or any living thing, till their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly objects. The number of professed monks there is 26, of lay brethren 24, and of singing boys 25, besides a physician, surgeon, and servants. Mr. Hackville, who has published a very particular description of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation, the islands of Minorca, Majorca, and Ibiza, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

R. H. H. S.

* Mr. Hackville computes its height at only 2,200 feet, and observes, that the summit of the convent of the Virgin Mary being at the foot of a rock, half cut through by a law.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] These are the Duero, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tago or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquivir, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean, near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a most surprising manner. If a stone happen to fall in, and rest upon another, they both become, in a year's time, perfectly united. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dies of the same hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature: For when it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean sea six leagues lower down.

There are several lakes in Spain. That of Beneventa, abounds with fishes, particularly with excellent trout. Of the water of a lake near Antiquera salt is made by the heat of the sun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna, (commonly called the Croyne,) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagea, Alicante, Altea, Valencia, Roscs, Majorca in that island, and the harbour of Port-Mahon, in the island of Minorca. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] The kingdom of Spain might be one of the richest countries in Europe. It borders, like France, upon two seas; it is intersected by six large streams, and by upwards of fifty smaller rivers; it has very considerable mountains, and its climate is, in some respects, still finer than that of France. With respect to its size, it is somewhat smaller than the latter; however, the advantages just enumerated, added to the immense extent and wealth of the Indies, ought to raise this monarchy high above all the other powers of Europe. And yet the reverse is the case; Spain is thinly peopled, has but little commerce, few manufactures, and what commerce it has is almost entirely in the hands of strangers, notwithstanding the impediments thrown in their way by government. With respect to the industry and fertility of the several provinces, Abbé Cavaulès distinguishes between the central and outward provinces; the latter, viz. Galicia, Asturia, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, and the south of Andalusia, are better watered and wooded, consequently less hot, and upon the whole much more fertile, than the middle provinces; most of them have besides, the advantage of being maritime provinces. As a favourable instance of the fertility and industry of Spain, the same author has stated the produce of the province of Valencia, in the following manner:

					<i>French Livres.</i>
Silk, 2,000,000lb. valued at	—	—	—	—	30,000,000
Hemp,	—	—	—	—	1,500,000
Flax,	—	—	—	—	1,500,000
Wool, of the coarser sort, 23,000 cwt.	—	—	—	—	920,000
Rice,	—	—	—	—	5,180,000
Oil, 1000,000 cwt.	—	—	—	—	4,500,000
Wine, 3,000,000 cantaros,	—	—	—	—	2,250,000
Dried raisins, 60,000 cwt.	—	—	—	—	600,000
Figs,	—	—	—	—	480,000
Dates,	—	—	—	—	300,000
					<hr/> 46,730,000

The articles of corn, oil, maize, almonds, soda, salt, and the fisheries of the same province, amounted 1770, to 65,000,000 livres. The amount and variety of these productions is really astonishing; yet it must be owned, that this province is perhaps the richest in Spain. One of the greatest obstacles to agriculture in this kingdom is the breeding very large flocks of sheep, the value of which is estimated in Spain at 30,000,000 livres. They take up too great an extent of ground for their subsistence, to the prejudice of agriculture and population. The number of those sheep whose wool is of the finest sort, is estimated at 5,000,000; the profits arising from them amount, annually, to 8,500,000 livres, of which 2,200,000 are paid to the king, 5,600,000 must be deducted from the necessary expenses, and only 700,000 livres are the clear benefit to the proprietors. Of this fine wool, 40,000 cwt. is annually sent off to London and Bristol; about the same quantity to Rouen; 20,000 cwt. to Amsterdam, of which only 6000 cwt. remains in Holland; the rest is exported chiefly to different parts of Germany. The principal towns which carry on the wool-trade, are harbours of Bilboa and Santander, where wool is shipped for exportation; and those which produce the finest sorts of wool, are Leon, Segovia, (which alone produces 25,000 cwt.) Avila, Burgos, and Soria.

Agriculture flourishes most in the provinces of Castile and Estremadura; but, upon the whole, Spain does not produce corn enough for its consumption, and is under the necessity of importing large quantities.

Spain produces excellent fruit, as oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, and grapes. In 1764, they were exported from the harbour of Malaga, 7000 chests of lemons and oranges, holding from 1000 to 1500, each; 1000 barrels of figs, at 75—150lb. each; 400 barrels of almonds, of 275—300lb. each; 500 balls of orange and lemon-peel; 15 balls of rosemary, the ball weighing 750lb. Pomegranates, dates pistachios (besides the kernel of this fruit, which resembles an almond in flavour, the leaves of it are used in Spain; they are boiled down to a resinous juice, which serves instead of frankincense). Capers, chestnuts, of which 30,000 sheplasts are produced in the province of Asturia; filberts, 30,000 bags of which, sold at 1l. sterling each, are sent over to England. The sugar-cane, which at present is little cultivated, on account of the importation of West-India sugar: Only four sugar-mills are now remaining in the province of Granada. Soda, saffron, tobacco. The greatest tobacco-manufacture is at Seville; it employs 1000

workmen, and 180 mules, used to put 28 mills in motion. The building used for this purpose resembles a palace in magnificence, and the profits it yields, amount to 6,000,000 of dollars: Every day 24,000lb. of tobacco are dried. Tobacco is mixed in this manufacture with a sort of red earth, called Almagra (*rubrica frabrilis*) which is found near Carthagena, in the province of Murcia. Upwards of 1000lb. of honey is exported; but the consumption of wax is so great, that a great deal must be imported from the West-Indies. Salt is very plentiful in Spain; there are not only many rich brine-springs, but large quantities of rock salt; and much salt is also extracted from the sea-water. Unhappily, the salt trade is a monopoly of the crown. Saltpetre abounds in this country; the soil is impregnated with it, and many peasants have saltpetre pits: If properly attended to, considerable quantities for exportation might be produced. The wines of Spain are celebrated for their rich and delicious flavour, and they form very considerable articles of exportation.

Next to the province of Valencia, those of Arragon, Granada, and Murcia, are distinguished for the large quantities of silk they supply. The whole produce of silk, within these four provinces, was estimated, about 30 years ago, at about 1,500,000lb. annually. This produce has increased of late: In 1776, Granada and Murcia produced 700,000lb. and Valencia upwards of 1,000,000. In 1762, the silk raised in Valencia, amounted to 1,150,000lb. in Murcia to 400,000, in Arragon to 170,000, in Granada to 100,000lb. Notwithstanding these vast quantities of silk, the silk manufactures are few and inconsiderable in proportion; scarcely the fourth part of those remain which were in a flourishing state in the 16th century. Of 70,000 looms, which Spain formerly had, Ustariz found only 10,000 remaining in the year 1724. Since that time, their number has again increased.

Cotton is likewise one of the many productions of this kingdom; Valencia, in good years, produces 120,500 cwt. most of which is exported raw. The best cotton-manufactures are in Valencia, Arragon, and Catalonia.

Gold and silver was found in the mines in very considerable quantities during the times of the Roman dominion, and even afterwards by the industrious Moors. At present only a few silver mines are worked, among which, that at Guadalcornal, in the province of Estremadura, is the most important. It was formerly worked to very great advantage by German adventurers, but it is at present greatly on the decline: It is said to have produced, while in a flourishing state, to the amount of 60,000 ducats a week. A few silver mines are found in the provinces of Granada, Arragon, and Catalonia. Arragon produces a great deal of iron, most of which is exported as it is brought from the mines, and is imported again when manufactured abroad. This province produces likewise very large quantities of lead; the clear profits of one of these lead mines, at Binares, amounted to 3,000,000 dollars in seven years. Quicksilver is found in the rich mines of Guadalcornal and Almada. The first who worked them were Germans; the celebrated Fuger, so conspicuous for his wealth in Charles the Fifth's time, got most of his riches from the mine of Almada. In the middle of the present century, the produce of quicksilver, amounted to 18,000 cwt. the whole of which is sent over to America for the purpose

pose of almagamating; and the sale of quicksilver to strangers is severely prohibited.

Spain is indebted to German mineralogists for the discovery of some rich mines of cobalt: The most important of them is that of Gistán, in Arragon. Besides metals, the mineral kingdom affords many valuable articles, among which the quarries of marble, alabaster, and other useful stones, deserve to be mentioned.

Spain now first begins to think of facilitating trade, by the establishment of a bank, and by the improvement of the inland communication, by means of good roads and canals. A paper-bank was established in 1782, an East-India Company incorporated in 1785, and a large canal begun near Zaragoza in 1784.

All the exports of Spain, most articles of which no other European country can supply, are estimated at only 80,000,000 livres, or 3,333,333*l.* sterling; a very inconsiderable amount, as will appear from the above specification of the excellent and various articles of production. The most important trade of Spain is that which it carries on with its American provinces. The chief imports from these extensive countries consist of gold, silver, precious stones, pearls, cotton, cocoa, cochineal, red wood, skins, rice, medicinal herbs and barks, as saffras, Peruvian bark, &c. Vanilla, Vicunna wool, sugar, and tobacco. In 1784, the total amount of the value of Spanish goods exported to America, was 195,000,000 reales de vellon; foreign commodities, 238,000,000 *r. d. v.* The imports from America were valued at 900,000,000 reales de vellon, in gold, silver, and precious stones; and upwards of 300,000,000 in goods. In the *Gazeta de Madrid*, 1787, (Feb. 20th) it was stated, that the exports to America (the Indies) from the following twelve harbours: Cadiz, Corunna, Malaga, Seville, St. Lucar, Santander, Canarias, Alicante, Barcelona, Tortosa, Giron, St. Sebastian, amounted, in 1785, to 767,249,787 reales de vellon; the duties paid on these exports amounted to 28,543,702 reales de vellon. The imports, both in goods and money, from America and the West-India islands, amounted in the same year to 1,266,071,067 reales de vellon, and the duties to 65,472,195 reales de vellon. The profits of the merchants from the whole American trade was valued at 5,000,000 dollars.

With respect to European commerce, the balance is generally against Spain, and those losses must be made up by the produce of its American provinces. All the exports from Spain to Great-Britain, amounted, in 1785, to 697,712*l.* sterling; the imports from Great-Britain, to 788,064*l.* sterling. In 1784, the exports were 646,526; the imports 808,698*l.* sterling.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } The Spanish horses, especially those of
BY SEA AND LAND. } Andalusia, are thought to be the handsomest
of any in Europe, and at the same time very fleet and servicable. The king does all he can to monopolise the finest breed for his own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have so much ferocity, that their bull-fights were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now diffused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey that infest Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already described. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

POPULATION.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Spain, formerly the most
 CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } populous kingdom in Eu-
 rope, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great
 drains of people sent to America, and partly to the indolence of the
 natives, who are at no pains to raise food for their families. Another
 cause may be assigned, and that is, the vast numbers of ecclesiastics, of
 both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given sev-
 eral other causes, such as their wars with the Moors, and the final ex-
 pulsion of that people. The present inhabitants of this kingdom have
 been computed by Feyjoo, a Spanish writer, to amount to 9,250,000 ;
 count Aranda makes them as stated in the Table.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Cas-
 tilians ; Their hair and complexions swarthy, but their countenances
 are very expressive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great
 pains to clear their upper lips of mustachoes, and to introduce among
 them the French drels, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkin,
 frait breeches, and long Toledo swords, which drel is now chiefly
 confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of
 the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated drel in
 hatred and contempt of the French ; and the government, probably,
 will find some difficulty in abolishing it quite, as the same spirit is far
 from being extinguished. An Old-Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees
 none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature ;
 and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendants.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the most
 valuable effects. It inspires the nation with generous, humane, and
 virtuous sentiments ; it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman,
 gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the
 most embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years
 past, there is no instance known of their taking advantage (as they
 might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board
 their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally secure in time of war
 as in peace.

By the best and most credible accounts of the late wars, it appears
 that the Spaniards, in America, gave the most humane and noble relief
 to all British subjects who were in distress, and fell into their hands,
 not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money ; and treating
 them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish between the
 Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which is
 to be put on the same footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who
 are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings
 of Spain of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ na-
 tive Spaniards of great families, as their ministers. These are general-
 ly French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise into pow-
 er by the most infamous arts, and of late times, from the most abject sta-
 tions. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, since their accession
 to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cab-
 inet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled
 his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace ;
 and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion
 in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service. There are about 40,000 gypsies, and who, besides their fortune telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards, is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, after his late travels through the country: "The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians a more sullen, sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontadoes of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The new Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation; the old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient simplicity of manner; both are of a firm determined spirit.—The Arragonese are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than a province of an absolute monarchy; and the Galicians a slothful plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in quest of an hardly earned subsistence."

Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their pleasures easily satisfied. The inferior orders, even in the great cities are miserably lodged, and those lodgings wretchedly furnished. The poorer sort, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings, and coarse bread steeped in oil and occasionally seasoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country people throughout the provinces. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bed with him, and if per chance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he must even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform these offices to strangers; but lately some tolerable inns have been opened by Irish and Frenchmen in cities, and upon the high roads. The pride, indolence, and laziness of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more industrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contrast distinguishes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard seldom stirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He sleeps, goes to mass, takes his evening walk. While the industrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domestic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the same family; he powders the hair, cuts the corns, wipes the shoes, and after making himself useful in a thousand different shapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expense of his proud benefactor.

The Spaniards are universally known to have refined notions and excellent sense; and this, if improved by study and travelling, which they

they now stand in great need of, would render them superior to the French themselves. Their slow, deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to such a degree, that during the two last wars, they were found to be as quick both in resolving and executing, if not more so than their enemies. Their secrecy, constancy and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in several of their provinces, particularly Galacia, Granada, and Andalusia the common people have, for some time, assiduously applied themselves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their ferocity in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup in bed; their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, sallad and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The promiscuous head sometimes appears through a trap-door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Jealousy is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly, musical feasts of the mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the bull-seasts, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a great figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of shewing courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the champion is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great use is made of settling the forms and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself, which is attended with circumstances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large square for the purpose of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is said that even the poorest inhabitants of the smallest villages, will often club together, in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them riding upon asses, for want of horses.

GOVERNMENT.] Spain is at present an absolute monarchy. The meeting of the deputies of the towns, whenever a new tax is to be imposed, is a mere matter of form. Some provinces, however, as Navarre, Biscay, and Arragon, have preserved some of their ancient immunities. The king's edicts, before they acquire the force of laws, must be registered in the court of Castile. The crown is hereditary, both in the male and female line. By a law made in 1715, female heirs cannot succeed till after the whole male line is extinct.

Public business is managed by the following departments: The Council of State, or the Cabinet; of the ministers belonging to it, the secretary of state for foreign affairs is considered as the first. The Supreme Royal Court, or Chamber of Castile, occupied with the internal administration. It is likewise the Supreme Court of justice in the kingdom, and is divided into four chambers: The Council of War, the Royal Council of the Indies, and the Council of Finances. There are 12 tribunals in the different provinces of Spain, called Chancillerias, Consejo, or Audiencias. In the smaller towns, the judges of the inferior courts of justice are called Alcaldes or Bayles; in the larger cities, Corregidores, and their assessors Regidores. Law suits in this country are exceedingly expensive, and of long duration.

The civil, criminal, and police laws, are partly derived from the ancient Gothic laws, and partly contained in the edicts of the kings. In cases where these laws are deficient, the Roman laws are made use of. In ecclesiastical matters, the canon or papal law, in its full extent, is adopted as the rule of right.

Fundamental laws of the monarchy are the following: 1. The indivisibility of the Spanish dominions. 2. The right of primogeniture, which put an end to the custom of dividing the kingdom between the sons of the king. And, 3. The above-mentioned clause concerning the succession of the female line.

The provinces are governed by viceroys (*Virreyes*); and all the American dominions of Spain are divided into three royal governments, under the viceroys of New-Granada, Mexico, and Peru. There are nine superior courts of justice, or Audiencias, in America, and one in the Philippine Islands.

FINANCES.] The king's revenue from old Spain amounts to upwards of 5,000,000*l.* sterling. The whole of the revenue from Spain, America, and the Philippine Islands, is said to amount to 100 millions of piasters.

The public revenue is divided into the general and provincial revenue. The first arises, 1. From the customs and the duties on imported goods from abroad, as well as on those imported from one province into another. 2. From the monopolies of the crown, viz. those of tobacco, salt, lead, quicksilver, and gunpowder. 3. From stamp duties, contributions, a tax on landed estates, taxes levied on the estates of the clergy, from the sale of papal absolutions and indulgences, reduced to the price of 40 sous each, from the posts, deductions from the salaries of public officers, and the mint. 4. The crown revenue from America. 5. The crown revenue from Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, and Minorca. What is called the provincial revenue arises from the 22 provinces, into which the kingdom of Castile has been divided; it consists of various tithes, and duties on soap, brandy, wine, and other articles. Part of the provincial contributions are assigned over to the creditors of the crown, in lieu of interest on their capitals. Many branches of the revenue are farmed out to companies. The farm of tobacco alone employs no less than 53,000 collectors. Before the year 1770, the public expenditure was nearly equal to the revenue, but has been found since to exceed it. In the year 1770, a deficiency of five millions of piasters was made good, by withholding the sums destined for the extraordinary expence of the colonies.

Spain is burthened with considerable public debts; they are at present divided into the old and new debts: The former are those contracted by the wars of Charles V. and his successors, amounting to 130 millions of piasters; the new debts have been chiefly incurred by the last war with England, and they are stated by Mr. Neckar to amount to 120 millions of French livres, which will be paid off by the year 1800, if no new war should happen.

ARMY.] The army of Spain, in 1783, amounted to between 60 and 70,000 men; besides 20,000 militia. According to others, the regular troops did not then actually exceed 50,000 men; and more recent accounts reduce the army to only 20,000 effective men. The army establishment, as published in the year 1776, amounted to 132,730 men on the lists, viz.

Royal guards,	_____	_____	_____	9,900
Forty-six regiments of foot,	_____	_____	_____	61,425
Artillery,	_____	_____	_____	3,355
Engineers,	_____	_____	_____	150
Horse and dragoons,	_____	_____	_____	13,200
Militia,	_____	_____	_____	29,700
Invalids and militia of the town,	_____	_____	_____	15,000

			Total,	132,730

This number, if actually raised in time of war, would be very moderate, considering the great extent of the kingdom. There are military schools at Segovia, Barcelona, and Oran, chiefly for artillery. A tactic school is established at Avila. There are, on the French frontiers, 15 strong fortresses, and as many on the frontiers of Portugal.

NAVY.] In 1778, Spain had ships of war of all sorts 144. Other accounts say only 126. In 1784, there were said to be 62 ships of the line, from 120 to 62 guns. The naval troops consisted, in 1783, of three companies of guardias marinas, and 12 battalions of marines, both together, 5712 men, a naval artillery corps of 20,000 men; a corps of naval engineers, a corps of pilots.

All naval affairs are managed by a board, divided into three departments, those of Cadiz, Carthagená, and Ferrol, which are the chief harbours of the navy. The whole is under the administration of a secretary of the marine; and each department has its naval academy.

RELIGION.] The Roman Catholic religion is the exclusive religion of the Spanish monarchy, and it is in these countries of the most bigoted, superstitious, and tyrannical character. All other denominations of Christians, as well as the Jews, are exposed to all the severities of persecution; and the least deviation from what is called the orthodox faith, is liable to be punished with loss of liberty, and even of life. The power of the Court of inquisition, established in Spain in 1478, has however been considerably diminished in some respects by the interference of the civil power. Besides the Supreme Court of Inquisition at Madrid, there are 18 inferior tribunals in the several provinces of the monarchy, which entertain a numerous host of spies or familiars, amounting to about 20,000 persons, who, on the slightest suspicion of heresy, denounce persons of every condition, sex, and age. The proceedings of this arbitrary court are unlike those of all other courts of justice, by deviating from every law of equity and humanity; they

do not even inform the accused party of the crime laid to his charge, nor confront him with his accuser, but endeavour to extort by imprisonment, and by still harsher methods, a confession of heretical opinions.

The public worship is loaded with an enormous number of ceremonies, calculated to support the blind zeal of the people for their religion; and the reverence for their spiritual tyrants. The whole of the canon law is here in force, and the power of the pope is still very extensive. It is supposed that the clergy of this kingdom amount to 200,000 persons, half of whom are monks and nuns, distributed through 3000 convents. The possessions of the clergy are very large; the revenue of the archbishop of Toledo amounts to 100,000*l.* sterling, per annum. There are in the kingdom of Spain eight archbishops and 46 bishops; in America six archbishops and 23 bishops; in the Philippine Islands, one archbishop and three bishops. All these dignities are in the gift of the king. Fifty-two inferior ecclesiastical dignities and offices are in the gift of the pope.

To the Spanish clergy there belong three spiritual orders of knight-hood: The orders of Santiago, Calatrava, and Alcantara, possessed of very large estates.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The former of these consist
ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } chiefly of Roman and Moorish
antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 152 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Totedo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, said to be one of the greatest curiosities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned and simple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Murviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) destroyed by Hannibal, are some Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards diameter, some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the most distinguished of these is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the most entire, as well as the most stately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double

double of imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1563, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone; the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso relievo. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled round, and built of large stones of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and ceilings, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabic sentences. It is the most curious place within, that perhaps exists in Europe. Here are several baths, the walls, floor, and ceiling of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaliph, situated on a more elevated station than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the finest prospects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the snowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loss of Granada, and still offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain; some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, form a principal part; but we must not forget the River Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is said to emerge. The royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid, was opened to the public by his majesty's orders in 1775. Every thing in this collection is arranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shewn privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beasts at present is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spanish American colonies. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basins, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, set with cameos, intaglios, &c. in an elegant taste, and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone. On the west side of the mountain is the cave, called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactites, of a whitish colour, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the straits, the towns

towns of St. Roque and Algebras, and the Alpuzara mountains, mount Abyla on the African shore, with its snowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coast.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid, which is enclosed by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for show, convenience being little considered: Thus you will pass through usually two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses, in general, look more like prisons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh.—Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor news paper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city; it is a spacious, magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence: the great audience chamber especially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimson velvet, richly embroidered with gold. Ornamented also with 12 looking-glasses, made at St. Ildefonso, each 10 feet high, with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marbles. The other royal palaces round it are designed for hunting seats or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces are the Buen Retiro (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture,) Casca del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

A late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is also a park many leagues round, cut across in different parts by alleys of two, three, and even four miles in extent. Each of these alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees; one double row on the right and one on the left, which renders the shade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreast, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a stream of water. Between these allies there are thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds, and thousands of deer and wild boars wander there at large, besides numberless hares, rabbits, pheasants, partridges, and several other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleasant, adorned with fountains and statues, and it also contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered, and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water, called here *El Mar*, the sea, which supplies the fountains:— This reservoir is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace, is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and with a large iron palisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains; the basons are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt.— These gardens are in the formal French style, but ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaden vases gilt. The Upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts, and basso relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial; and the natives say, perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizable quarto volume, and it is said, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east, 366, and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones, surpassing all imagination. The Spaniards say, that this building, besides its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thousand volumes, besides large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanics, noble walks, with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12000*l*. The mausoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 96 feet in diameter incrusted with fine marbles.

But this fabric, notwithstanding the incredible sums bestowed on it, discovers, upon the whole, a bad taste. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St. Lawrence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on such a utensil, and multiplying the same figure through its principal ornaments, could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French at St. Quintin, on St. Lawrence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides, forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long square of 640 feet by 580. The height to the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors; but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable whole. It must however be confessed, that the pictures and statues that have found admission here, are excellent in their kind, and some of them not to be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts, called the Puntals. The streets are narrow, ill paved and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houses lofty with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof a few years since, was not half finished. The environs are beautifully rural.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana, is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where, in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. Manufactures in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a movable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind; and which is referred to in Don Quixote.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houses, is situated on the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted, and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege they sustained in 1714 against a formidable army, when deserted both by England and the Emperor for whom they had taken up arms.

A singular custom prevails among them on the 1st of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from house to house to eat chestnuts, believing that for every chestnut they swallow, with proper faith andunction, they shall deliver a soul out of purgatory.

Carthagera is a large city, but has very good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a spacious square south-west of the town, with forty pieces of cannon to defend it toward the sea. When Mr. Swinburne visited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spanish criminals, and 600 Barbary slaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were sent there, deserved indeed exemplary punishments.

Granada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit between two rivers, the Dauro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants; the streets are now filthy and the aqueducts crumbled to dust, and its trade is lost. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned useful, the surplus is made up of superfluous clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre, for bull feasts, is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain, and the environs of the city are still pleasing and healthful.

Bilboa is situated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the sea. It contains about eight hundred houses, with

with a large square by the water side, well shaded with pleasant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly in sailing up the river; for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery. The houses are solid and lofty, and the streets well paved and level; and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure; which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes, which give such reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle, on the point of a rock, commands every part of it. The streets are narrow, and the most remarkable building in it is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. said to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The bishop's income is 16,000*l.* sterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, but on three hills and two vallies, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. Over some of the arches of their houses are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and of several eminent men, in stone basso-relievo, among which are those of Ferdinand Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of 25 arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and during several centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees, stripped it of its numerous inhabitants. It is now exceedingly ill built, poor and mean, and the streets very steep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castile, but now in obscurity.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, is at present in the possession of Great-Britain. It was taken from the Spaniards by a combined fleet of English and Dutch ships, under the command of Sir George Rooke, in 1704; and after many fruitless attempts to recover it, was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success: The last war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long siege against the united forces of Spain and France by land and sea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garrison, to the great loss and disgrace of the assailants: Though it must be granted, the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near three hundred pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raised, and sold, to be distributed among the garrison. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding

manding the passage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant seas. But the road is neither safe against an enemy nor storms: The bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The straits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the enemies bombs, but on account of its fortifications, is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible that way. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them: Notwithstanding which they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are brought them either from England, or from Ceuta, on the opposite coast of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing those abuses which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to say. Minorca, which was taken by the English in 1708, was retaken by the Spaniards the last war, and is now become a Spanish island again, containing about 23,000 inhabitants.

GENERAL REMARKS.] Whoever considers the climate, the fertility, and the immense extent of the dominions belonging to the crown of Spain, must be grieved to find the accumulated natural treasures of so great a part of the globe, turn out to so little advantage to the human species. A comparison of this kingdom with France or England, shews its inferiority in a very striking light. It seems, that the want of vigour and happiness of the Spanish monarchy, is to be attributed chiefly to three causes. 1. To the depopulation of Old Spain, occasioned by the injudicious and cruel expulsion of the industrious Moors. 2. To the religious oppression still prevailing in Spain, and discouraging foreigners from settling in that kingdom. 3. To the discovery of so very rich a country as America, and to the sudden influx of so much gold and silver from thence. It appears from several calculations, that some thousand millions of ducats have been brought over to Spain since the discovery of America. These riches being acquired without any other trouble than that of plundering and oppressing the natives, proved extremely prejudicial to the mother-country, by inducing great numbers of inhabitants to emigrate from Old Spain, in order to exchange labour and industry for rapine; and by rendering the ancient sources of wealth, agriculture and manufactures, contemptible, when compared to the riches to be acquired in America.

In consequence of this revolution, the useful arts, rendered perhaps more difficult in this kingdom by the influence of the climate, sunk into neglect and insignificance, from which they have not yet emerged. It is to be hoped, however, that this fatal consequence of too rapid an influx of money, especially if the latter should not be permanent in its nature, will in future be guarded against by other commercial nations, to whom the present state of Spain, may serve as a useful warning.

While the Moors were masters of Spain, agriculture and the useful arts were in a very flourishing state, and sciences were arrived to a degree of lustre the more conspicuous, by being contrasted with the ignorance spread over the rest of Europe.

Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of *Don Quixote*, born at Alcalá, in 1549, lifted in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of *Don Quixote*, did as much service to his country by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in prison for debt, when he composed the first part of his history. Perhaps he is to be placed at the head of moral and humourous satirists.

Toftatus, a divine, the most voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long distinguished only by their bulk. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solís, have shewn great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feijoo has been one of the most distinguished. His performances display great ingenuity, very extensive reading, and uncommon liberality of sentiment; especially when his situation and country are considered. Many of his pieces have been translated into English, and published in four volumes. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a dissertation on the Phœnician language, may be placed in the first line of the Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Elicurial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects. Palomino in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inserted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic, to the conclusion of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Among the most eminent Spanish painters, were Velasquez, Nurillo, who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke, Ribeira, and Claudio Coello, whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

The present state of sciences in Spain is far from being flourishing. There are, it is true, near thirty universities in the Spanish dominions; among

among which, those of Madrid, Salamanca, Seville, Valladolid, Zaragoza, and Toledo, are the most celebrated; but Aristotelic and scholastic philosophy, subservient to the absurd doctrines of a superstitious church, is still prevailing in these seminaries, with very little change ever since the restoration of ancient learning. While sciences are exclusively taught by monks and priests, while the productions of genius are subject to the rigorous censure of an inquisition, which is by its nature an enemy to free discussion and to the prevalence of reason, it is not to be expected that philosophy will make any progress under the terrors of prisons and *autos da fé*. Yet poetry and the arts have made a considerable figure in Spain. There are several societies at Madrid, Valencia, Barcelona, Valladolid, intended for the improvement of the Castilian language, the study of the canon law, and the liturgy; of history, the latin language, medicine, the arts of design and geography. Great hopes are entertained of the progress of science and philosophy in a future reign, from the attachment of the present prince of Asturia to natural history and the political sciences.

HISTORY.] The first inhabitants of Spain were the Celtae, a people of Gaul; after them the Phœnicians possessed themselves of the most southern parts of the country, and may well be supposed to have been the first civilizers of this kingdom, and the founders of the most ancient cities. After these followed the Grecians; then the Carthaginians, on whose departure, sixteen years before Christ, it became subject to the Romans, till the year 400, when the Goths, Vandals, Suevi, Alans and Silingi, on Constantine's withdrawing his forces from that kingdom to the East, invaded it, and divided it amongst themselves; but the Goths in a little time were sole masters of it under their king Alarick I. who founded the Spanish monarchy. After a regular succession of monarchs, we come to the present king, Charles III. who ascended the throne upon the death of his half brother, Ferdinand VI in the year 1759.

As the best histories of Spain and her American Colonies, the reader is referred to Rollin's Ancient History—Universal History—Robertson's Histories of Charles Vth. and of South America, and the Abbe Clavigero's History of New Mexico:

P O R T U G A L.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 300	} between. { 37 and 42 north lat. 7 and 10 west long.
Breadth 100	

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the North and East, and on the South and West by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country it is naturally divided into three parts; the north, middle, and south provinces.

The divisions of this kingdom are more particularly specified in the following table.

T A B L E .

D I V I S I O N S .	Areas in square miles.	Population.	Population for each single square mile.	C H I E F T O W N S .
The whole kingdom, with the Atlantic Islands	32,000	2,360,000	74	19 Towns.
Portugal, without the Islands	27,376	2,500,000	85	527 Villages.
1. The Province of Estremadura	5,440	1,800,000 above year 1732.	64	3343 Parishes.
2. Beira	7,200	550,856	76	Names Lisbon 120,000 According to others 180,000
3. Province Entre Minho e Duero	1,840	430,300 the most populous Province.	234	Coimbra 12,000 Aveiro 4,400
4. Tras los Montes	2,400	180,800	74	Oporto 40,000 Braga 12,000
5. Alentejo	7,800	262,223	30	Braganza 2,700 Miranda
6. The kingdom of Algarvia	1,600	63,700	40	Evora 10,000 Villa Vicosa 3,700 Estremoz 6,500
Islands in the Atlantic Ocean, viz.	4,608	139,000	28	Lagoz 2,800 Tavira 4,700
The Porto Santo	1,200	139,000	28	Porto Santo 600 Funchal
Madeira	65,000	65,000	1	Ponta Delgada
The Azores	52,900	52,900	1	Aperu Feto
St. Miguel	—	—	—	Villa das Lagens
Terceira	—	—	—	St. Cruz
Pico	—	—	—	—
Flores	—	—	—	—
Corvo	—	—	—	—

POSSESSIONS OF THE CROWN OF PORTUGAL IN OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

1. In *Asia*. Some settlements along the western coast of the Indian peninsula within the Ganges, as Diu, Chaoul, Goa, of which the latter is the most important, and the seat of the governor of the Portuguese possessions in the East-Indies. Macao, a small town on the coast of China.

2. In *Africa*. The islands called Azores; the islands Maderia and Porto Santo; the islands of Cape Verde; several forts along the Gambia, and on the coast of Guinea; the islands of St. Thomas and do Principe; some settlements in Congo, Loango, and Angola: (the Portuguese are almost the only nation acquainted with these Provinces, with which they carry on a very lucrative trade;) several settlements on the coast of Zanguebar and Sofala, and farther in the country. Mofambique is the most important of these places.

3. In *America*. The large province of Brasil, divided into 14 capitaniats or governments; and small possessions on the coast of Guiana, and in Paraguay. The colony of San Sacramento, on the river de la Plata, was taken by the Spaniards in 1777.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: The chief are those which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. • The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden sand. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom or rather province of Algarva.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] Portugal, situated in the same genial climate with Spain, abounds like the latter in excellent natural productions; it is well watered, and a great part of it bounded by the ocean. It is possessed of very rich provinces beyond the seas. It is however not proportionably powerful; its inhabitants are indigent, and the balance of trade is against it. It is even obliged to import the necessaries of life, chiefly corn, from other countries. In point of population, it has rather the advantage of Spain.

Portugal produces wine, wool, oil, silk, honey, aniseed, sumac; all the finer sorts of fruit enumerated in the preceding table of Spain; some corn, flax, cork. These articles of produce might, with a little industry, be raised in great abundance. There are in this kingdom several evident traces of very rich mines; they continue however to be unregarded. Portugal has very little silver in circulation; it is not unusual to find it difficult to make up a sum of twenty pounds in silver. This scarcity was in a great measure owing to an injudicious permission of exporting coined silver.

The exports of Portugal are not inconsiderable; but they are greatly exceeded by the imports. The soil produces no more corn annually than

than what is barely sufficient for three months consumption; corn therefore is the most considerable article of importation from abroad. As no manufactures of any importance are in a thriving state, the Portuguese are supplied by the industry of other nations, chiefly the English, with almost every article of dress, and with most other articles of use and convenience. It seems, that the efforts of government, to encourage industry have hitherto been ineffectual. The late minister of state, M. de Pombal, found it impracticable to raise a glass manufacture into consequence, notwithstanding he laid out 80,000 crusades, or 54,000 crowns upon this scheme, and doubled the duties of foreign glass, in order to encourage the manufacture. A linen manufacture, established at Oporto, cannot easily be expected to thrive, while the materials used in it must be imported from the Baltic.

To the above-mentioned disadvantages we must add the want of fisheries, which obliges this country to buy, by far the greatest part of the fish it consumes, from other nations. Its commerce is almost entirely in the hands of strangers. It has imposed very heavy duties upon the necessaries of life, a measure which is very unfavourable to industry. In the year 1784, the Portuguese government, in order to encourage the freighting trade, lowered the duties on all goods imported and exported in Portuguese bottoms by 10 per cent. which probably will be of great use to commerce.

In 1785, the goods imported from Great Britain and Ireland into Portugal, consisting of woollens, corn, fish, wood, and hard-ware, amounted to upwards of 960,000l. sterling. The English took in return of the produce of Portugal and Brasil to the amount of 728,000l. sterling. To support a trade which is, upon the whole, much against Portugal, this kingdom has the resource of ready money drawn from Brasil: If these supplies should ever fail, it would be soon entirely ruined, if it had nothing to rely upon but its present industry. Only 15 millions of livres, in ready money, are supposed to circulate in a country which draws annually upwards of 1,500,000l. sterling, or 36 millions of livres, from the mines of Brasil. Since the discovery of these mines, that is, within the last sixty years, Portugal has brought from Brasil about 2400 millions of livres, or 100,000,000l. sterling. Besides these large sums of money, Portugal imports from Brasil large quantities of cocoa, sugar, rice, train-oil, whalebone, coffee, and medicinal drugs.

No commercial companies have hitherto been established. The principal trading places are, the towns of Lisbon, Oporto, and Setuval. In former times, when the Portuguese had an extensive commerce and settlements in the East-Indies; their trade to China was important, but it has lately greatly decreased.

CHARACTER.] The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that adventurous, enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the house of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are, to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well

well as ingratitude; and above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more state than the Spaniards.

The Portuguese ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, modest, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they never discharge any who survive, after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] These are so few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves, who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance. It is universally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world besides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and which had fifty professors; but it has been lately put under some new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning and the sciences. All the books that did belong to the banished Jesuits are kept here, which compose a very large library. The English language is likewise taught in this college. Here is also a college where young gentlemen are educated in the science of engineering, and when qualified get commissions in that corps.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santarem are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent, and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch, is probably one of the finest and richest in the world; the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colours, as to astonish the beholders. To these curiosities we may add, that the king is possessed of the largest diamond (which was found in Brasil) that perhaps ever was seen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] Lisbon is the Capital of Portugal, a great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which also set the remainder on fire, upon

upon All-Saints day, 1755. It still contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its situation (rising from the Tagus in the form of a crescent) renders its appearance at once delightful and superb, and it is deservedly accounted the greatest port in Europe, next to London and Amsterdam. The harbour is spacious and secure, and the city itself is guarded from any sudden attack, towards the sea, by forts, though they would make but a poor defence against ships of war. All that part of the city that was demolished by the earthquake, is planned out in the most regular and commodious form. Some large squares, and many streets are already built. The streets form right angles, and are broad and spacious. The houses are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white stone, make a beautiful appearance. The second city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 40,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the shops are coopers. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street, to transact business; and are protected from the sun by sail-cloths, hung across from the opposite houses. About thirty English families reside here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

GOVERNMENT.] Towards the latter end of the last century, the courts, or meetings of the states, were discontinued, and the council of three estates (*Junta dos tres estados*) viz. the clergy, the nobility, and the cities, now substituted in lieu of those assemblies, is composed only of such members as are nominated by the King himself. Since that time, the government of the kingdom of Portugal is absolutely monarchical; yet the political influence of the two first estates is still now and then perceived.

The fundamental laws of Portugal are: 1. The statutes of Alphonso, published at Lamego in 1143, consisting of 22 regulations relative to the royal succession, to the rights of jurisdiction, the independence of the kingdom, and the rights of the nobility. 2. The manifesto of the states, published in 1641, immediately after the revolution relating to the order of succession.

The civil laws of Portugal are contained in the edicts of the kings; and where these are deficient, the Roman laws are consulted. In ecclesiastical matters, the canon law in its full extent is adopted, and the power and authority of the pope is very great in this kingdom.

The chief departments of government are the following: The Council of State, the Council of War, the Aulic Council (*Desembargo do Paço*); Supreme Court of Justice, the Council of Finances; and the Royal Board of Censure (*Regia Mesa censoria*.)

In the inferior courts of justice the judges are nominated by the king, or by the possessors of the large estates; in the superior courts, by the king exclusively. There are two courts of appeal at Lisbon and Oporto; from which appeal may be made in the last instance to the Aulic Council. The magistrates of the towns have likewise an inferior jurisdiction in matters of less importance. The proceedings in the courts of justice are slow and arbitrary; and the number of lawyers and law-officers is exceedingly great.

FINANCES.] The revenue of the crown is 1,800,000. sterling; and arises from the customs and duties, from several internal taxes; from the mines of Brazil, of the produce of which one fifth belongs to the king,

king, estimated at 350,000. sterling; from other duties on the produce of Brazil; from a tax on the rent of lands, which is 10 per cent. of the yearly income; from duties on imported goods, at 16 per cent. and duties of 5 per cent. on exported goods.

The public debts were estimated in 1774 at only 28 millions of cruzaes.

ARMY.] The army consists of 25,000 men. According to the establishment of the year 1772, the army ought to consist of 35,998 men, viz. 38 regiments of foot, at 811 men each; and of 12 regiments of cavalry, of 400 men each. The late Count of Lippe Bückeburg has made considerable improvements in the military discipline of Portugal.

Besides the regular army they have a country militia formed of peasants.

NAVY.] The navy consists of 24 ships, viz. 13 ships of the line and 11 frigates. Five ships of the line are stationed on the coast of Brazil. There are two regiments of marines and a corps of naval artillery.

RELIGION.] The state of religion in Portugal exactly resembles that of Spain; the intolerant bigotry of the established Roman Catholic religion is no less prejudicial to the Portuguese, than to the Spanish nation. There are several tribunals of Inquisition, viz. at Lisbon, Coimbra, Evora, and at Goa in the East-Indies. A great number of Jews are however in the country, who conform outwardly with the established religion: It is said that many of them are even among the clergy.

The Portuguese clergy consist of one Patriarch, a dignity granted to the church of Portugal in the year 1716, of three archbishops and 15 bishops; the number of ecclesiastical persons in the whole amounts to 200,000; 30,000 of which are monks and nuns: According to others there are 60,000 monks and nuns, and 745 convents. The proportion of clerical persons to that of laymen, is as 1 to 11. There are three spiritual orders of knighthood in Portugal, that of Avis, of Santiago, and of Christ; the last is by far the most opulent.

HISTORY.] Portugal was anciently called Lusitania, and inhabited by tribes of wandering people, till it became subject to the Carthaginians and Phœnicians, who were dispossessed by the Romans 250 years before Christ. In the fifth century it fell under the yoke of the Suevi and Vandals, who were driven out by the Goths of Spain, in the year 589; but when the Moors of Africa made themselves masters of the greatest part of Spain, in the beginning of the eighth century, they penetrated into Lusitania; there they established governors, who made themselves kings. After many fruitless attempts made by the kings of Leon on this part of Spain, Alonzo V. king of Castile and Leon, carried here his victorious arms, and to insure his conquest, he gave it, in the year 1088, with the title of count, or earl, to Henry, grandson of Robert king of France, who had married Theresa, Alonzo's natural daughter. Henry was succeeded in his earldom by his son Alonzo, who, encouraged by his conquests over the Moors, in the year 1139 assumed the title of King of Portugal. His successors continued till 1580, when, upon the death of Henry, surnamed the Cardinal, it was seized upon by Philip II. king of Spain, after a war of two or three years;

years; but in 1640, the people rebelled, shook off the Spanish yoke, and elected for their king the duke of Braganza, who took the name of John IV. in whose family it has ever since remained independent of Spain. Her present Majesty's name is Mary Frances Isabella, who acceded to the throne in the year 1777. See Universal History.

I T A L Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	} between,	{ 38 and 47 north latitude.
Breadth 400		{ 7 and 19 east longitude.

THE form of Italy, renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions; for, according to some accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the states of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about 400 miles, though in some parts it is scarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the East it is bounded by the Gulph of Venice, or Adriatic sea; on the South and West by the Mediterranean sea, and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corfica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

Countries

Countries Names.		Squ.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Italy.		Miles.				
Catholics.	To the king of	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Turin
	Sardinia	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chambery
		Montferrat	446	40	22	Cassal
	To the king of	Alessandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria
		Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
		Sardinia Island	6600	135	57	Cagliari
	To the king of	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples
		Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo
	To the Empe- ror	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan
		Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
Mirandola		120	19	10	Mirandola	
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	Rome <small>N. lat. 41 54 E. lon. 12 45</small>	
To their ref- pective princes	Tuscany	6640	115	94	Florence	
	Massa	82	16	11	Massa	
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma	
	Modena	1560	65	39	Modena	
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino	
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco	
Republics	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca	
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino	
To France	Genoa	2400	160	25	Genoa	
	Corfica I.	2520	90	38	Bastia	
To the republic of Venice	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice	
	Istria P.	1245	6	32	Capo d'Istria	
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara	
	Isles of Dalmatia	1364				
Islands in the Venetian do- minions.	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia	
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu	
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant	
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura	
	Little Cephalonia	14	7	3		
	Ithaca olim					
Total—		75,056				

SUBDIVISIONS.

The King of **SARDINIA** possesses Piedmont, Savoy, Montferrat, the Island of Sardinia, part of the Milanese, and of Genoa.

The subdivisions in these territories are,

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Piedmont.	Piedmont	Proper Lordship	Turin, Pignerol, Carignan
	Vercell	Principality	Vercell
	Mafferan	Marquifate	Mafferan
	Ivrea	County	Ivrea
	Asti	Marquifate	Asti
	Sufa	Marquifate	Sufa
	Saluzzo	Vallies	Saluzzo, Coni
	Vaudois	Territory	Pragelas, or Clufon
	Nice	County	Nice
	Tende	County	Tende
Savoy.	Aoufte	County	Aoufte
	Savoy	Proper County	Chambery, Montmelian
	Geneva	County	Annacy
	Chablais	County	Tonor, or Thonon
	Tarantaife	Valley	Mouffriers
Genoa Milanefe Montf.	Maurienne		St. John de Mauriene
	Foffigny		Bonneville
	Montferrat	Duchy	Cafal, Albi, Aqui
	Tortonefe		Tortona
	Aleffandrine		Alexandria
Genoa	Laumelin		Laumello
	Oneglia	Territory	Oneglia

The dominions of the King of **NAPLES**.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Lavora	Naples, Capua	Ult. Calabria	Reggio
	Gacta	Ult. Abruzzo	Aquila
Ultra Princip.	Benevento	Citra Abruzzo	Chieti
Citra Princip.	Salerno	Capitinate, or	Manfredonia
Molie	Bojano	Apulia	Lucera
Bafilicata	Cerenza	Bari	Bari
Citra Calabria	Cofenza	Otranto	Otranto
			Brundifi
			Tarenta

	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Island of Sicily	Val de Mazara	Palermo
	Val de Demona	Meffina
	Val de Noto	Catania, Syracufe, Noto

LIPARI ISLANDS, North of Sicily. Lipari, Strombulo, Rotto, Panarfa, Elicufa.

ISLANDS on the West Coast of Italy. Capri, Ischia, Ponaz, Pianofa, &c.

The House of AUSTRIA poffesses the Milanefe, the Mantua and Tufcany,

The fubdivifions and chief towns in thefe territories are,

	Subdivifions.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Milanefe	Milanefe	Proper	Milan
	Pavefan.		Pavia
	Navnaefe		Navara
	Comafco		Como
	Lodefan		Lodi
	Cremonefe		Cremona
Tufcany	Florentina		Florence
	Siennefe		Sienna
	Pifa		Pifa, Leghorn, Piombino
Mantuan	Mantua	Proper	Mantua

In Tufcany is contained the republic of Lucca, and the principality of Maffa Carara, fubject to its own prince; alfo the coaft del Perfidi, of which the capital is Orbitello, fubject to the king of Naples.

The Duke of PARMA (of the Houfe of Bourbon) is Sovereign of the Duchies of

Parma Placentia Guafalla	} Chief towns.	Parma Placentia Guafalla, Caftiglione, Luzzara,
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The fubdivifions of the Genoefe territories, with their chief towns, are,

Subdivifions.	Chief towns.	Subdivifions.	Chief towns.
Genoa, Proper	Genoa	St. Remo, Territory	St. Remo
Savona, Territory	Savona	Ventimiglia, Territory,	Ventimiglia
Vado, Territory	Vado	Monaco, Principality	Monaco
Noli, Territory	Noli	Rapallo, Territory	Rapallo
Final, Territory	Final	Lavigna	Lavigna
Albenga, Territory	Albenga	Spezia	Spezia
Onegliato	Sardina		

The Duchy of MODENA is fubject to its own Duke, and contains

Duchies.	Chief towns.
Modena	Modena
Mirandola	Mirandola
Rhegio	Rhegio, Borfello, Carpi.

The Republic of VENICE is subdivided in the following manner :

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Venice	Venice	Rovigno	Rovigno
Paduan	Padua	Trevegiano	Treviso
Veronese	Verona	Bellunese	Belluno
Bresciano	Brescia	Friuli	Aquileia
Cremaſco	Crema	Udineſe	Udia
Bergamaſco	Bergamo	Iſtria, part.	Capo de Iſtria
Vincentino	Vincenza		

The Patriarchate, or the dominions of the POPE, are subdivided thus :

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Compania of Rome	Rome	Ancona, Marquis	Ancona
	Tivoli		Loretto
	Freſcati	Urbino, Duchy	Urbino
	Oſtia		Petaro
	Albano		Semigalia
St. Peter's Patrimony	Viterbo	Romania	Ravenna
	Civita Vecchia	Bologneſe	Rimini
	Bracciano	Ferrareſe	Bologna
	Caſtro	Republic of St. Marino	Ferrara
	Orvietto		Comachia
Ombria, or Spoleto	Aquapendente		St. Marino
	Spoleto		
	Narni		
	Terni		
	Perugia		

Iſland of Corfica, ſubject to the French.

Chief towns Baſtia and Bonifacio.

Iſland of Malta, ſubject to the Knights. Chief town, Valetta.

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance ; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity ; wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants ; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air ; and ſome parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature ; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential, through the decrease of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being, in many places, covered with ſnow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects

effects on its climate; the countries on the South being warm, those on the North mild and temperate. The sea-breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebbia, the Arnò, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Isco, and Garda in the North; the Perugia or Tharsimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULFS, OR BAYS, CAPES,] Without a knowledge of these, **PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS.]** neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the history nor geography of Italy, can be understood. The seas of Italy are, the gulfs of Venice, or the Adriatic sea; the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Luca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita, Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, PolICASTRO, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the strait of Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian islands are those of Fiorenzo, Bastia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corsica; and the strait of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Caligari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuse, and Satania: capes Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro, and Alleffia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Ferro, and Porto Longone, in the island of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs; some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeate, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The king of Sardinia's subjects, according to Zimmermann, amount to 3,170,000, viz. in the duchy of Piedmont 2,450,000, in the duchy of Savoy 300,000, in the kingdom of Sardinia 420,000. Naples has about 4,500,000 souls, and Sicily about 1,800,000. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only, of those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when

it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. It is however believed that the present inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and some other of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in a manner desolate; but we are to consider that the modern Italians are in a great measure free from the unremitting wars, not to mention the transmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and states of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations greatly exceed that number.

The national character of the Italians, lately been given by the Abbé Jagemann, member of the Florentine Academy of Agriculture, as follows: "Considering the mildness of the climate, the uncommon fertility of the soil, the situation of most towns and boroughs on hills, the excellent spring water from the Alps and the Appennines, the number of mineral waters and baths, the spaciousness of the streets and houses, the delightful views, the frequent residence of the Italians on their villas, the fragrant and healthiness of the air, the temperate diet, the facility of getting cured of diseases in the hospitals, one is inclined to think that the corporeal frame of an Italian, if not enervated in early youth, cannot but be strong, healthy and beautiful. The hardiest persons of either sex, are found in Tuscany. The Italians, in general are also endowed with good sense, and discernment; apt to despise mere theoretical speculations, and to judge by their own feelings and experience: But education is rather neglected. The chief part of their religion consists in an external observance and practice of ecclesiastical rites, ceremonies, and injunctions. An Italian, not enlightened by reflection and experience, will sooner commit adultery than eat any flesh-meat on a Friday; but a foreigner, who wishes to pass for a Roman catholic, needs only to stick to his window an attestation, by a physician, that his state of health requires a flesh-meat diet; and he may, without any risk, eat flesh-meat in Lent. Such attestations may be purchased in coffee-houses, at Florence. The Italians are very sensual; exceedingly fond of music; little addicted to drunkenness and coarse jokes; impatient of delay in their passion for the fair sex; jealous of the French, but fond of the national characters of the English and the Germans. They still breathe their ancient spirit of liberty and republicanism, and are averse to monarchical government, to which they were subjected by force. Hence a true-born Italian, of an independent fortune, seldom courts public employments; hence their best geniuses too are little known; hence also their almost general inclination to satire, and the bitterness of their satires. Hence their general hatred and contempt for the military service, and for the ministers and executors of criminal jurisdiction. Their dress and their whole conduct, prove their fondness of liberty and ease, and their aversion to constraint, ceremony and compliments. As so great a variety of enjoyments and conveniences are, for an Italian, so many necessaries of life, he must be a rigid economist; but those most famous for their economical management, are the Florentines and the Genoese. Hence their habitual custom of entering into the most minute details and calculations, and of strictly adhering to rules. Hence their peculiar tal-

ents and skill for commerce, trade, political economy, finances, their avidity for gain, and their envy at the prosperity of other people.— Their resentment lasts only till they have produced a satisfaction adequate to a wrong sustained; they are less irascible than many other nations: But when grossly injured in their character or fortunes, they are capable of every excess. Of assassinations, however, Abbé Jageman recollects only three instances in Tuscany, in fifteen years. From their mutual distrust, an Italian indeed seldom becomes an intimate friend to another Italian; but then their friendship proves the more cordial and lasting. No nation is more compassionate to the distressed, or more ready to serve strangers; yet letters of recommendation ought not to be neglected by travellers.”

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman Catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy: But that number is seldom or never complete. They are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their parts, and where many transactions pass, which hardly shew their inspiration to be from the Holy Ghost. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animosities ran so high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the inkstandishes at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

“ I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

“ I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that holy mother-church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

“ I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated
without

without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit, the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

“ I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent* concerning original sin and justification.

“ I do also profess that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the catholic church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

“ I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

“ I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ, are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

“ I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them.

“ I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgencies was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to christian people.

“ I do acknowledge the holy catholic, and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

“ I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined and declared by the sacred canons, and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject and anathematize.”

The established religion is not quite so intolerant in the kingdom of Sardinia, as in some other states: The wisdom of government has greatly limited the power of the Pope and of the inquisition. A stop is likewise put to the persecutions of the harmless Protestants, in the vallies of Lucern, Peyrouse, and St. Martin, formerly so famous, by the name of Vaudois, on account of their sufferings and firm adherence to the cause of truth: Their number amounts to about 20,000. The very numerous clergy in this kingdom are not rich. The church is governed by five archbishops and 26 bishops: The whole number of clerical persons, including monks and nuns, is said to amount to 350,000; but this statement, probably, is too large. They

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* A convocation of Roman-catholic cardinals, archbishops, bishops and divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine on certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were pleased to term the Rite of Heresies in the church.

are obliged to pay the same taxes with the laity, besides other burthens which the king has it in his power to impose on them. The clergy are indeed entirely dependant on the king, and subject to the secular jurisdiction: The church preferments are all in the gift of the king.

The inhabitants of Naples and Sicily are bigotted Roman Catholics, and more zealous than those of Rome. There is, however, no inquisition established in the country. The power of the Pope in these kingdoms is not great. In Naples, some prebends are in his gift; but in Sicily, all church preferment is in the gift of the king. The clergy are very numerous; and so rich, that not less than one half of the riches of the country are in the possession of the church. There are, in Naples, 20 archbishops and 107 bishops: In Sicily, three archbishops and eight bishops. In the year 1782, there were in Naples alone 45,525 priests, 24,694 monks, 20,793 nuns. In 1783, government resolved to dissolve 466 convents of nuns, and the beginning has been actually made to carry this resolution into execution.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, } Since the revival of
STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. } learning, some Ital-
ians have shone in controversial learning, but they are chiefly celebrat-
ed by those of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural
philosophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and sev-
eral other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the history
of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a standard
work. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian and as a political
writer. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has
been thought one of the most pure and correct in point of style: He
was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are
too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived
among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: But
among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most dis-
tinguished. Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dra-
matic pieces set to music. Socinus, who was so much distinguished by
his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unri-
valled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival
of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste
likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and
colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients,
struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head
of the art of painting. Michael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own
person painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian
has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many
other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height.
Julie Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as
painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said
of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present, Italy cannot
justly boast of any remarkable genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence,
Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Perugia, Fer-
rara, Pisa, which has 46 Professors, Naples, Salerno, Palermo, Catania;
the four last are in Naples and Sicily.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Italy is the native country of
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } all that is stupendous, great or
 beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library might be filled
 by descriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in arts ;
 nor do the bounds of this work admit of enlarging upon this subject.
 We can give but a very brief account of those objects that are most dis-
 tinguished either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence : There are at Rome considerable remains of that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Coliseum. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in this building ; and it is said to have been capable of containing eighty seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thousand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are so just, that it does not appear near so large as it really is. But it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times and by various enemies. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greatest care, at the expense of the inhabitants. They frequently give public spectacles in it, such as horse races, combats of wild beasts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are also visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at present converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of the heathen deities. The outside of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incrusted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet ; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre, where the rain water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a stone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble ; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique basin of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller for-
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gets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duilius, in commemoration of the first naval victory which the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning mentioned by Cicero; the very original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unhurt to the present times; not to mention medals and the infinite variety of seals and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves all over the country of Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; witness the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years since, a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An inexhaustible mine of curiosities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. The melted lava in its course filled up the streets and houses in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. The lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: It is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified sandy substances, which all together form a close and heavy mass. In the year 1713, upon digging into these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: This had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewise found among the ruins of this city multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, and the search is still continued. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, and the houses well built and much alike; some of the rooms paved with mosaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping with many of their richest effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little of gold, silver, or precious stones. The

The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum; but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of Herculaneum. One street, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared: The street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised a foot and a half on each side for the conveniency of foot passengers. The street is narrow, and is supposed to have been inhabited by trades people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and conveniency. The best paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are those found in the temple of the goddess Isis; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town, but a considerable number in the houses.*

With regard to modern curiosities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting and sculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the most astonishing, bold and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultless. The house and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance that composes its history.

The natural curiosities of Italy, though remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. Mount Vesuvius, which is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Vesuvius towards the sea, is every where planted with vines and fruit trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The South and West sides of the mountain form very different views, being like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the surface of the sea. It hath been a volcano, beyond the reach of history or tradition. An animated description of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate, however, then it broke out with accumulated fury, and desolated several miles around. In 1694 was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with so much force, that some of it fell at thirty miles distance, and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown

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* Mr. Gawin Hamilton has lately made a very extraordinary discovery of an ancient city in Italy, on the verge of a mountain near Fiescate. Having obtained permission from Prince Borghese, to dig upon his territories for vestiges of antiquity, after an expensive research, the workmen came to the roofs of buildings which were more perfect than those discovered, within the present century at *Herculaneum*. As they descended in their operations, they found several of the houses entire, and also many of their utensils, and numberless skeletons of the inhabitants in various positions. This newly discovered city, from various inscriptions discovered among its ruins, appears to be ancient *Gabia*: A city of this name according to some Roman historians, having formerly been engulfed by an earthquake. In this the fate of *Gabia* differed from that of the *Herculaneum* and *Pompeia*, the two last mentioned places having been destroyed by eruptions from Mount Vesuvius. Sir William Hamilton, has gone from Naples to explore this wonderful curiosity.

out, that it was dark at Naples at noonday. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which destroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this last eruption, the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses, and the balconies, were covered with these cinders, and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly described by Sir William Hamilton, in the Philosophical Transactions. It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good; even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Besides, it is supposed that open and active, the mountain is less hostile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to cease, and its struggles confined to its own bowels, for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole district of Terra di Lavoro.*

Mount *Ætna* is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: In one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished.

Between the lakes Agnano and Pozzuoli, there is a valley called *Solfatara*, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the cliffs by subterranean fires. The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents are said to be common in *Apulia*.

Among the natural curiosities of Italy, those vast bodies of snow and ice, which are called the *Glaciers of Savoy*, deserve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which extend almost to the plain of the vale of *Chomouny*, and are separated by wild forests, corn fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular

Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in *Calabria Ultra*, in *Sicily*, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives several reasons for believing that they were occasioned by the operations of a volcano, the seat of which lay deep either under the bottom of the sea, between *Stromboli*, and the coast of *Calabria*, or under the parts of the plain towards *Oppido* and *Terra Nuova*. He plainly observed a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as also in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or less distant from this supposed centre of the evil. One circumstance he particularly remarked: If two towns were situated at an equal distance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on a plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always suffered greatly more by the shocks of the earthquakes than the former; a sufficient proof to him of the cause coming from beneath, as this must naturally have been productive of such an effect.

singular and striking vicissitude. All these several vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of Mr. de Luc, the height of this mountain, above the level of the sea, is 15,303 English feet. "I am convinced," says Mr. Coxe, "from the situation of Mont Blanc, from the heights of the mountains around it, from its superior elevation above them, and its being seen at a great distance from all sides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland; which, beyond a doubt, is, next to Mont Blanc, the highest ground in Europe."

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far, of Italy in general; but } as the Italian States are not, like the republics of Holland or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable, for every Italian state has distinct forms of government, trade and interests, we shall be obliged to take a separate view of each to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of Savoy, or, as he is now styled, king of Sardinia, taking his royal title from that island, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. His capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe;—containing 84,000 inhabitants.

Of the dominions of his Sardinian majesty, the dutchy of Savoy alone is not fertile. The island of Sardinia, and the provinces of Piedmont and Montserrat, abound in corn, wine, oil, oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, maize, rice, hemp, and flax. Sardinia has large flocks of sheep; the number of sheep is said to amount to 1,600,000: It is remarkable, that in this island there subsists still a species of wild sheep, called the *muslon*. The fisheries on the coast of Sardinia produce, even in the worst years, upwards of 60,000 scudi, in the article of tunny-fish, and a considerable sum for blackfish (*sepia* Linn.) and anchovies, besides other species of fish. Some mines in this island produce iron, and a small quantity of silver: Salt, sufficient for the consumption of the country, is made of sea-water: There are likewise quarries of marble, alabaster, and other valuable stones. Savoy is celebrated on account of its breed of mules, many of which are sent abroad. Piedmont raises large quantities of the finest silk; single peasants often raise 100lb. each every year. Upwards of 100,000lb. are required to supply the silk manufactures at Turin, where there are about 600 looms for silk stockings. In the village of Torre, in Piedmont, upwards of 50,000lb. of silk are spun. About 300,000lb. of raw and spun silk are annually sent to Switzerland: The whole produce of raw silk in the Sardinian dominions, is estimated at 650,000lb. Piedmont has woollen manufactures, which supply the cloathing of the army. There is a manufacture of ropes and tackle in this province, a large quantity of which articles is exported from Nizza to Marseilles, Toulon and Genoa. Of the Piedmontese wines, a considerable quantity is exported to Genoa and Milan, and several delicate spirituous liquors are distilled, known by the name of *rossoli*. The imports of the

the Sardinian provinces, which are nearly the same with those of the rest of Italy, consist in hardware, metals, cotton, woollen, and silk stuffs, linen, leather, whalebone, train oil, herrings, cod, tar, pitch, timber, porcelain, &c. The goods imported from England into Italy amount annually to about 513,000*l.* sterl. and England takes in return for 687,155*l.* sterling, which leaves a considerable balance in favour of Italy. Trade is much discouraged in Italy by the heavy duties imposed on it; and in the islands of Sardinia and Sicily it is still more stagnating. A great fair is kept every year at Alessandria.

The government in the Sardinian states is absolutely monarchical. In the island of Sardinia, however, the states assemble; but merely to grant free gifts or subsidies to the king, in whose hands the whole legislative, as well as executive power, is vested. As the provinces which compose this kingdom have been united under the same government at different periods of time, and had formed independent states before, each of them has its peculiar laws and customs, which were suffered to continue in force as far as they did not militate against the king's edicts. Among the state departments, the council of state is the highest. Sardinia forms a separate government, under a viceroy. Justice is administered by a number of inferior and territorial courts, in which the proprietors of large estates appoint the judges: The judges of the superior courts are appointed by the king: From these courts appeal lies to several courts of appeal, the highest of which is *il supremo real consiglio*, at Turin.

The revenue of the king amounts to 1,000,000 sterling nearly. The royal revenues are raised from the crown domains, from the customs, the mint, the posts, land-tax, salt-duty, stamps, a monopoly of tobacco, and a lottery of that sort called *Lotto di Genoa*. All matters of finances are under the direction of a minister, or intendant-general of finances.

The army of his Sardinian majesty, in time of peace, consists of 22,000 men, and in time of war, of upwards of 30,000.

The provinces of Savoy and Piedmont are, by their situation, the key to Italy; and they are of the greatest consequence in wars between the house of Austria and France. Both these powers have, therefore, always courted the alliance of the princes possessed of these provinces; and the latter have wisely availed themselves of this favourable situation, to increase their own power, by joining with either of the two, as it best suited their views. At present the king of Sardinia is the most powerful prince in Italy. Under the present reign, which is distinguished by its wisdom and activity, the state is in a rising and prosperous condition. Its revenue is increasing, and its progress in opulence would be rapid, if it were not for the great impediments thrown into the way of commerce. The sciences are likewise in a flourishing state. Turin has a university, a society of sciences, and fine libraries, and collections of paintings and statues. Two other universities are established at Cagliari and Sassari: The other institutions of education are greatly improving, in consequence of a regulation enjoining schoolmasters to undergo a strict examination at the university, before they are permitted to give instructions.

The Milanese, belonging to the house of Austria, is a most formidable state, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government

ment of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very strong, and furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000*l.* annually, which is supposed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies, where they converse on almost all subjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; so that its revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua, being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Austrian Lombardy.

The republic of Genoa is vastly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city, and contains some very magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria* and Durazzo. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains above 150,000 inhabitants (but some writers greatly diminish that number) among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six gallees. The chief safety of this republic consists in the jealousy of other European powers, because to any one of them it would be a most valuable acquisition. The common people are wretched beyond expression. The soil of its territory is poor.—Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility: The chief person is called the Doge, or Duke; to which dignity no person is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new Doge is chosen, and the former is incapable, during five years, of holding the same post again. The doge gives audience to ambassadors, all orders of government are issued in his name, and he is allowed a body guard of two hundred Germans.

Venice is one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on 72 islands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every respect degenerated, except in the passion which its inhabitants still retain for music and mummery during their carnivals. They seem to have lost their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. Lately, however, they have had some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seem to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head.

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* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468: He was offered the sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which still subsists; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

The constitution of the republic was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and so continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legislative nobility was formed, continued and progressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. These elect a doge or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and silver balls. The doge is invested with great state and with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to stir from the city without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwise called the seignory, is the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers answers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, summons the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council of ten takes cognizance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is in the highest degree despotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. To these three inquisitors is given the right of employing spies, considering secret intelligence, issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they please, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and of course, they may command access to the house of every individual in the state.

They continue in office only one year, but are not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst they are in authority. So much distrust and jealousy are displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of visiting at each other's houses.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the Doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or state-*barge*, attended by those of all the nobility, is the most superb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's *shew* in London. The inhabitants of Venice are
said

said to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are beyond expression. Over the several canals of Venice, are laid near 700 bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufacturers in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking-glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state annually is said to amount to 8,500,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of English money. Out of this are defrayed the expenses of the state and the pay of the army, which in the time of peace consists of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolencies of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them some orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the *Stolo d'oro*, so called from the Robe they wear, which is conferred only on the first quality, and the military order of St. Mark.

In ecclesiastical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power: And both of them are chosen by the senate; and all religious sects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine, manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those transmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and are of an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. As it is very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places; but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera-houses.

The dominions of Venice consist of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Pachfu, Antipachfu, Santa, Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Romo, Cremasco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The subjects of the Venetian republic are not oppressed: The senate has found that mild treatment, and good usage are the best policy, and more effectual than armies, in preventing revolts.

The principal city of Tuscany is Florence, which is now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after being long held by the illustrious house of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and masterly in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often described; but all description falls short of their contents, so that in every respect it is reckoned, after Rome, the
second

second city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, on the whole, is thought to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and an university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of the Academia della Crusca; and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask, as a sign where it may be bought. They deal also in fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. Since the accession of the archduke Peter Leopold, brother to the present emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuscany could bring to the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000. a year. The other principal towns of Tuscany are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the first and last are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handsome city, built in the modern taste, and with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free access, and may settle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are said to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, and though subject to very heavy impost, are in a thriving condition, the greatest part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of Lucca, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000. sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercenary goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuscany keeps the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for in such a situation, an universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is also observable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in possession of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. Marino is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The duchy and city of Parma, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy of its extent. The soils of Parma and Placentia, are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke of Parma is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, some years past, the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy, and it is said that his revenues exceed 100,000l. sterling a year, a sum rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

Mantua, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milanese, in possession of the house of Austria. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor in 1785, the duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and, as before mentioned, is now to be called Austrian Lombardy.

The duchy of Modena (formerly Mutina) is still governed by its own duke, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswic descended. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, they having been alternately wasted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The Ecclesiastical State, which contains Rome, formerly the celebrated capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. Those spots, which under the masters of the world were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious, pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford, at present, of itself, but a miserable subsistence for five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling; other authors calculate them to be much higher. When we speak comparatively, the sum of a million sterling is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions; his accidental

income,

income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished by the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the catholic powers, for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. According to the best and latest accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and lodgings, furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened, within these thirty years past, there is reason to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houses of Austria and Bourbon shall please to prescribe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The discouragement of industry and agriculture seems to be interwoven in the constitution of the papal government, which is vested in proud, lazy ecclesiastics. Their indolence, and the fanaticism of their worship, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and imposing upon strangers, to industry and agriculture, especially as they must hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their superiors. In short, the inhabitants of many parts of the ecclesiastical state, must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil spontaneously afford them subsistence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and sloth of the lower ranks do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and costly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This passion disabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the industry, or relieving the wants of their subjects; and its miserable effects are seen in many parts of Italy. The splendour and furniture of the churches in the papal dominions are inexpressible, and partly account for the misery of the subjects. But this censure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vast number of gardens and vineyards. We have already touched upon its curiosities and antiquities. It stands upon the Tyber, an inconsiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome as it now stands, there is the strongest reason to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itself in the magnificence of its structures; nothing in the old city, when mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed, in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utensils and furniture, her ancient temples; though it must be acknowledged that the Pantheon must have been an amazing structure. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714 amounted to 143,000. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much increased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present,

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There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes he has his guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice legates. He monopolises all the corn in his territories, and he has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

We have, under the head of religion, mentioned the ecclesiastical government of the papacy. As to the *rota*, and other subordinate chambers of this complicated jurisdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under our plan. Under a government so constituted, it cannot be supposed that the commercial exports of the ecclesiastical state are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate *à latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope; and perhaps their distance from Rome, which is 195 miles north-west, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state, about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael) Ancona, and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. Loretto, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver balustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been matter of surprize, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loretto,

Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed, that the real treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

The king of Naples and Sicily, or, as he is more properly called, the king of the two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both,) is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Appennine runs through it from north to south, and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy.—The wines called *Vino Greco*, and *Lachrymæ Christi*, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the insects and reptiles which infest it, some of which are venomous. The houses in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general, are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vases, or fruit trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: No street in Rome equals in beauty the *Strada di Toledo* at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a small part of their revenue is spent in feeding the poor, the monks distributing bread and soup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom is in the hands of the ecclesiastics, the protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presents to his holiness every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of the king amount to about 5 millions dollars; of which Naples raises 4 millions, and Sicily 1 million. The army consists of 25,200 men, and some say 27,840; and the navy of 25 armed ships.

The fertility of both Naples and Sicily is so great, that nature produces her gifts almost spontaneously, and little assisted by the industry of the inhabitants. In both countries the natural productions, as well as the climates, are nearly the same with those in Spain, except that the former, and more especially the island of Sicily, are much richer in corn. Naples exports annually, 1,500,000 tomoli of wheat, equal to 1,885,000 Winchester bushels; 200,000 cassi of oil, weighing 18lb. Avoirdupois each: It is reckoned that the average amount of the exportation of oil exceeds in value four millions of florins. Saffron, raised in the province of Abruzzo, is exported annually to the value of 30,000 ducats, the ducat equal to 3s 6d. Sicily exports 2,000 chests of oranges: The environs of Syracuse produce near 40 differ-

ent sorts of excellent wine and 84,000 cwt. of almonds, and great quantities of pistachios peculiar to that district. Messina sends out 6,000 chests of lemons, and the rest of the kingdom about as much more: 280 barrels of lemon juice weighing ten salme each, and 27 cwt. of bergamot juice. The quantity of silk raised in the kingdom of Naples amounts to 800,000 lb. and Sicily produces annually to the value of 187,000*l.* sterling. The latter country produces likewise manna, barilla, oil of turpentine, the sugar cane, cotton, and many other vegetable productions of the warmer climates, which, however, are of inferior commercial importance. The mineral kingdom is remarkable for the extraordinary variety of its productions: Of metals, Naples has silver, iron, copper; and Sicily, tin and lead; yet excepting the marble quarries and salt, very little advantage has hitherto been derived from minerals.

The imports of Naples and Sicily consist in woollens, linen, hardware, articles of luxury, and East and West-India productions. There are but few manufactures in proportion to the riches of the soil; and the wool raised in these kingdoms is exported to other countries. Naples is the centre of trade; but trade and navigation is almost entirely in the hands of foreigners. The fisheries are valuable, especially those of the tunny-fish, anchovies, and corals: From the silk of the *pinna marina*, gloves are manufactured.

In this kingdom the breed of horses and of mules is very excellent and celebrated.

The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high founding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains at least, 350,000 inhabitants. Among these are about 30,000 *lazzaroni*, or black guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticoes, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they resort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a pinfold. Those of them who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples near Pausilippo, in huts, or in caverns or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burdens to and from the shipping; many walk about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompense. As they do not meet with constant employment, their wages are not sufficient for their maintenance; but the deficiency is in some degree supplied by the soup and bread which are distributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is so much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of show and splendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller (Mr. Swinburne), luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Forty years ago the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and bands on their heads, as the Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap; but hair plainly dressed is a mode now confined to the lowest order of inhabitants,

habitants, and all distinction of dress between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aside. Expense and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Canne, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and underground granaries; and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is still marked out to posterity by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorrento is a city placed on the brink of steep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, hath the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatre, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundisium, now Brindisi, was the great supplier of oysters for the Roman tables. It has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento: Here the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marcian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and was very roughly handled by the earthquake in 1783, but not destroyed: Only 126 lost their lives out of 10,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greatest force thereof seems to have been exerted near that spot, and at Casal Nuova and Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, most of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To ascertain the extent of the ravages, sir William Hamilton, who surveyed it, gives the following description: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compasses on the scale of Italian miles, you were to measure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the spot on which the earthquake had exerted its greatest force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I just said, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the spots where the greatest mortality has happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compass on the same scale to 72 miles, preserving the same centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

Naples is a fief of the Holy See, and a trifling annual tribute is paid in acknowledgment of the Pope's rights; yet the dependence of the king, who is *legatus natus* of the see of Rome, on his feudal lord, is merely nominal. The government is monarchical, but not quite absolute; for though the king's power is very great, the states have preserved the right of meeting every other year, in order to grant subsidies, or a *don gratuit*, to the king. This assembly is called a parliament;

ment; it is composed of deputies from the nobility, the order of citizens, and of the prelates who are possessed of baronies. Royal edicts, before they acquire the force of laws, must be registered by another assembly of the nobility and the order of citizens; it consists of six *seggi*, or wards, five of which are governed by a committee of nobles; the last belongs exclusively to the Plebeians, and is governed by six *eletti*, who are likewise the chief civil magistrates of the city of Naples.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even the beginning of January the shade is refreshing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of Mount *Ætna*, where snow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preserving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here; the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable. If this island were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many respects be a delightful place of residence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this island are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets, and which cross each other, are very fine. This is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a considerable trade; as also did Messina, which before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant structures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower district of the city and of the port was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Messina or Reggio, so what it was in the plain, for of 30,000, the supposed population of the city, only 700 are said to have perished. The greatest mortality fell upon those towns and countries situated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, Sacró, and Caulone. At Casal Nuova, the princess Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, lost their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3017; Radicina and Palmi count their loss at about 3000 each; Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari still more. The sum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes aforesaid, according to the returns in the secretary of state's office at Naples, is 32,367: But sir William Hamilton saith he has good reason to believe, that, including strangers, the number of lives lost must have been considerably greater: 40,000 at least may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

In Sicily the states have likewise a share in government, by the right which they possess of granting subsidies to the crown. They are composed of three classes, or *bracci*, the nobility or military class, the clergy, and the royal demesne lands, viz. 42 royal towns.

The great state officers are nominated by the king; the highest department of government is the state council, composed of four ministers or secretaries of state. Next to this council is that called *consiglio collaterale*,

collegiale, and several departments for particular branches of public business. Sicily is governed by a viceroy. The late king has published a new code of laws, called *Codex Carolinus*; yet, notwithstanding the improvements it contains, the proceedings of justice in this country are still very dilatory. It is said there are not less than 30,000 lawyers at Naples, (Swinburne). In some parts of the kingdom the possessors of large estates have a territorial jurisdiction, in others the king; From the provincial courts appeals may be made to the *Gran Corte della Vicaria*; and, in the last instance, to the Supreme Court of Appeal at Naples.

The present government seems to have the welfare of the country more at heart than any former. There are, in Naples and Sicily, four universities, viz. those of Naples, Salerno, Palermo, and Catania, of which the first is the most useful. At the capital there is likewise an academy of sciences, and magnificent collections of antiquities. Naples has long been the principal and favourite seat of music. Education is greatly neglected; the schools are still in the hands of monks, whose interest it is that superstition and ignorance should prevail, and who are the greatest enemies to the liberty of thinking and writing.

The Island of *SARDINIA*, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles west of Leghorn, and hath seven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, has an university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about 24,000 inhabitants. It is thought his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, do not exceed 5000. sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the North, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the house of Savoy.

The Island of *CORSICA* lies opposite to the Genoese continent, between the gulf of Genoa and the Island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French to enslave them, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chestnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; though other towns of the island, that were in possession of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPRI, the ancient *CAPREA*, is an island to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from East to West, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vastly high, and inaccessible next the sea; yet *Ano Capri*, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long as the western

western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleafantest spots that can easily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, some remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble prospect: On one side of it the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other side the bay of Naples.

ISCHIA; and some other islands on the coasts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners. ELBA has been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history. Virgil and Aristotle mention it. Its situation is about ten miles S. W. from Tuscan, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants; it is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs; and the great duke of Tuscany, who is master of Forto, Ferrajo, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the island are very good, and the tunnery, fishery, and salt, produce a good revenue.

I shall here mention the isle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in 15 degrees E. lon, and 45 degrees N. lat. 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but excessively hot: The whole island seems to be a white rock, covered with a thin surface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden-stuff of all kinds. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes; under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: They are now known by the distinction of the Knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in the Roman Catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand master, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order, was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reside on the island, the remainder are in their seminaries in other countries, but at any summons are to make a personal appearance. They had a seminary in England, till it was suppressed by Henry VIII.

When the great master dies, they suffer no vessel to go out of the island till another is chosen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the 16 great crosses, the great-master is elected, whose title is, "The most illustrious, and most reverend prince, the lord, friar A. B. great master of the hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are sworn to defend the church

church, to obey their superiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole island is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 8th of Sept. there is an annual procession at Malta, in memory of the Turks raising the siege on that day, 1663, after four months assault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

HISTORY.] See Rollin's Ancient and Roman Histories—Gibbon's Decline of the Roman Empire—and Goldsmith's Roman History.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.	} inhabitants, {	49,000,000	} Sq. Miles.	
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.				960,060, Guthrie.
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.				800,000, Zimmermann.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length, 1000	} between {	} 182,562
Breadth, 900		
	{ 34 and 49 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the East; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of	Crim and Little Tary, and the ancient Taurica Chersonesus*	Precop Brachiseria Kaffa	26,200
	Budziac Tary	Oczakow	12,000
	Bessarabia	Bender Belgorod	8,000
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jazy Choczim Falezin	26,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Buckaretsch Tergovistó	60,000 in. 19,000

Divisions.

* The Russians in 1783, seized on the Crimea, the principal part of this division, and by a treaty signed January 9th, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them with the isle of Tamap, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea. So that the present boundaries between the Turkish and Russian Empires are formed by the river Bog in Europe and the river Cuban in Asia.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Myſia	Widin Nicopoli Siliftra Scopia	17,000
	Servia, the west part of Myſia	Belgrade Semendria Niſſa	22,570
	Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum	Seraio	8,640
On the Bosphorus and Helleſpont	Romania olim Thrace	Conſtantin- ople, N. L. 41. E. L. 29. Adrianople	21,200
	Macedonia	Strymon Conteſſa	18,980
South of Mount Rho- dope or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Threſſaly, now Janua	Salonichi Lariſſa	4,650
	Achaia and Boeotia, now Livadia	Athens Thebes Lepanto	8,420
	Epirus	Chimæra Burtinto Scodra	7,955
On the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Albania	Durazzo Dulcigno	6,375
	Dalmatia	Zara Narenza	4,560
	Ragufa republic*	Ragufa	490

Diviſions.

* The republic of Ragufa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkiſh government. It is an ariſtoeratical ſtate, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is ſtyled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſerutiny or lot. During his ſhort adminiſtration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragufans are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand-ſeignor. They endeavoured alſo to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring ſtates. But in the year 1783, a diſpute aroſe between them and the king of Naples, reſpecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragufan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itſelf under that king's protection. The city of Ragufa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built and contains ſome handſome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was ſituated not far from this city. The Ragufans profeſs the Romiſh religion, but Greeks, Armenians and Turks are tolerated. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and they keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragufa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in uſe among the Ragufans is the Sclavonian, but the greateſt part of them ſpeak the Italian. They have many trading veſſels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The city of Gravofa, and Stagno, 30 miles N. E. of Ragufa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are alſo five ſmall iſlands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

Corinthia	Corinth
Argos	Argos
Sparta	Napoli de Romania Lacedæmon, now Mistria, on the river Eurotas
Olympia, where the games were held	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus
Arcadia	Modon
Elis	Coron
	Patras
	Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.

In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are

7,220

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean sea; the Mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Hæmus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names; for instance the mountains Shua, Witofka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned have had modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Asoph; the sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences, that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be mistress of the world.

STRAITS.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient history.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

LAKES.]

LAKES.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari, lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Flave and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, conceived by the ancients to be the passage into hell.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Almost every spot of ground,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } every river, and every fountain
in Greece presents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work; but it will be proper to mention some of the most considerable. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes: This is a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and an half high; in the space between the columns are panels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales; and on the frieze are beautifully represented in relief the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympius, and Augustus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are still visible at Castri, on the south side of mount Parnassus; and the marble steps that descend to a pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninsula which extends into the Aegean sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sun rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast; and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the Agora or market place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty, the other monks are anchorites or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylor, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheese, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe; which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders

renders longevity so common there, that many of them live above an hundred years. It appears from Elian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the list of Apollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtless built their cells.

CITIES.] Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders, and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O, what a vast city is Constantinople (exclaims one when he first beheld it), and how beautiful? How many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wondrous art! How many manufacturers are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all the good things, with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; for every hour ships arrive in the port with all things necessary for the use of man." Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part, is the Besikim, inclosed with walls and gates where the merchants have their shops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 200, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, but considered as a part of the suburbs, their distance being so small, a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera, the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city; Galata also is mostly inhabited by Franks and Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities; the tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a Christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equalled. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand signor's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications,

fications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent, and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public transactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall with battlements after the oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land side. The best authors think that it contains a million of inhabitants, among them are reckoned 200,000 Greeks, 40,000 Armenians, and 60,000 Jews.

The city hath been frequently assailed by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In August, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situate towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houses (most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782) were consumed.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asian side, and about a mile and a half distant across the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasure house of the grand signior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect; in one view are the cities of Constantinople, Galata, and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, these several heads depending on the same principles all over the empire, shall be mentioned under TURKEY in ASIA.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being Part of Ancient GREECE.

WE shall mention these Islands chiefly for the use of such readers as are conversant with ancient history, of which they make so distinguished a part.

Negropont, the ancient Eubœa, stretches from the south east to the north west, and on the eastern coast of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad, and contains about 1300 square miles. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the island are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, situated on the south west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Castel Rosso the ancient Craystus.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the Egean sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, much used in medicine, sometimes called *terra Lemna* or *sigillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a considerable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security; it hath a town of the same name.

SCYROS is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains; about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MYTELENE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles west of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and flax, and the lentisktree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome, as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban, the linen so white and thin it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were of silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and flax. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

THE CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continent of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Di-

ana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHERA, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the most southern islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a catholic bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and at the time of its first emerging, was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, and the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of RHODES is situated in the 28th degree of east longitude, and 36 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town of the same name, stands on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is 3 miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the Grand Signior's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was 50 fathom wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: One foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passing between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 125 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it in 1522 after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and 60 broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 3220 square miles. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the

the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against 56 storms, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

Candia lies in the Levant sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and during the time of the Crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable, and the richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop, indeed most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to such a surprising degree, that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250*l.* a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made, and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and others of smaller note, particularly ISOLA DEL COMPARE, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. These islands in general are fruitful, and belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in currants, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, strong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garrison of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the island of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, mostly Greeks, and friendly to strangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, and the residence of the governor-general over all the other islands, is a place of great strength, and its circumference about 4 miles. The Venetians are said to concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of these islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is estimated at 50,000, and their manners more severe than at Zante.

A S I A.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrancy and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our Redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious gospel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be owned, that a great change has happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has lost much of its ancient splendor, and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or farther from the north. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skillful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed in past times by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or as they are usually

usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three large empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties of Asia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe is absolute monarchy. If any of them can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mahometanism. The Persian and Indian Mahometans are of the sect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings of catholic missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to their own avarice, and the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 180 degrees of east longitude, and between the equator, and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the *Aver Don*, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which separates it from America; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow:

	Nations.	Leng.	Bread.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions	
Tartary.	Russian	The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on his conquests as far as he can		3,050,000	Tobolsk	2160 N.E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pag.	
	Chinese		844,000	Chynian	4480 N.E.	3 4 bef.	Pagans		
	Mogulean		185,350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans		
	Independ.		600,000	Samar-cand	2800 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans		
						4310			
		China	144	1000	1,105,000	Peking	4320 S.E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
		Moguls	2600	1500	1,916,500	Delhi	3720 S.E.	5 10 bef.	Mah. & P.
		Ind. beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	747,500	Biam Pegu	5040 S.E.	6 44 bef.	M. & Pag.
		Persia	1300	1100	800,000	Ti. shan	2460 S.E.	5 20 bef.	Mahom.
		Pt. of Arabia	1300	1200	700,000	Mecca	2440 S.E.	2 52 bef.	Mahom.
Turkey in Asia.	Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1800 S.E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Ma.	
	Holy land	210	90	7,600	Jerusalem	1920 S.E.	2 24 bef.	Ch. & Ma.	
	Natolia	750	390	195,000	Burta or Smyrna	1440 S.E.	1 48 bef.	Mahom.	
	Diarbeck or Mesopotam	240	210	27,600	Diarbeck	2060 S.E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans with some few Christians.	
	Irac, or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240			
	Turcomania or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S.E.	2 44 bef.		
	Georgia	240	180	25,000	Tebis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.		
		Curdistan or Alviria	210	205	23,900	Scherazer	2220 E.	3 00 bef.	Mahom.

All the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, already described, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade, or have settlements, are,

Islands.	Towns.	Sq. Miles.	Tradewith or belon.	
The Japanese isles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch	
The Ladrones	Guam		Spain	
Formosa	Tai-ouan-fou	17,000	China	
Anian	Kiontcheow	11,900		
The Philippines	Minilla	133,700	Spain	
The Molucca or Clove isles	Victoria fort, Ternate		Dutch	
The Banda, or Nutmeg isles	Lantor		Dutch	
Amboyna	Amboyna	400	Dutch	
Celebes	Matassar	68,400	Dutch	
Gilolo, &c.	Gilolo	10,400	Dutch	
The Sunda isles	Borneo	Borneo, Caytengoe	228,000	All nations
	Sumatra	Achen, Benc, olen	120,000	English and Dutch
	Java, &c.	Batavia, Bantam	38,250	Dutch
The Andama & Nicobar isles	Andaman, Nicobar		All nations	
Ceylon	Candy	27,730	Dutch	
The Maldives	Caridon		All nations	
Bombay	Bombay		English	
The Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamischatka, lately discovered by the Russians,			Russia	

* Georgia hath lately claimed independence, and put itself under the protection of Russia.

TURKEY

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1000 } Breadth 800 }	between { 27 and 46 east longitude. } { 28 and 45 north latitude. }	520,800

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia, on the north; by Persia, on the east; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the south; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Eyzæa Arabic or Chaldaea	Bassora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec or Mesopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa & Mousul.
	3. Kurdistan or Assyria	Nineveh and Beblis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia	Teflis, Amarchia, and Gonie.
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west.	1. Natolia Proper	Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
	2. Amasia	Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania	Satalia and Taresso.
East of the Levant Sea.	Saria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon & Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred, as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus and Antitaurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontos, Meander, Sarabat, Kara, and Jordana.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.] The Turkish dominions, including, besides the above specified possessions in Europe, the provinces of Asia Minor, Georgia, Mingrelia, Armenia, Bagdad, Aleppo, Damascus, Palestina, part of Arabia and Egypt, belong to those parts of the world, which enjoy the most delightful climate, and the happiest situation for commerce and the acquisition of opulence. Nature has poured out her gifts on these provinces with profusion. But the tyrannical government now prevailing in this large part of the world being hostile to industry and population, renders this immense empire wretched and indigent.

Besides the finest natural productions which are found in Spain and Italy, Turkey in Europe abounds in horses, and in various sorts of excellent poultry, supplied by the wild beasts in the mountainous and woody parts of the provinces. It produces also a great deal of cotton, mastic, manna, goats hair, which resembles silk in softness, especially the sort called camel-hair.

The province of Wallachia in particular, produces, in good years, 5,000,000 cyvers of wine, the cyver weighing $22\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Three small islands in the Archipelago, Methalika, Patrazzo, and Rostizza, yield about 800,000 lb. of currants. Honey and wax is produced in great abundance in Moldavia; the tenth part of the profits from the hives yields a revenue of 200,000 dollars to the Hospodar, or prince of Moldavia. (Sulzer.) Livadia, Macedonia, and Candia, produce annually upwards 3,000,000 lb. of honey, of which about one-fourth is exported. (Sprengel.) Most provinces raise, or might raise, excellent silk in considerable quantities. That which is raised in the province of Macedonia is estimated to amount to 100,000 lb. and at Thessalonica, or Salonichi, to the amount of 500,000 piasters, is annually sold. Cotton is likewise found chiefly in Macedonia, which province exports 120,000 balls, sold at 80 piasters each. The French purchase annually 12,000 balls at Salonichi, the English for 400,000 piasters, the Italians for 240,000, and the Germans for 1,700,000 piasters. (Sprengel.) Tobacco is exported from the same place to Italy, to the amount of 290,000 piasters.

The provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia possess immense masses of salt rock, connected with the great rock strata of Gallicia and Transylvania; and the prince of Wallachia gains upwards of 500,000 florins annually by the salt-works at Rjamick. (Sulzer.) Moldavia abounds in buffalos and oxen, of which 40,000 head are sold to the neighbouring provinces; nearly as many horses are annually sold in this province. (Bolsowich.) In the same fertile districts, great numbers of sheep are bred, reckoned to amount to 4,000,000. Besides the profits arising from the wool, the skins of these sheep, and skins of goats, are used in making Saffian and Morocco leather. Bosnia and Servia sell about 40,000 hogs annually to Hungary. The wines of Greece, and its olive oil, are very celebrated for their excellence.

In the extensive dominions of Turkey, which are bordered by great ridges of mountains, the mineral kingdom might yield extraordinary riches; but the science of mining is as much neglected by the Turks as all other sciences. They have, however, begun to search for copper and iron in Wallachia; and the gold dust, washed down by the rivers of that province, gives sufficient indication of what may be expected to be found in its mountains. The several sorts of marble found in Greece have been highly esteemed in ancient and modern times. Sulphur, allum, saltpetre, asphalt, and other valuable minerals, are found in plenty.

If we consider the natural riches of the Asiatic provinces and of Egypt, we cease to wonder how the Turks, notwithstanding their aversion to industry and manufactures, are no losers by their trade, of which the balance is rather in their favour. From Turkey the following goods are exported: Cotton, silk, wool, camel yarn, leather, coffee, wine, rice, fruits, tobacco, honey, wax, cattle, marble, &c. The imports consist in woollens, corn, indigo, sugar, cochennille, spices, glass, hard-ware, and East-India goods. The Turks are no great losers by their trade with France; they lose not much by their trade with the Dutch; and they seem to be gainers by that with England. In 1785, the goods exported from Turkey to England amounted to

146,906l.

146,906l. sterl. the goods imported from England into Turkey to only 82,449l. sterl. They are likewise gainers by their trade to Germany and Hungary: The imports from the latter kingdom into Turkey amounted, in 1778, to only 241,773 florins, whereas the Turkish goods sold to Hungary amounted to 1,328,337 florins. From these benefits derived from trade, even with the present inconsiderable shipping employed in it, and notwithstanding the want of manufactures, we may infer how great the profits of commerce might be rendered, if industry should ever be so far encouraged as to bear a just proportion to the natural wealth of the country.

The principal trading towns in Turkey are the cities of Constantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Alexandria, and Salonichi.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of the Turkish empire is despotic; the life and property of the subject depend on the will of the Sultan, who is the only free man in his dominions, and who exacts a blind obedience to his will as a civil and religious duty. Yet the emperor is restrained, in some measure, by the same religious system on which his arbitrary power is founded, and still more by the intrigues of the principal officers of his court or seraglio, who are possessed of the actual power of which the Sultan enjoys only the appearance. The great influence of the army, and, now and then, a sense of oppression which rouses the people to rebellion, are likewise objects of terror, and have often proved fatal to these arbitrary monarchs. The Turkish throne is hereditary in the family of Osman: After the extinction of the lineal descendants of this prince, of whom there are few remaining, the right of succession devolves on the family of Gherai, Chan of the Crimea.

The supreme council of state is called the divan. The regular or ordinary divan is composed of the high officers of state; and, on particular emergencies, an extraordinary divan is held, which consists, besides these officers, of other persons of experience and knowledge of the law, called in by the ministers to assist in their deliberations. At both meetings the Grand Sultan is usually present, but only in an adjoining apartment, where he may hear the advice of his ministers: The president of the divan is the grand visier as first minister, whose power in the state is exceedingly great, but whose place is very precarious, and generally fatal to the possessor. The provinces of the empire are ruled by governors, called Bashaws, who exercise nearly the same arbitrary power over the subject provinces, which the Sultan has over the whole empire. The connexion of the distant provinces with the seat of the empire is very weak, and often shaken by rebellions, and the quarrels of the Bashaws. All public offices are bought, and of course generally filled with the worst and most rapacious persons. The Hospodars, or princes of Wallachia and Moldavia, pay very large sums to the Grand Sultan for their dignities, and they indemnify themselves by extortions from their subjects.

The Turkish laws are contained in the Koran, in the code of laws collected by Soliman II. and, in dubious cases, the decisions of the Mufti, the chief of the Mahometan church, have the authority of laws. Each town has its court of justice, consisting of the superior judge, or *cadi*, who is called *molla* in the larger towns, under whom there is an inferior judge and a clerk. In the provinces, the Bashaws

are

are supreme judges. From the decisions of the magistrates of the towns, appeal may be made to the *Cadi Lefthkires*, or superior judges of the army, in Rumilia and Anadoli. From these, appeal lies in the last instance to a *divan*, held expressly, for that purpose, by the Grand Visier, at his own house.

The Greeks, subject to the Grand Sultan, have their own courts of justice.

FINANCES.] The public revenue amounts to 30,000,000 dollars, or 89,955 purses, at 500 piasters each.

It is very difficult to state the revenue of the Turkish emperor with any degree of accuracy, as a very considerable part of it is irregularly levied on the subject, and liable to great variations. The *miri*, or public treasury, is reckoned to receive annually about 20,000,000 dollars. But there are, besides the *miri*, two other treasuries, the private *chautoule* of the emperor, called *chafna*, and the treasury of the Mosques. The ordinary revenue paid annually into the *chafna* amounts to 600,000 dollars; but a much larger sum arises from confiscated estates and property, from the exchange and the sale of public offices from seizures of the fortunes of rich private persons, to whom the emperor declares himself heir, and from various other extortions.

In 1776, the revenue was collected in the following manner:

1. Amount of the <i>Charatfeh</i> , or capitation of such subjects in Europe as are not mussulmen, and who are not under the immediate protection of foreign ambassadors	Florins 11,313,000
2. <i>Charatfeh</i> of Asia	8,160,000
3. ————— of Cyprus, Candia, and the Archipelago	1,395,000
4. ————— of Egypt	787,000
5. Other revenues from Asia and Egypt	850,000
6. Contributions of the tributary nations of Asia	2,362,500
7. Tribute of the <i>Hospodars</i> of Wallachia and Moldavia	1,400,000
8. <i>Domaine</i> of the emperor, including the revenues from fisheries	2,390,000
9. Customs at Constantinople, and duty on tobacco	2,820,000
10. Farm of the salt and mines	12,5000,000
11. Revenue from Mecca and Medina	1,640,000
12. Extraordinary revenue from inheritance and confiscation	8,170,000

Upwards of 53,000,000

In the same year the public expenditure was said to amount only to 44,495,000 florins. This statement is taken from the statistical tables, published at Vienna, the author of which, from the vicinity of that capital to Turkey, was likely to be best acquainted with the present state of the latter. The department of the treasury, or *miri*, is divided into twelve bureaux: The first minister of finances is called *Defterdar*. In every province the officers and collectors of the revenue are very numerous and oppressive.

ARMY.] It is usually estimated at 300,000 men, nor is it at all difficult to raise so large a number of men in time of war, if all those undisciplined crowds are taken into the account, which flock together from all parts to the standard of Mahomet. But even a regular well disciplined army of 300,000 men, would not be too large for an empire of such

such extent, and which contains such great numbers of inhabitants. About one half of the above number may be considered as of real use; and this was the actual force of the empire in the beginning of the late Russian war.

NAVY.] About 60 ships of war.

In the year 1786, the Turks had actually 30 ships of the line, of 800 men each, and 40 galleys, 140 men each; and this number was intended to be increased.

In any extraordinary exigency the Turks are able to fit out

40 ships of the line of 800 men each	
40 galleys	140
20 caravellas	300
100 galliots	60

Total 200 ships of war, and 50,000 sea troops, or *levanti*. The states under the protection of the Porte, viz. Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, are obliged to furnish ten ships of the line.

RELIGION.] The established religion in this empire is the Mahometan, of the sect of the Sunnites: The heretical sect of the Shaites is, however, tolerated; all other religions are likewise included in this system of toleration, on paying a certain capitation. Among the Christians residing in Turkey, those of the orthodox Greek religion are the most numerous, and they enjoy several privileges; they can, for instance, be advanced to dignities and posts of trust and profit; as to the princely dignity of Moldavia and Wallachia, to the place of body physicians and interpreters of the imperial court. The Greeks are, in religious matters, subject to the patriarch of Constantinople, who is considered as the chief of the Greek church and nation, and whose authority and jurisdiction is extensive. Other branches of the Greek church are the Armenians, Nestorians, Maronites, Coptes, and others.

The Turkish clergy is numerous: This body is composed of all the learned in that empire; and they are likewise the only teachers of the law, who must be consulted in all important cases. In their capacity of lawyers, or interpreters of the Koran, which, in most cases, is the code of laws, the clergy are called *ylana*, or the instructed in the law. The Grand Sultan himself as caliph, or successor to the prophet Mahomet, is their head; but their actual chief is the Musti, an officer of great authority and political influence. The Sultan has the power of deposing the Musti, but he cannot take his property from him, which is considered as sacred. The successors or descendants of Mahomet, who are called emirs, or sheriffs, enjoy the same privilege. Those persons or priests, who are employed in the rites of the public worship, are called *imans*; and the Mahometan temples are known by the name of Mosques. There are, among the Turks, eight religious orders; their Monks are called *Derwises*, and lead, in general, a very austere life. The Mosques are very richly endowed, and the estates which they have acquired are become sacred, and cannot be taken away even by the most arbitrary despots. Many opulent persons assign their estates over to the Mosques, even in their lifetime, and pay them a small annual rent, which ensures them the possession during life; after their death, the whole is the property of the church.

Jews are very numerous in Turkey : They are subject to a chief of their own nation, called Cochah Pascha, whose power over them is even greater than that which the Patriarch exercises over the Greek Christians. Gypsies are found in all provinces. Upon the whole, the number of Mahometans is greater than that of the subjects of other religious denominations.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it, because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian era, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reasons, and particularly because the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. The Turkish emperor, however, has more subjects than any two European princes. The probable number of inhabitants we have mentioned in the table.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust men; when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handsome; but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, sedate, and passive: In matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers: They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanseras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses; where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own or any other country. If a visier, bashaw, or other officer, is turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion, than that there will be a new visier or governor, seldom inquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may commonly be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the winter, and six in the summer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes

times it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of higher rank sometimes have their beads perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependants. Within doors, the chess or draught board are their usual amusements; and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

[DRESS.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

[MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the *cadi*, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, besides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of Seraglio of women; but all these indulgencies are sometimes insufficient to gratify their unnatural desires.

[FUNERALS.]

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. - The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and after being deposited in a mosque (for so they call their temples) they are buried in a field by the iman or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. - The male relations express their sorrow by ains and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a husband they wear a particular head dress, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks till of late professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Turkish language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them understand astronomy, so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but the number of these being very small, they are looked upon as extraordinary persons.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, }
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }** These are so various, that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. These countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a plenitude of curiosities, all that can be done here is to select some of the most striking; and I shall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity. Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and in the Heliopolis of Cæle Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the ancient mythology. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish
mosques

mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern, as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, but without mounting to the ancient times of the Jews or the Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our measure is 1135 tons. A coarse, white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræ, about 33 deg. N. lat. and 200 miles to the south east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, paid it a visit some years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable lands. Nothing however is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which, have turned the more fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of

of Marc Anthony; and its most superb buildings, are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for some time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it must be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of the celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian, made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its present wretched state. It has been observed very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shewn by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the same lady, are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs; it will in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned the delicious plains of Italy, and the noted countries of Greece and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried; so that the vast sums spent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in visiting those places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uses. I shall not amuse the reader with any accounts of the spot which is said to have formed Paradise, and to have been situated between the river Euphrates and Tigris, where there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name.

name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in these immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is indeed easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical observations. The seat of Old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think that they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND } These are very numerous, and at
OTHER BUILDINGS, } the same time very insignificant, because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon the site of Old Alexandria, but it is now almost deppopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo and its suburbs are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest top of which the citadel or castle is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Christians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees; but the country round it rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravan-seras, or large square buildings, containing their ware-houses, lodging-rooms, and counting-houses. The city abounds in neat, and some of them magnificent mosques, public bagnios, which are very refreshing, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their sweet meats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire.

pire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horse-back with a number of servants before them according to their rank. The English, French and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here, over all Arabia, and many other parts of the East, for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains some parts of the holy scripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkish cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government; and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer circulation of the air; many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceiling ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the *Bashaw*, which is calculated to produce 300,000 sterling. Their bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandize, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of different colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion, but in the year 1779, they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not to support firing. Below the castle by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Kurdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Kurdistan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Kurdistan is said to be for the most part cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or *beglerbeg*. Orfa, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture

manufacture of Turkey leather. Mousul is also in the same province, a large place situated on the west shore of the Tigris, opposite to where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Curgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are fourteen churches in Teflis, six of which belong to the Georgians; and the rest to the Armenians; the Mahometans who are here, have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians in general are by some travellers said to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Russia, and claimed its protection.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks called Damasks, from their city, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk, rose-water extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewise lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. The town is surrounded with a stone wall, a citadel on the land side, and another towards the sea. The houses are built chiefly of stone, and are two stories high. The inhabitants are about 16,000, chiefly Christians of the Greek church, and the place is the seat of a bishop of that persuasion. There are in the town two public baths, and two mosques. It stands on a neck of land over against Tyre, and both form a bay of about 16 miles in breadth. Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a few fishermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls, on the land side, of stone, 18 feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half; and Christians and Mahometans make the number of 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible.

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycæonia, Cilicia, Cappadoeia, and Pontus, or Amasia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible;

cernible; and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves; and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of these countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility and population. Even Palestine and Judæa, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing Judæa in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by some European writers, have imposed upon weak Christians.*

Under the government of Sheik Daher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey, some part of Palestine revived. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and shewed great indulgence to the Christians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which stands on the declivity of mount Carmel, distant about 20 miles from Acre, was also new built and enlarged by Daher. The ancient Joppa, now Jaffa, 50 miles west from Jerusalem, stands on a rocky hill; hath an harbour for small vessels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7000; the western part of the town is inhabited by Christians. The present state of Ramah is deplorable, its walls in decay, and most of the houses empty, though the number of inhabitants is still between 3 and 4000. Not a house is standing of the once magnificent city of Cesærea, but the remains of the walls testify its former grandeur. Azotus is about two miles in circumference, the inhabitants are near 3000, and mostly Mahometans: An old structure is shewn here, with fine marble pillars, which is said to be the house that Sampson pulled down, when insulted by the Philistines. Gaza is still respectable, it extends from east to west three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The last is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs: The number of the inhabitants is reckoned to be 26,000. It is about five miles from the sea, and outside the town is a market for the country people to dispose of their commodities to the inhabitants; for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile, but its chief produce is corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton.

TITLES.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God*

* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the founder's philology to make a most just observation, says, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, says he, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine, says Mr. Wood, we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows, is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, and well made, and sprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand-signior, before they are sent to the colleges or seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius and abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. The brave prince Héraclius, hath for some years past abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the Harem, depends on the taste of the reigning monarch or sultan. Selim had 2000, Achmet had but 300, and the present sultan has nearly 1600. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called *Katon Kaya*, or governess of the noble young ladies. There is not one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the last that is entered serves her who preceded her, and herself. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand-signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are inclosed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the Harem, which carry the grand signior's wives, are manned with 24 rowers, and have white covered tilts, shut alternately by Venetian blinds. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness, and some dwarfs who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

When he permits the women to walk in the gardens of the seraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every side there is a guard of black eunuchs, with sabres in their hands, while others go the rounds in order to hinder any person from seeing them. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, even through ignorance or inadvertence, he is certainly killed, and his head brought to the feet of the grand signior, who gives a great reward to the guard for their vigilance. Sometimes the grand-signior passes into the gardens to amuse himself, when the women are there: And it is then that they make use of their utmost efforts, by dancing, singing, seducing gestures, and amorous blandishments, to ensnare the affections of the monarch. It is not permitted that the monarch should take a virgin to his bed except during the solemn festival, and on occasions of some extraordinary rejoic-

ings, or the arrival of some good news. Upon such occasions, if the sultan chooses a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governesses, to whom he speaks, and intimates the person he likes best: The ceremony of the handkerchief, which the grand-signior is said to throw at the girl that he elects, is an idle tale, without any foundation. As soon as the grand-signior has chosen the girl that he has destined to be the partner of his bed, all the others follow her to the bath, washing and perfuming her, and dressing her superbly, conducting her singing, dancing, and rejoicing to the bed-chamber of the grand-signior, who is generally, on such an occasion, already in bed. Scarcely has the new-elected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than she kneels down, and when the sultan calls her, she creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if the sultan does not order her by special grace, to approach by the side: After a certain time, upon a signal given by the sultan, the governesses of the girls, with all her suite, enter the apartment, and take her back again, conducting her with the same ceremony to the women's apartments; and if by good fortune she becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, she is called *afaki sultaneff*, that is to say, *sultaneff-mother*; for the first son she has the honour to be crowned, and she has the liberty of forming her court. Eunuchs are also assigned for her guard, and for her particular service. No other ladies, though delivered of boys, are either crowned, or maintained with such costly distinction as the first: However, they have their service apart, and handsome appointments. After the death of the sultan, the mothers of the male children are shut up in the old *seraglio*, from whence they can never come out any more, unless some one of their sons ascend the throne. Baron de Tott informs us, that the female slave who becomes the mother of a sultan, and lives long enough to see her son mount the throne, is the only woman who, at that period, acquires the distinction of *Sultana Mother*: She is till then in the interior of her prison, with her son.—The title of *Bache Kadun*, principal women, is the first dignity of the grand-signior's *Harem*, and she has a larger allowance than those who have the title of second, third, and fourth woman, which are the four free women the *Koran* allows.

HISTORY.] For the best history of the Turks, the reader is referred to "The History of the Turkish or Ottoman Empire," in 4 vols. 8vo. Translated from the French of MIGNOT, by A. HAWKINS, Esq. Printed in 1787, and sold by Mr. Stockdale, London.

TARTARY

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 4000 }	between { 50 and 150 east long. 30 and 72 north lat.
Breadth 2400 }	

BOUNDARIES. It would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy, on the West.

Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
North-east division	{ Kamtschatka Tartars Jakutskoi Tartars	{ Kamtschatka Jakutskoi	
South-east division	{ Bratski Thibet and Mogul Tartars	{ Bratski Thibet Polou Kudak	985,380
North-west division	{ Samoleda Ostiaek	{ Mangafia Kortskoi	
South-west division	{ Circassian and Astra- chan Tartary	{ Terki Astrachan	
Middle division.	{ Siberia Kalmuc Tartary Usbeck Tartary	{ Tobolsk Bokharia Samarcand	{ 850,000 839,840

Kamtschatka is a great peninsula, which extends from North to South about seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolcherefk, Tigiliskaia Krepost, Verchnei or Upper Kamtschatkoi Ostrog, and Nishnei or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog.

MOUNTAINS. The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat so contiguous to it; that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia, from Mongrelia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS. These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS. The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles: The Oby, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tobol, Irtis, Genefa or Jenka; the Burrumpooter, the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, &c. The air of this country is very different, and **AND PRODUCE,** by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and the Russia Lapland are most uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thick-nesses. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants in all probability would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well, but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit trees to bear, have hitherto been in vain; but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various eatable roots, are found very generally here; but there are no bees in all Siberia. Astrachan, and the southern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. Their summers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pestilential, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the highest in Asia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives rise to the rivers of India and China, and those of Siberia and other parts of Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth found here, creates some dispute among the naturalists, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimsical and curious, when polished with art and skill.

ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the north parts of Europe. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: As they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astrachan there is a bird called by the Russians *baba*, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on seeing a shoal, or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them, or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, fables, and ermines,

the

the skins of which are superior to those of any part of the world.—Horses and cattle are in great plenty; and sold at low prices.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } We can form no prob-
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } able guess as to the num-
ber of inhabitants in Tartary; but from many circumstances we must conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general strong made, stout men; their faces broad, their noses flattish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards are scarcely visible, as they continually thin them by pulling out the hairs by the roots. M. le Clerc's account of the Tartars (or Tatars as he calls them) just published, is curious. He obtained the information on which it is founded, from two princes and several Mourzas of that nation. Their origin is the same with that of the ancient Turks; and Turk was the general denomination of this people until the time that Zingis-Khan made himself master of the North of Asia; nay, they still retain this title among themselves, though, after the period now mentioned, the neighbouring nations give to all their tribes the general appellation of Tartars. The term *horde*, according to him, does not signify properly a tribe; it denotes a tribe assembled, either to march against the enemy, or for other political reasons.

The beauty of the Circassian women is a kind of staple commodity in that country; for parents there make no scruple of selling their daughters to recruit the seraglios, or rather *harems*, of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale.

According to Mr. Bruce, the Circassian women are extremely well shaped, with exceeding fine features, smooth, clear complexions, and beautiful black eyes, which with their black hair hanging in two tresses, one on each side the face, give them a most lovely appearance: They wear a black coil on their heads, covered with a fine white cloth tied under the chin. During the summer they go almost naked. They have the reputation of being very chaste, though they seldom want opportunity to be otherwise; for it is an established point of good manners among them, that as soon as any person comes in to speak to the wife, the husband goes out of the house; but whether this continency of theirs proceeds from their own generosity, to recompense their husbands for the confidence they put in them, or has its foundation only in fame, I pretend not to determine. Their language they have in common with the other neighbouring Tartars, although the chief people among them are not ignorant of the Russian: The apparel of the men of Circassia is much the same with that of the Nagayans, only their caps are something larger, and their cloaks being likewise of coarse cloth or sheep-skins, are fastened only at the neck with a string, and as they are not large enough to cover the whole body, they turn them round according to the wind and weather.

The Tartars are in general a wandering sort of people; in their peregrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till all its grass and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get
from

from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloths, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. Among themselves they are very hospitable, and wonderfully so to strangers and travellers, who confidentially put themselves under their protection. They are naturally of an easy, cheerful temper, always disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed by care and melancholy. When any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, it is said, they make a small hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him with some provisions, and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions they say they do their parents a good office, in sending them to a better world. Notwithstanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, especially towards the south, are tractable, humane, and are susceptible of pious and virtuous sentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their submission to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has distinguished them in all ages. History tells us, that Darius, king of Persia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius sent an ambassador to demand where it was they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for answer, with a spirit peculiar to that people, "They had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they should give him battle; but when once he was come to the place of their fathers' monuments, he should understand in what manner the Scythians used to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horsemanship from their infancy: they seldom appear on foot. They are dextrous in shooting at a mark, in so much that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will split a pole with an arrow, though at a considerable distance. The dress of the men is very simple and fit for action; it generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves made of deer's skin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hose in the top to let out the smoke, and benches round the fire to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward, to the Japanese ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itself as it were under ground, and we are told, that so sociable are they in their dispositions, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in an invisible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horse-flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabbins extremely nauseous. Though horse-flesh be preferred raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife is turned of forty, she

is employed in menial duties as another servant, and as such must attend the young wives who succeed to their places; nor is it uncommon, in some of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The descendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are still most of them idolaters. They consist of many nations, entirely differing from each other in their manner of living, religion, languages, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by some Tartars, and such as are converted to Christianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increased since it became a Russian province; for the Russians have founded therein a number of towns, fortresses, and villages. Notwithstanding which it presents but a void and desert view; since, by its extent it is capable of supporting several millions more than it at present contains. For the manners and customs of the other Tartars belonging to the Russian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars somewhat resembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Catholic religions. Some of them are the grossest idolaters, and worship little rude images dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind.

The Circassian religion is Paganism, for notwithstanding they use circumcision among them, they have neither priest, alcoran, or mosque, like other Mahometans. Every body here offers his own sacrifice at pleasure, for which, however, they have certain days, established rather by custom than any positive command: Their most solemn sacrifice is offered at the death of their nearest friends, upon which occasion both men and women meet in the field to be present at the offering, which is a he-goat; and having killed, they flay it, and stretch the skin with the head and horns on, upon a cross at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickset hedge (to keep the cattle from it,) and near the place the sacrifice is offered by boiling and roasting the flesh, which they afterwards eat. When the feast is over, the men rise, and having paid their adoration to the skin, and muttered over some certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking a great quantity of aqua vitæ, and this generally ends in a quarrel before they part.

But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Lassa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the most remarkable, and the most worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lamia, or Delai Lama, who is not only submitted to, and adored by them, but is also the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Korea on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest, where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Ev-

ery year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: Even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgements to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens known only to the Lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Tayshoo Lama, who in authority and sanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The lamas, who form the most numerous, as well as the most powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, fill up many monastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The residence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli; a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of the Barampooter, about seven miles from Lassa. The English East India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774.* The religion of Thibet, though in many respects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and highly respect the waters of the Ganges, the source of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunnialles, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as an holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is possessed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extensive, and stretch to Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. But they also maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheless generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as beings vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and

* The fort of Delli-acotta which commanded the principal pass through the ridge of the Bootan mountains, was taken by storm, by Captain Jones in 1773, and the fame of this exploit made the Thibetians sue for peace.

to look after household affairs: And in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

CURIOSITIES.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above mentioned great conquerors and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered upon the spot, as well as other traces of decayed importance. Many of them are in tolerable preservation, and make some figure even at present.

The desert of Kirguis abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, says M. Voltaire, in his history of Peter the Great, there were found in Kalmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and earrings, an equestrian statue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. About 80 miles from Lassa is the lake Palte, or Jangso; of that extent, the natives say it requires 18 days to walk round it. In the middle of it are islands, one of which is the seat of the *Lamassa Turcepama*, or the *Great Regenerate*, in whom the Thebetians think a divine spirit inhabits as in the Great Lama.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be said to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against any enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolsk and Astrachan are considerable cities, the first containing 15,000 and the latter 70,500 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have all lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government.

Terki, the capital of Circassian Tartary, is seated in a spacious plain on an island formed by the rivers Terki and Bustrow, and is garrisoned by 2000 regulars, and 1000 Cossacks. It is well fortified with ramparts and bastions in the modern style, well stored with cannon, and has always a considerable garrison in it, under the command of a governor. The Circassian prince who resides here, is allowed five hundred Russians for his guard, but none of his own subjects are permitted to dwell within any part of the fortifications. Ever since the reduction of those parts to the obedience of Russia, they have put in all places of strength, not only Russian garrisons and governors, but magistrates, and priests for the exercise of the Christian religion; yet the Circassian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords, and judges, but these administer justice in the name of the emperor, and in matters of importance, not without the presence of the Russian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to his imperial majesty.

Tarku is the capital of Dagestan, and contains 3000 houses, two stories high, platformed at the top for walking. The Tartars of this province are numerous, and Mahometans, governed by a sheffel, whose

whose office is elective. The city of Derbent is situated on the Caspian shore, and called the frontier of Persia. It is said to have been first built by Alexander the Great, and that he here received the visit from the Amazonian queen Thalestris. It is now inclosed with a broad strong wall, built with large square stones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucasus. Lassa is a small city, but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in cattle, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Astrachans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic into Persia, to which they export leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing numbers who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts resided, are now scenes of horror and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by the two above mentioned conquerors and their descendants; for nothing is more common in their histories than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

The country of Uibec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis, or Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world. But some authors have absurdly questioned the veracity of the historians of these great conquerors, though it be better established than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The former, about the year 1200 made himself master of those regions, which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son Batou Sagin made himself master of Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. Long and heavily did the Tartar yoke gall the neck of Russia, till alleviated by the divisions among themselves. But not till Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, were they delivered from these warlike invaders. He repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan and other provinces, and made his name respected in all that quarter.

Tamerlane's memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan, his defeat of the Turkish emperor Bajazet hath been before noticed in the history of that nation, and great were his conquests, and his name, far beyond the limits of his proper dominions. His descent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indostan himself. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharua; situated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great, and who died in the year 1405.

The present inhabitants of this immense common, compose innumerable tribes, who range at pleasure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by separate,

rate Khans or leaders, that, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power over strangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horsemen. Their chief residence is a kind of military station, which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war and other occasions.

Besides what may be learned from their history and traditions, the standard or colours of the respective tribes form a distinctive mark, whereby each Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. These marks of distinction consist of a piece of Chinese linen, or other coloured stuff, suspended on a lance, twelve feet in length, among the Pagan Tartars. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their standards the name of *God*, in the Arabic language. The Kalmucs and the Mogul Tartars, distinguish theirs by the name of some animal; and, as all the branches or divisions of a tribe preserve always the figure drawn upon the standard of that tribe, adding only the particular denomination of each branch, those standards answer the purpose of a genealogical table or tree, by which each individual knows his origin and descent.

They are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, and the Turkish empires; each of whom are pushing on their conquests, in this extensive, and in some places, fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgement of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of the utmost consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency; and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese, as we shall mention in our account of that empire. The method of carrying on war, by wasting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them from the Danube eastward. This circumstance, renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of all subsistence, while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provisions.

See Univer. Hist.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450	between { 20 and 42 north latitude. 98 and 123 east longitude.	{ 1,105,000
Breadth 1260		
To which should be added Chinese Tartary.		644,000

BOUNDARIES. It is bounded by the Chinese Tartary; and an amazing stone wall, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the East; by the Chinese Sea, South; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Russia, on the West.

DIVISIONS.]

DIVISIONS.] The great divisions of this empire, according to the authors of the *Universal History*, is into fifteen provinces (exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situated without the Great Wall, though under the same dominion;) each of which might, for their largeness, fertility, populousness, and opulence, pass for so many distinct kingdoms.

But it is necessary to acquaint the reader, that the information contained in Du Aalde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and others sent thither by the pope, whose missions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are justly to be suspected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and successes, as well as the importance of the Chinese empire.

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chinese word signifying *Middle*, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Croceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in some places boiled to make it fit for use.

BAYS.] The chief are those of Nankin and Canton.

CANALS.] These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of being the wisest and most industrious people in the world. The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides, and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. About 10,000 boats from 200 tons and under, are kept at the public expense. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon the borders, render China the most delightful to the eye, of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not incumbered with forests or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is sharp, in the middle

dle mild, and in the south hot. The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can minister to the necessities, conveniencies or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some others peculiar to itself; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, must be mentioned.

The *tallow tree* has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces have all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil serve the natives as candles; but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of these, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-silk, which so much abounds in China, and above all, the *tea-plant*, or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithstanding our long intercourse with China, writers are still divided about the different species and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and boheateas grow on the same shrub, but that the latter admits of some kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, singlo, and the like, are occasioned probably by the nature of the soils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant seems to be very simple; and it is certain that some kinds are of a much higher and delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the finest, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over land to Russia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greatest is between the bohea and the green.

It is supposed, that the Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English, but it was introduced among the latter before the Restoration, as mention of it is made in the first act of parliament, that settled the excise on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the use of it common at court. The *ginseng*, so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities; and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The *ginseng*, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itself, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is, that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry. The gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] Much has been said of the population of China. It is undoubtedly great. According to Le Comte the 15 Provinces contain 2357 fortified towns, 10,128,789 families, 58,916,783 men. But this subject has been treated with the utmost attention and industry by M. Amiot, in a dissertation dated Sept. 1777, and inserted in the 6th vol. of the "*Memoirs concernant les Chinois.*" By estimates of the inhabitants of each Province made by authority, and communicated to the late M. Allerstain, President of the Mathematical department, it appears that this great Empire contains at least two hundred millions of inhabitants. Notwithstanding the industry of the people, their amazing population frequently occasions a dearth. Parents, who cannot support their female children, are allowed to cast them into the river; but they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compassionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to save them from death. The Chinese, in their persons, are middle sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses rather short. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion towards the north is fair, towards the south, swarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handsomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment, so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chinese, to palliate their jealousy.

DRESS.] This varies according to the degrees among them. The men wear caps on their heads of the fashion of a bell; those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and a sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the south wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled. Their dress differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open sleeves.—The dress both of men and women varies, however, according to the temperature of the climate.

MARRIAGES.]

MARRIAGES.] The parties never see each other, in China, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on the high roads, or cast them into a river.

FUNERALS.] People of note cause their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life time. No persons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpse suffered to be brought into a town, if a person died in the country. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable: But then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined, and enables them to express themselves very well on the common occasions of life. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature, and therefore, their literature is all comprized in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous; according to some of their writers they amount to twenty-five thousand; to thirty or forty thousand, according to others; but the later writers say they amount to eighty thousand, though he is reckoned a very learned man, who is master of fifteen or twenty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as spoken, the latter has still continued in its original rude, uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvements.

The Chinese characters, Mr. Asple observes, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally imitative; they still partake so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words like letters or marks for sounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and in short a separate and distinct mark for each thing which hath a corporeal form. The Chinese also use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic nature, to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea, and they use them in the same manner as they do their abridged picture-characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their letters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page,

a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right hand side of the paper. Sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this is likewise read from the right hand.

[GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chinese, it is said, is peculiar to themselves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning, which existed among them, was only known to their philosophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them, and lasted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contemporary with Charles II. of England, nor is it very probable they ever will be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block printing, for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacs, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are revered as men of another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *King*, or the sacred books, which contains the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records, relative to these important subjects. History forms a class apart; yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekua-tschou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su*, or *Ché*, that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tsu*, or *Yé*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and contains all the works of the Chinese literati, the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth class is called *Tsie*, or *Miscellanies*, and contains

tains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said, that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the 10th and 11th centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypothesis concerning the natural system of the universe; and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind, in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long kept up with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, jappanning, and the like sedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under foreign articles. Some volcanos, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linfung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them. The artificial curiosities of China are stupendous. The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, and reaches from the province of Xensi to the Kang sea, between the Provinces of Pekin and Lanotum. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheli, to the east of Pekin, and almost in the same latitude: It is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains present on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in these mountains, seems to be fabulous. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch;

that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vast labour and expense. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nankin, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelane Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the disagreeable taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Pekin weighs 120,000 pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. The last curiosity I shall mention, is their fire works, which in China exceed those of all other nations. In short, every province of China is a scene of curiosities. Their buildings, except their pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance; not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be said of these more than that some of them are immensely large. The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; Le Compte says but 2357; the chief of which are Pekin, Nankin, and Canton. Pekin, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, 20 leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities: That which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Pekin are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city; and are so broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls, and in several places there are houses built for the guard. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor other carving, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest with large bricks cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line, the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops, where they sell silks and china-ware, generally take up the whole

whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilded, on which are written in large characters the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side of the street at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low, most of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers, employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Attiret, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the buildings shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of small vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks sail on these pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other, which diversity produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure, very large: Many of these houses are built with cedar, brought, at a vast expense, the distance of 500 leagues. Of these palaces, or houses of pleasure, there are more than 200 in this vast enclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in a diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art, as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature. The city of Pekin is said to contain two million inhabitants.

Nankin is said to exceed Pekin, both in extent and population. But if we may judge from the account which M. Bourgeois, missionary at Pekin, gives of it, in a letter of his, dated in 1777, we are to believe that there is nothing remarkable in this celebrated city, but its famous steeple, its vast circumference, the barren hills, and uncultivated tracts of land that are interposed within its walls, and which make a stranger think that he has left it far behind him when he is in the midst of it.

Canton is the greatest port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interpersed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and these again pleasantly di-

verified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river *Ta*: in which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by seven iron gates, and within-side of each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any fashion is seldom to be seen, unless by chance when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market-places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in the house where they do business, but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place; for tradesmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying before the city.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry; and which is exercised with vast art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable for retards, or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. We have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they still do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. The ancients knew and esteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity.* The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their

* The English in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received of late from several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture so generally useful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot in every country where the raw material is found.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to Americans and to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and vanity of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that since the discovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a very instructive, entertaining article, before the conquest of China by the Tartars; for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chinese, the Tartars have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient discipline in many respects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchical, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner; but, at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been possessed of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of speaking and writing different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded which they justified by saying, that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their assistance, and it was thus those barbarians, who had great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and they availed themselves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws, and regulations for the expenses of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions likewise the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution.

execution. The emperor is styled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chinese worshipped idols, yet their philosophers and legislators had juster sentiments of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make them more submissive to government. The Jesuits made little opposition to this when they attempted to convert the Chinese; and suffered their proselytes to worship Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals among the people, and endeavoured to supply the want of just ideas of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximated to that of Christianity; but as we know little of their religion, only through the Jesuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous instances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chinese with the Christian religion. Those fathers, it must be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progress about a century ago in their conversions; but they mistook the true character of the emperor who was their patron; for he no sooner found that they were in fact aspiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exercise of their religion; since which time Christianity has made no progress in China.

REVENUES.] These are said by some to amount to twenty millions sterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may be easily imposed, as an account of every man's family and substance is annually enrolled, and very possibly may amount to that sum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars in 644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chuntchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Pekin the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition, which was so much in their favour.

This security, however, of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone, being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present is the dilute of arms. The Chinese land army is said to consist of five millions of men; but in these are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preservation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks, we have already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris in 1772, from which it appears

appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war: But caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

HISTORY.] The Chinese pretend as a nation to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan-Kou is said by them to have been the first man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of the celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ, 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate investigation of this subject, these extravagant pretensions to antiquity, appear to be wholly unsupported. A correspondence has been carried on, for a number of years past, with the missionaries of China, and with two young Chinese, whom the desire of being useful to their country, engaged to leave it for some time, that they might learn, in France the European languages and sciences. After a residence of several years there, where they applied themselves with singular attention to the study of natural philosophy, chemistry, &c. and also acquired a considerable knowledge of trade, manufactures, and the mechanic arts, they returned to China in 1765, carrying with them instructions and questions, relating to a variety of objects, which the learned and others, desired to have elucidated. On their arrival in China, they joined their labours, with those of the missionaries, and thus, since the year 1766, a variety of pieces have been annually sent, containing answers to the questions that had been proposed to them.

In 1776, was printed in a 4to vol. at Paris, the first of a series of volume (some of which have since been published) which we are allowed to expect from this annual correspondence. This volume contains among other valuable things, an ample memoir concerning the antiquity of the Chinese nation. It is replete with learned researches, and shews a very extensive degree of erudition. The authors give a mortal blow to the pretended antiquity of the Chinese empire, and the authenticity of its ancient history. They prove that all historical relations of events prior to the reign of YAO, who lived 2657 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions.

The same volume contains the translation of two books of great antiquity, the one entitled *Tahio*, or the *Grand Science*: The other *Tsong-yong*, or the exact middle way, with a preface and notes. These two pieces of morality contain the most excellent precepts of wisdom and virtue, expressed with the greatest eloquence, elegance and precision. In the preface to them we are told, they were composed by the grandson of *Confucius*, and one of his disciples, from the lessons of that great Philosopher. If so, they are indeed uncommonly curious, and are equal to the noblest philosophical remains of Grecian antiquity, of which they bear, in several places, a very strong resemblance. But one of the passages, which is very striking, and which far exceeds, in clearness, the prophecy of Socrates, is that which follows. "How sublime are the ways of the Holy One! His virtue shall fill the universe—shall vivify all things, and shall rise to the Tier or Supreme Deity. What a noble course is opening to our view! What new laws and ob-

ligations!

ligations! What august rites and sacred solemnities! But how shall mortals observe them; if He does not first give them the example? His coming alone can prepare us for the performance of these sublime duties. Hence that saying, known and repeated in all ages, "the paths of perfection shall never be frequented, until the *Holy One*, by way of eminence, shall have consecrated them by the traces of his footsteps."

This certainly is a remarkable passage, especially if it has been translated with precision and fidelity, from an authentic production, of so early a date as the time of Confucius.

The origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts, which concern the monarchy since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family, has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoangti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian era, ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, with the medals, inscriptions, and monuments of antiquity, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy, and that there might remain no earlier record, date, or authority, relative to religion, science, or politics, than those of his own reign, and he be considered as the founder of the empire: Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 206 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller number for more remote periods. But notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French king. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgment.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; nor would we have fallen so much on this subject, could we have referred the reader to any good history of this Empire. It seems, that the original form of government, was monarchical; and a succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquility, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history is wrapped up in mysteries, their Li-Loakum; and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and Socrates of China. After all, the continued wars for several centuries between the Chinese and Tartars, and the internal revolutions of the empire, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific, and they were attended with the most bloody exterminations, in some provinces; so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession was often broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different lines and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which composed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Jaick, at a small distance from the Caspian sea, and in a vast body of fifty thousand families, they passed through the country of the Hafacks. After a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, cloths and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families, who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of the emigrations to be engraven upon stone, in four different languages.

INDOSTAN, HINDOOSTAN, or INDIA on this side the GANGES.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES. } THIS fine country, one of the most celebrated in the world for its antiquity, population and opulence, is situated between 66° and $92^{\circ} 30'$ of eastern longitude, and between the 8th and 36th Degrees of northern latitude, and is consequently, partly in the torrid, and partly in the northern temperate Zone.

It is washed on the South west by that part of the Indian Ocean, called the Arabian sea, on the south-east by another large inlet of the same ocean called the Bay of Bengal, and bounded on all other sides by Persia, Independent Tartary, Thibet, and India beyond the Ganges.

DIVISIONS. In the year 1596, the dominions of the Emperor of Indostan, consisted of 105 Sircars or Provinces, subdivided into 2737 Kusbais or townships. The Empire at that period was parcelled into

to twelve grand divisions, and each was committed to the government of a Soobadar or Viceroy. The names of the Soobahs or Viceroynalties, were

Allahabad	Ahmedabad	Cabul
Agra	Bahar	Lahoor
Owdh	Bengal	Multan
Ajmeer	Dehly	Malwa.

To these were added, by conquest, Berar, Khandcees, and Ahmednagur, which were formed into three Soobahs, increasing the number to fifteen.*

† Indostan is usually divided into Indostan Proper, to the north; and the peninsula called the Deccan, to the south.

These contain a variety of provinces, whose limits have been at all times very fluctuating, from the unsettled state of government.

‡ The Tartar princes, the successors of Tamerlane, as they subdued this country, divided it into large provinces called Soubahs, which were subdivided into Circars and Purgunnahs: The boundaries of these Soubahs having been fixed by the emperor Akber in the 16th century are tolerably well known.

Of these Soubahs Indostan Proper contained thirteen, viz.

Soubahs or Provinces	Chief Towns, &c.
Cabul†	Cabul, a very ancient and beautiful city, lat. 34° 30', lon. 104° 40'. Gazna or Ghuzneen, situated in the second climate, a barren place.
Lahoor, or the Punjab	Lahoor on the Rauvee, lat. 31° 50'. lon. 109° 22'.—a very large, populous city. Attock on the Indus, here called the R. of Attock, has one of the strongest fortresses in the empire, built to secure the passage of the river.
Moultan	Moultan or Multan is one of the most ancient cities of Indostan, and is in lat. 29° 25'. lon. 107° 35'.
Sindy	Tatta, <i>Patala</i> , on the Indus, here called the R. of Mehran, lat. 29° 25'. long. 107° 35'.

* Ayeen Akberry or the Institutes of the Emperor Akber, translated from the original Persian, by Francis Gladwin, and published in 3 vols. 4to. at Calcutta, 1783, & 1784.

† The divisions of Indostan have been very erroneously stated in most Geographies heretofore published. The divisions as above given were obtained from a gentleman of acknowledged acquaintance with the subject, and are according to the celebrated Map and Memoir of Major Rennell, which are esteemed of the first authority.

‡ The western part of this Soubah is inhabited by a barbarous nation called Afghans, transported hither by Tamerlane from the western coast of the Caspian sea; they have been alternately dependent on Indostan and Persia, and nearly overturned the latter empire a few years since; having taken and pillaged the city of Ispahan. No less than eleven different languages are spoken in this Soubah.

The country of Cashmire was a circar of Cabul: This celebrated country is environed on all sides by mountains, and watered by the R. Behat or Hydaspes, here called Ratab: It is supposed to have been originally a large lake, until an earthquake opened a passage through the surrounding mountains for the waters to flow off: The fineness of the climate, and industry of the inhabitants, have rendered it so beautiful, that it is called the Terrestrial Paradise of Indostan: Its capital is Cashmere or Serinagur.

§ This Soubah is very populous, highly cultivated, and very healthy. The cultivated lands are chiefly supplied with water from wells. Ice is brought from the northern mountains, and sold here all the year.

INDOSTAN, OR INDIA ON THIS SIDE THE GANGES. 427

Provinces	Chief Towns, &c.
Delhi or Dehly	Dehly or Gehan-abad on the R. Jumna, lat. 28° 5' lon. 114° 38'
Agra	Agra on the R. Jumna. It contains 500 stone buildings, of surprising construction, and exquisite workmanship
Azmere or Agimere	Canog on the R. Ganges Azmere on the Puddar was a royal residence Chitore
Oude, Owdh or Ahored	Oude or Owhd, † on the Dewah or Gogra, one of the largest cities of Indostan, was the ancient capital, lat. 27° 22', lon. 118° 6'. Fyzabad on the same R. is the present capital Lucknow
Bahar	Patna on the Ganges. Tirhoot, the ancient residence of Hindoo learning Ruins of Gour or Lucknouti, <i>Gange-regia</i> , of immense extent, situated formerly on the Ganges, though the main channel of that river is now 5 miles from it; it was the capital of Bengal 2270 years; the seat of government was in 1549 removed to
Bengal	Tanda on the Ganges, now in ruins Rajemal } have succeeded to Tanda and Dacca } become successively the capitals of Bengal Moorshedabad } Hoogly on the River Hoogly Chittacong } Two emporiums 1 mile, distant Satgong } from each other; both in possession of Europeans. The latter famous for pomegranates.
Allahabad	Allahabad <i>Hellabas</i> at the conflux of the Ganges and Jumna Bennares on the Ganges
Maleva	Ahmedabad, on the R. Sabermutty, lat. 23° containing 1000 stone mosques
Guzzerat or Gujerat	Cambay and Ghogeh are seaports Surat on the R. Tapte, an emporium, formed into 9 divisions, each inhabited by a different tribe, and they spake different languages.

THE DECCAN.] This name, which signifies the south, in the most extensive signification includes the whole peninsula south of Indostan Proper, but in its more limited sense it only comprehends the provinces of Candesh, Berar, Golconda, Amednagar, and Vissapour; thus excluding

* The eastern part of Agra between the Ganges and Jumna, is called the Doab, or country between the two rivers. In this Soubah agriculture is in perfection.

† Near this city are two sepulchral monuments, one 7 the other 6 cubits in length. The vulgar pretend that they are the tombs of Seth and Job, and relate wonderful stories of them.

‡ The Hindoos call this spot *the King of worshipped places*. 'Tis astonishing that when the planet Jupiter enters the constellation Leo, a hill arises out of the middle of the Ganges, and remains for a month; so that people go upon it and perform divine worship."

excluding the provinces of Orissa, the Carnatic and the Malabar states, which comprehend that long narrow tract between the Gauts and the western coast, a considerable part of which was never subjected by the Mogul emperors.

Provinces.	Chief Towns, &c.												
Candeeish	Burhanpour												
Berrar	Shawpour, ancient capital—Nagpour, present capital												
Golconda*	Hydrabad or Bagnagar—Golconda—Masulipatam												
Amednagur,† Balagate, or Dowlatabad	Amednagur Aurungabad Dowlatabad, a strong fortress												
Vishapour or Bejapour‡	Vishapour												
Orissa	Cuttac on the Mahanada Balafore												
Carnatic	Bijnagar—Chandeghere Arect—Trichinapoli Seringsapatam—Gingee												
Malabar states comprehend	<table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: middle;"> <table border="0"> <tr> <td>Malabar proper</td> <td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td>Cochin</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Canara</td> <td>Calicut</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Concan</td> <td>Goa.</td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="vertical-align: middle;"> <table border="0"> <tr> <td></td> <td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td>Mangalore</td> </tr> </table> </td> </tr> </table>	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Malabar proper</td> <td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td>Cochin</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Canara</td> <td>Calicut</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Concan</td> <td>Goa.</td> </tr> </table>	Malabar proper	}	Cochin	Canara	Calicut	Concan	Goa.	<table border="0"> <tr> <td></td> <td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td>Mangalore</td> </tr> </table>		}	Mangalore
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Canara			Calicut										
Concan		Goa.											
	}	Mangalore											

PRESENT DIVISION.] Such was the general division of Indostan under the Mogul emperors, but the celebrated Persian usurper Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treasure to the amount of more than 70 millions sterling, restored the unhappy princee his dominions, but annexed to Persia all the countries westward of the Indus.

This dreadful incursion so weakened the authority of the emperor, that the Viceroy of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted as traders, to form establishments on the coasts: These, from the great superiority of European discipline, from allies became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Indostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly by injustice and usurpation, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally possessed several provinces of Indostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly subjected, but retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent irruptions from these inaccessible mountains; taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended

* That part of Golconda between the Godavery and Krishna was formerly called Telliana, and its capital was Warringole or Oringal, a fortress of vast extent.

† The western part of this country is called Baglana.

ended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long by 700 wide.

Hyder Alley, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient Carnatic, called the kingdom of Mysore, has within a few years acquired by continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of the Peninsula; this able and active prince, the most formidable enemy that the English ever experienced in Indostan, dying in 1782 left to his son Tippu Saib, the peaceful possession of his dominions, superior in extent to the kingdom of England.

These extraordinary revolutions, with others of less importance, render the following account of the present division of property in this unhappy empire, absolutely necessary, in order to understand its modern history.

PRESENT DIVISION OF INDOSTAN:

Such is the instability of human greatness, that the present Great Mogul, Shaw Allum, the descendant of the Great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Indostan: He is permitted to reside at Delhi, which, with a small adjacent Territory, is all that remains to him of that vast empire, which his ancestors governed more than 350 years.

The principal Divisions of this country, as they stood in 1782, are as follow, viz. The British possessions; States in alliance with Britain; Tippu Saib's Territories; Mahratta states and their tributaries; and the Territories of the Subah of the Deccan.

[BRITISH POSSESSIONS.] The British possessions contain about 150,000 square British miles, (which is about 18,000 more than is contained in Great Britain and Ireland) and about 10 millions of inhabitants. They consist of three distinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta of Bengal	{ Bengal Subah Bahar Subah Benares Zemindary Northern Circars	On the Ganges.
		On the coast of Orissa.
Government of Madras	{ The Jaghire Territory of Cuddalore ——— of Devicotta ——— of Negapatam	On the coast of Coromandel.
Government of Bombay		On the Gulf of Cambay.

[GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government was rich, flourishing, and populous before the late usurpations in Indostan; it is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter with their numerous navigable channels, and the several navigable rivers they receive: It is fertilized by their periodical inundations; and by its natural situation is well secured against foreign enemies: On the east and north it is defended by stupendous mountains, large rivers, and extensive wastes; on the south by a sea-coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, where it is accessible only by the River of Hoogly; and on the west, though more exposed, the natural barrier is strong. The capital

capital and seat of government is **CALCUTTA** on the River of Hooghly, navigable by ships of the line; it is a modern city, and though in an unhealthy situation, it is at present one of the most rich, flourishing, and commercial cities in Indostan.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defects of this government, are not only the want of connexion between its parts, which are scattered along an extensive coast, and separated from each other by states frequently hostile, but being totally devoid of good harbours: Hopes however have been entertained of removing this last defect, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the sea at Devicotta. The capital and seat of government is **MADRAS** in the Jaghire, called also Fort St. George; it is illy situated without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—**FORT ST. DAVID** in the Territory of Cuddalore is rich, flourishing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—**MASULIPATAN** in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Krishna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast, and though much declined, is still considerable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore and Condapily, are defended inland by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Taptee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is **BOMBAY**, in a small island in an unhealthy situation, but well fortified and on a fine harbour.—**SURAT** on the Taptee which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Indostan. **TILLICHERAY** on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the Nabob	}	Fyzabad
of Oude	}	Lucknow

*
Dominions

Dominions of the Nabob of Arcot, comprehend the eastern part only of the ancient Carnatic.

Arcot on the Paliar is the capital, though the Nabob usually resides at Madras.

Gingee, the strongest Indian fortress in the Carnatic.

Trichinapoli near the Caveri well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained.

Seringham Pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indostan for its sanctity, and has no less than 40,000 priests who constantly reside here in voluptuous indolence.

Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous Pagoda of

Tripetti, the Lorretto of Indostan, the offerings of the numerous Pilgrims who resort hither bring in an immense revenue.

Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly are the capitals of small states of the same name, which with Marawar, are dependent on the Nabob of Arcot.

Territory of Futty Sing Guicker in the Soubah of Guzerat.

Amedabad Cambay.

Territory of the Rajah of Ghod

Gwalior a celebrated fortress.

TIPPO SAIB'S TERRITORIES.

Kingdom of Mysore
Bednore
Canara
Part of Malabar proper

Seringapatam on the Caveri
Bednore or Hyder Nuggar
Mangalore
Calicut

Chitteldroog, Sanore, Harponelly, Roydroog, Gooty, Condanore, Canoul, Cuddapa, &c. are the capitals of Territories of the same name, which have been successively conquered by Hyder Ally.

MAHRATTA STATES AND THEIR TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have one common head called the Paishwa or Nana, to whom however their obedience is merely nominal, as they often war against each other, and are seldom confederated except for mutual defence.

Southern

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the Territories of Paishwa, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Gauts.

Satara the nominal capital of the Mahratta states, the Paishwa resides at Poonah—Aurangabad, Amednagur, and Vistapour, are his Territories.

The Concan or tract between the Gauts and the sea is sometimes called the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celebrated Pirate Angria and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755; by the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime power, and dangerous enemies to the government of Bombay.

Berar Mahrattas, their country is very little known to Europeans.

Nagpour is the capital
Balasore has considerable trade
Cattack on the Mahanda, an important post which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

Northern Poonah Mahrattas governed at present by Sindia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes.

Ougein, the residence of Sindia
Indoor, the residence of Holkar
Calpy, the residence of Gungdar Punt
Sagur, the residence of Ballagee.

Territory of the Soubah of the Deccan*

Hydrabad is the capital.

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the Soubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Persia; was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thomas Kouli Kan, when on the death of that usurper his empire was dismembered: Its capital is Candahar in Persia.

Country of the Seiks: They are said to consist of a number of small states independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zabeda Cawn, an Afguan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Furrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, surrounded by the dominions of Oude,

Bundelclund.

Travancore near C. Commorin.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The Eng-

* Adoni is dependant on the Soubah.

fish, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan are commonly seized with some illness; such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy. About the end of June a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months; during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy season, and the change of the monsoon begins on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this peninsula, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every 12 hours; that is from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot; and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast.— The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other parts of the East-Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

MOUNTAINS.] At C. Camorin commences a range of steep and lofty mountains, called the Gauts or Gettes, which run parallel to the western coast, and assumes various names as it advances northward: These mountains rise abruptly from the low Country on the west, like a stupendous wall, that supports a vast extent of fertile and populous plains, which are so much elevated as to render the air, though in the torrid Zone, cool and pleasant. Indostan is separated from the countries that environ it to the northward by several ranges of stupendous mountains that have no general appellation, but are distinguished by various names, in different parts: Of these the most remarkable are the mountains Hindoo-Koh, the ancient Paropamisus and Indian Caucasus, on the confines of Persia and Independent Tartary. The mountains of Thibet, on the confines of that country are very lofty, and connected with others farther north, of such great height, that they are supposed the highest in Asia.

RIVERS.] Of the rivers of Indostan three far exceed the rest in magnitude and utility; the Indus, the Ganges, and the Burrampooter. The Indus, called Sindeh by the Natives, issues from the mountains of Hindoo-Koh, and soon becoming navigable is called the River of Attock; in the upper part of its course it receives several fine, navigable rivers, but none in the lower, where it crosses a flat, open country, and falls into the Arabian sea, by several channels, the chief of which is called the River of Mehran. These channels form and intersect a large triangular island which they fertilize by their periodical inundations. The principal rivers it receives are the Behat, or Hydaspes, and the Hyphasis, which formed the eastern boundary of the conquests of Alexander.

The Ganges, one of the finest rivers in the world, issues from Kentaïsse, one of the vast mountains of Thibet, and after a course of about 750 miles, through mountainous regions little known, enters Indostan at the Defile of Kupele, supposed by the natives to be its source; from hence this fine river (which is revered by the Hindoos as a deity that

is to wash away all their stains, and who say that it flows from the hair of Mahadeo) passes through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream, from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its course, which is about 1350 miles, to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two larger, and a multitude of lesser channels, that form and intersect a large triangular island, whose base at the sea is near 200 miles in extent. The entire course of the Ganges is 2100 miles, and is to that of the Thames as $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. The navigation of the eastern branch being dangerous is little frequented. The western branch, called the little Ganges, or R. of Hoogly, is navigable by large ships, and most generally frequented. The Ganges receives 11 rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames, in England. The learned among the Hindoos, have composed volumes in praise of these waters, all parts of which they consider as holy; but some particular parts are esteemed more so than others. People of high rank have the water of the Ganges brought to them from vast distances, it being thought necessary to the performance of some religious rites. The water of the Ganges has been celebrated in all ages, not only for its sanctity, but also on account of its sweetness, lightness, and wholesomeness, and because it does not become putrid though kept for years.

The Burrampooter, is called Sappoo in the upper part of its course. This rival sister of the Ganges issues from the same mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary direction through Thibet, winds to the south west, through Assam, and entering Indostan, flows to the south, assumes the name of Megna, and joins the western branch of the Ganges, with an immense body of water, equal if not superior to the Ganges itself.

These two noble Rivers when they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude, of channels, and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys by their means the finest inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives constant employment to 30,000 boatmen: These channels are so numerous that very few places in this tract are even in the dry season 25 miles from a navigable stream; and in the season of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the soil to the extent of more than 100 miles.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The Mahometans (says Mr.
RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. } Orme) who are called Moors, of
Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about
an hundred millions.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindoostan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good genius, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for so the Gentoos priests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a sacred commentary upon it, called the Shahshah, which is written in the Sanscrita language, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins, who study it, even as our sacred scriptures are written in
Greek

Greek and Hebrew. But whether that language was originally different from that of the country, or whether it has only now become unintelligible to the people, through that change which is incident to all living languages, is not well known.

The foundation of Brumman's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man; in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. The necessity of inculcating this sublime, but otherwise complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worship of different animals, and various images, and of the most hideous figures, delineated or carved. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and on certain festivals are exhibited in the high roads and in the streets of towns. The human figures, with elephants heads, which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands, and are enormously corpulent.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The first and most noble tribe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Jewish tribe of Levi. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The second in order is the Sitri tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Beise, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any one of them should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer the torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoos are also subdivided into casts, or smaller classes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty four of these casts, though some have supposed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast; but this last would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: The inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses; and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast, preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one

another. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their ugliness. The most striking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their superstition, and veneration for the institutions and tenets of their forefathers.

In India, the dominion of religion extends to a thousand particulars, which in other countries are governed either by the civil laws, or by taste, custom, or fashion. Dress, food, the common intercourses of life, marriages, professions, all are under the jurisdiction of religion. There is scarcely any thing that is not regulated by superstition. It prescribes rules of conduct in all circumstances and situations; nor is there any thing almost so trifling or minute as to be considered as a matter of indifference. The original government of the Hindoos, was in reality an hierarchy; for among that religious people, the highest authority was possessed by the priesthood, or the Bramin cast. Nor is it in this instance only, that we find a resemblance between the natives of India and them. Not only were the governments of both nations hierarchical, but in both there was a vast variety of religious observances and ceremonies extending to many particulars, which in other countries are matters of choice or of indifference; and both entertained the most profound respect and veneration for their ancestors. All the cast acknowledge the Bramins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. The food of the Hindoos is simple, consisting chiefly of rice, ghee, which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental spices of different kinds, but chiefly what is called in the East, *chilly*, and in the West, green or Cayen, pepper. The warrior cast, may eat the flesh of goats, mutton, and poultry. Other superior casts may eat poultry and fish; but the inferior casts are prohibited from eating flesh or fish of any kind. Their greatest luxury, consists in the use of the richest spices and perfumes, of which the great people are very lavish, and which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one: And it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion seems to forbid them to quit their own shores,* nor do they want any thing

* The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them, from all pollutions and

thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness, if others had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers, are commonly called Rajah-poots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah-poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The custom of women burning themselves, upon the death of their husbands, still continues to be practised among some of high cast and condition, though much less frequently than formerly, and it is said, that the Bramins now do not encourage it.

One particular class of women are allowed to be openly prostituted: These are the famous dancing girls. Their attitudes and movements are very easy, and not ungraceful. Their persons are delicately formed, gaudily decorated, and highly perfumed. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they acquire, as they grow warm in the dance, a frantic lasciviousness themselves, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the most voluptuous desires to the beholders.

The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chinese; and remarkably honest and humane: There scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons. According to a late writer, the Hindoos, as well as the Persians, Tartars, and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indostan since it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different nations, religions, laws, and customs, possess nevertheless, in equal degrees, hospitality, politeness, and address. In refinement and ease they are superior to any people to the westward of them. In politeness and address, in gracefulness of deportment, and speech, an Indian is as much superior to a Frenchman of fashion, as a French courtier is to a Dutch burgo-master of Dort. A Frenchman's ease is mixed with forward familiarity, with confidence, and self-conceit; but the Hindoos, especially those of the higher casts, are in their demeanour easy and unconstrained, still more than even a French courtier, and their ease and freedom is reserved, modest, and respectful.

Their persons are straight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness. Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the highest degree graceful. The dress of the men is a kind of close-bodied gown, like our

women's

and fins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries; for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of the India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Cistna divides the Carnatic from Colconda, and runs through Vishapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzarat provinces, separates Indostan from the dominions of Persia.

women's gowns, and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats, reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and the tight drawers which come down to their ankles. Hence the dress of the men gives them, in the eyes of Europeans, an appearance of effeminacy; whereas that of the women will appear rather masculine: Such is the influence of habit and custom on sentiments; an influence which extends to matters of taste, and to objects of higher importance.

Their houses cover much ground, and have spacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of their palaces consists in baths, perfumes, temples, gods, and harems. The harems or zenanas, that is, the residences of the women, are removed from the front of the house, and lighted only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is inconceivably rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about their necks, and also in their ears and nostrils, with bracelets on their wrists and arms, and around their ankles.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Bramins. If the Bramins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoos industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that till of late prevailed in Indostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the male before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on the decay at eighteen: At twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind: And whatever may be the cause, a recent traveller among them, observes, it is certain, that death is regarded with less horror in India than in any other country in the world. The origin and the end of all things, say the philosophers of India of the present times, is a *vacuum*. A state of repose is the state of greatest perfection; and this is the state after which a wise man aspires. It is better, say the Hindoos, to sit than to walk, and to sleep than to wake; but death is the best of all. According to the Gentoos laws, criminals sentenced to death

death are not to be strangled, suffocated, or poisoned, but to be cut off by the sword; because, without an effusion of blood, malefactors are supposed to die with all their sins about them; but the shedding of their blood, it is thought, expiates their crimes.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubadars; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships; each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubadar, who in process of time, became almost independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahometan government; But it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into all the eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Marattas at present make the greatest figure. They commonly serve on horseback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold, active spirit, and pay great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahometans or Moors are generally of so detestable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and those were among the Tartar and Persian officers of the army. These are void, we are told, of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart. But it is probable, that these representations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The manner of drinking among the Gentoos is remarkable. They religiously avoid touching the vessel that contains the liquor with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other vessel, at least at a foot's distance. Their idea is, that they would be polluted by stagnating water. They will drink from a pump, or of any running stream, but not out of a pool.

Mr. Dalrymple observes, according to the Gentoos constitution, land (houses and gardens excepted) is not private property, but belongs to the community, in the several villages; each of which are supplied with their respective public officers, as the headman, to execute justice; the conicopoly, to keep the accounts of the village; the corn-meter, smith, barber, doctor, astrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the community, and the produce shared out in certain proportions to all. One is allotted to the Pagodas and Bramins, one to the government, another to the public officers, one to the repair of tanks

tanks, or reservoirs of water, and the rest distributed among the community: But we understand that the Mahometan government, and the intrusion of Europeans, have introduced some innovations in this ancient constitution, particularly, by farming the circuit, or government shares.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubadars and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Bramins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well regulated government, is become a scene of mere anarchy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Indostan. The reader, from this representation, may perceive, that all the English have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from usurpers and robbers; and their possession of it being guaranteed by the present lawful emperor, is said to be founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country. We are, however, sorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the servants of the East India Company towards the natives, and not properly punished or checked, either by the directors or the British legislature, has in too many instances been highly dishonourable to the English name, and totally inconsistent with that humanity which was formerly their national characteristic.

It may be here proper just to observe, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER } The province of Agra is the
BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } largest in all Indostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Delhi or Dehly, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from

from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindy, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened there in 1699, carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will not along, morning and evening 40 miles a day; 10 being usually hired, who carry the palanquins by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves.—The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp fish.

Though the province of Moulton is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses. The capital is Moulton, about 800 miles, by the course of the river, from the sea.

The province of Cassimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cassimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indostan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered, and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy independent state. In some of those provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers thrive, as in their native soil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. Its natural situation, (as described by Major Rennel, late surveyor-general in Bengal) is singularly happy with respect to security from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and east it has no warlike neighbours, and has moreover a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers, or extensive wastes towards those quarters, should an enemy start up. On the south is a sea coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, and with only one port, which is of difficult access, in an extent of 300 miles. Only on the west, can an enemy be apprehended, but there the natural barrier is strong, and with its population and resources, and the usual proportion of British troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any part of Indostan which was inclined to become its enemy. It is considered as the storehouse of the East Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil con-

sifts of rice, sugar canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry, and other trees. "Most of the rivers of Bengal," says the author of *Ayecn Akberry*, "have their banks cultivated with rice, of which there are a variety of species. The soil is so fertile in some places, that a single grain of rice will yield a measure of 2 or 3 Seer. Some lands will produce three crops in a year. Vegetation is here so extremely quick, that as fast as the water rises, the plants of rice grow above it, so that the ear is never above it. Men of experience affirm that a single stalk will grow six cubits in one night." (*Ayecn Akberry*.) Its calicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals, out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, villages, and castles.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity; and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithstanding their religion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: It is situated on the river Hoogly, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. The fort itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itself has been in fact for some time in possession of the Company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the Company. But in 1773, an act of parliament was passed to regulate the affairs of the East India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act the governor-general and four counsellors were appointed, and chosen by the parliament, with whom was vested the whole civil and military government of the presidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the territorial acquisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, so long as the Company should remain possessed of them. The governor-general and council so appointed, are invested with the power of superintending and controlling the government and management of the presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correspond with them. The governor-general and counsellors were likewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William; to consist of a chief justice, and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majesty: These are to exercise all criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction; to be a court of record and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort William, and its limits, and the factories subordinate thereto. But the establishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted either the interests of the East-India Company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and customs of the people; acts of great oppression and injustice have been committed; and the supreme court has been a source of great dissatisfaction, disorder, and confusion. In

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian nabob or soubadar, quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and some of the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubadar, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible frenzy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had rooted the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place; and the war was soon concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the nabob Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mir Jaffier, one of his generals, and who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master, and amply reward the English, was advanced to the soubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Muxadabad, or Moorshedabad: Benares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity. This zeminary which includes also the circars of Cazypour and Chunar, constituted a part of the dominions of Oude or Owdh till 1774, when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacks was transferred to the English.

Chandenagore is the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal: It lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals Watson and Pococke, and colonel Clive, and also was obliged to surrender in the last war, but restored by the peace. Hoogly, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the North of Hoogly, for about fifty miles farther. Daccan is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an English and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Cassumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or soubah of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal; Sindia and Holkar divide the largest part of it. The capital of the former is Ougein, and of Holkar, the city of Indoor. It is as fertile as the other provinces, and its chief city is Raipour. The province of Kandish included that of Berar and part of Orixia

Orisa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhanpoor, a flourishing city, and it carries on a vast trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered stuffs. Cattaek is the capital of Orisa, and lies in the only road between Bengal and the Northern circars, and belongs to the Berar Rajah Moodajee Boosla, whose dominions are very extensive. Of the five Northern circars, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore, and Condapilly are in possession of the English, and Gunton is in the hands of the Nizam.

We shall speak of those provinces, belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first, of the eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax; now, the case is much altered, the prince of the country being scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Trichinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tanquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the last war, and confirmed to the English by the late treaty of peace. The capital city is Tanjore, governed by a rajah under the English protection.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Christina, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visapur, or Visipour, and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Melsaur and Tanjore; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles. If Tanjore, Marrawar, Trichinopoly, Madura, and Tinevelly be included, and they are all appendages of the Carnatic, the length of it from north to south is 570 miles, but no where more than 110 wide, and chiefly no more than 80. The capital of the Carnatic is Bishnagar, and of the English ally the nabob, Arcot, whose dominions commence on the south of the Gunttoo circar, and extend along the whole coast of Coromandel to Cape Comorin. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to the English trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East Indies, but which had been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns,

towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The white town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been attempted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, that are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, enclosing the contents by pallisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, does not extend much more than 40 miles round, and is of little value for its produce. Eighty thousand inhabitants, of various nations, are said to be dependant upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immense fortunes acquired by the English, upon this coast, within these thirty years; but some of these fortunes appear to have been obtained by the most iniquitous practices. There seems to have been some fundamental errors in the constitution of the East India Company. The directors considered the riches acquired by their governors and other servants as being plundered from the company, and accordingly sent out superintendants to control their governors and overgrown servants, and have from time to time changed their governors and members of the council there. As this is a subject of the greatest importance that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The English East India company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of their government, and the undaunted, but fortunate successes, of their military officers, have acquired so amazing a property in this peninsula, and in Indostan, that it is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads: And some of their own servants pretend, that when all their expenses are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions sterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while suffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it arises, is best known to the company: Part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is secured on mortgages, for discharging their expenses in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective subadars and nabobs they have assisted.

This company has exercised many rights appropriated to sovereignty; such as those of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Those powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the English ministry and parliament have repeatedly interfered: In order to regulate the affairs of the company, a board of control at home is at length established. It has also been hoped, that in consequence of this interference of the government, such measures may be taken with the Eastern princes and potentates, as may render the acquisitions of the company permanent and national.

We have already mentioned the kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is subject

subject to a prince, called Nizam or soubadar of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The famous diamond mine, Raolconda, is in this province. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnatur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda, and comprises the eastern part of Dowlatabad. East south-west of Golconda lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Visagapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narisipore. The province of Orissa, from whence the English company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Boonliah, and his brother Bembajee, allies to the Marattas. In this province stands the idolatrous temple of Jaganaut, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone, of about 4 or 500lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion. Near this is the temple of the Sun, one of the most magnificent buildings in the world.

Major Rennell observes, that there is a void space between the known parts of Berar, Golconda, Orissa, and the northern circars of near 300 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and that it is not likely to be filled up unless a great change takes place in European politics in India. The British possessions in the northern circars, extend only 70 miles by land, and in some places not more than 30, which form a flip of 350 miles in length, bounded towards the continent, by a ridge of mountains. Within these, and towards Berar is an extensive tract of woody and mountainous country, with which the adjacent provinces appear to have scarcely any communication. Though surrounded by people highly civilized, and who abound in useful manufactures; it is said, that the few specimens of the miserable inhabitants of this tract who have appeared in the circars, use no covering but a wisp of straw. This wild country extends about 160 miles, and the first civilized people beyond them are the Barar Marattas.

The country of the Deccan comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms; particularly those of Baglana, Batagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Visapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of those provinces, are extremely unsettled; and since their reduction by Aurengzêbe, or his father, have been subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. The principal towns are Aurungabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlatabad: The latter is the strongest place in all Indostan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain of about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the east of Golconda, and its capital, Beder, contains a garrison of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Guzerat or Gujerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Amedabad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to

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vic with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory.

Visiapour is a large province, the western part is called Konhan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Visiapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 soldiers. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are Damam, Bassaim, Tropor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajahpur, Gheriah, and Vingorla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East-India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the insatta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East-India company; and the island is still divided into three Roman catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called catholic Mestizos and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the Aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The governour and council of Bombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East-Indies, called Sea-poys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested. Here, besides Europeans of all countries, you meet with Turks, Persians, Arabians, Armenians, a mixed race, the vilest of their species, descended from the Portuguese, and the outcasts from the Gentoo religion, &c. and also captives that are slaves to every other tribe. The Turks that resort to this place on account of trade, are like the rest of their countrymen, stately, grave, and reserved; and honest in their dealings. The Persians are more gay, lively, and conversible, but less honest in matters of trade, than the saturnine Turks. The Arabians are all life and fire, and when they treat with you on any subject, will make you a fine oration in flowing numbers, and a musical cadence; but they are the most dishonest of all. The Armenians are generally handsome in their features, mild in their tempers, and in their nature kind and beneficent. They are a kind of Christians, and an honour to that sect, beyond numbers that go from England.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An

easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon; also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies, lies about 30 miles south of Vingorla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits, upon this island, equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese settlements on this coast, is under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the ancient splendour of the government. The rich peninsula of Salvett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. Canoree lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Canorines are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of rajah; and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilized of any in that peninsula, and remarkably devoted to commerce.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the Company formerly made a peace, but with whom their servants soon after embroiled them, and who lately made a violent irruption into the Carnatic, took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the conclusion of the war, is said to be a native of Mysore, which lies to the south-west of the Carnatic; and the Christians of the apostle St. Thomas, live at the foot of the Gatti mountains. The dominions of Tipoo Saib, son of Hyder Ally, comprehend generally the provinces of Mysore, Bednore, Zaimbetore, Zanare, and Dindigal, besides his acquisition to the northward from the Marattas: They are at least 400 miles in length, and in the breadth from 290 to 130, so that he hath the largest share in the Peninsula.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Commorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itself is rich and fertile, but pestered with green adders, whose poison is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itself. The most remarkable places in Malabar are Cranganore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tellichery, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portuguese have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which

which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains, so often mentioned, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance, blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

Before we take our leave of India, it may be proper to observe, that in the district of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like discoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.

It appears to be the interest of the East India Company, that their governments in India should interfere as little as possible in the domestic or national quarrels of the country powers, and that they should always endeavour to be in a state of peace and tranquillity with their neighbours. But these maxims of sound policy they have not adhered to; the governours and servants of the East India Company have unnecessarily, and sometimes very iniquitously, embroiled themselves with the country powers, and engaged in wars of a very pernicious and indefensible nature. The wars into which they have entered with the Marattas, and with that enterprising prince Hyder Ally, now dead, but succeeded by a warlike son, Tippo Saib, have been attended with an enormous expence, and been extremely prejudicial to the interests of the company, and the nation at home. By temporary plans of violence and injustice, and sometimes disregarding their own treaties, they have forfeited the good opinion of the natives; and by exciting the indignation of the country princes against them, greatly lessened the security of the possessions of the company.

The emperor of Indostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane the Mongul, or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as *The Conqueror of the World; the Ornament of the Throne, &c.* but he is never crowned.

[HISTORY.] The reader will find much entertaining and useful information both historical and Geographical, concerning this country, in a work, in three quarto volumes, published at Calcutta, in 1784, entitled "*Ayeen Akbery, or the Institutes of the Emperor Akber.*" Translated from the original Persian, by Francis Gladwin. This valuable work is in Harvard College Library, at Cambridge.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

Miles.	SITUATION AND EXTENT.		Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 2000	} between	{	1 and 30 north lat.	741,500
Breadth 1000			93 and 109 east long.	

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chinese sea, on the East; by the same sea and the straits of Malacca, on the South; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the West. The space between Bengal and China is now called the province of Meeklus, and other districts, subject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
On the north west	Achram	Camdara	} 180,000
	Ava	Ava	
	Arracan	Arracan.	
On the south-west	Pegu	Pegu, E. lo. 97. N. la. 17-30.	50,000
	Martaban	Martaban	
	Siam	Siam, E. l. 100-55. N. la. 14-18.	170,000
	Malacca	Malacca, E. l. 101. N. la. 2-12.	48,000
On the north-east	Tonquin	Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30.	112,000
	Laos	Lanchang.	59,400
On the south-east	Cochin China	Thoanoa	61,900
	Cambodia	Cambodia	} 60,200
	Chiampa	Padram.	

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Authors differ concerning the air of this country, some preferring that of the southern, and some that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and westerly *monsoons* (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS,] Those run from North to South almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy season.

RIVERS.] The chief are Sanpoo or Burrumpooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river Nou Kian.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The straits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banfac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE } The soil of this peninsula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious

DIFFERENT NATIONS. }

delicious fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables; and in Ava, a quantity of salt-petre, and the best teak-timber, or Indian oak, which for ship-building in warm climates is of much longer duration than any European oak. Teak ships of 40 years old are no uncommon objects in the Indian seas. This peninsula abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS,] The Tonquinese are excellent mechan-
AND DIVERSIONS,] ics and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacker houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dogs-flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver, and other metals, found in his kingdom. They live, however, easy and comfortably. Almost every house-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemese. The inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula go under the the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are extremely gross, yet the people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life. The people in this peninsula are commonly very fond of shew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome; for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Arracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. Their treatment of the sick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beasts of prey. Notwithstanding the great antiquity of most Indian nations, it is said, on the veracity of some

who have seen them, that on the confines of Arracan and Pegu, there is a people (if solitary savages roaming through woods in quest of prey, deserve the name of people) that appear to be in the very first stage of society. They are the only people in the known world that go absolutely naked, without the smallest covering on any part of their bodies. They live on fruit, which grows spontaneously, in the uncultivated desert they inhabit, in great abundance; and on the flesh of animals, which they tear alive and devour raw. They sit on their hams, with their legs and arms disposed in the manner of monkeys. At the approach of men, they fly into their woods: They take care of their offspring, and live in families, but seem to have no ideas of subordination of rank or civil government.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebrating of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch light, from evening to morning.

[LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, interperfed with other dialects.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Bramins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Braehmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Indostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear they have any treatises on rhetoric; their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians very diffuse and verbose; but though the manner of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Shanferita, or learned language of the Bramins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in prose which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Shanferita records contain accounts of the affairs of Western Asia very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitted to posterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally so much prejudiced against the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress, which correctness and elegance of sentiment and diction have made in the East, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahometan emperors of Indostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road

for

for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of embroiling their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their strength.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] These vary in the different countries of this peninsula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are said to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious, and better workmen, than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: It was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it, through events foreign in this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has for some time declined, nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

**CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, } This article is so extensive, that
RARITIES AND CITIES. }** it requires a slight review of the

kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azem, it hath already been observed, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong or Kirganu. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently subject to the kings of Arracan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Arracan lies to the south of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, seven idols cast in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious stones. Pegu is about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. The riches of the king when an independent state, were almost incredible; some of his idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. His revenues arose from the rents of lands, of which he was sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandise; so that some thought him to be the richest monarch in the world, excepting the Chinese emperor. He was said to be able to bring a million, and on occasion, a million and a half of soldiers to the field, well clothed and armed; and to be master of 800 trained elephants, each with a castle on his back, holding four soldiers.—The constitution of this empire is of the feudal kind, for he assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1734, Pegu was reduced to the state of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in that province.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava. Monchaboo was the residence of the king, and not Ava, in 1755. It is said, the honours the

king

king assumes are next to divine. His subjects trade chiefly in musk and jewels, rubies and sapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants resemble those of Pegu. In those kingdoms, and indeed in the greatest part of this peninsula, the doctrines of the Grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as those of the Bramins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but that is now subject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms; all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the slave of his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Siam has been often described by missionaries and pretended travellers in the most romantic terms; and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, farther than that it is a rich and flourishing kingdom, and that it approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. The kingdom of Siam is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and has the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both sexes are more modest than any found in the rest of this peninsula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talappons, or priests, sprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating some prayers. We are told that gold is so abundant in this country, that their most ponderous images are made of it; and that it is seen in vast quantities on the outside of the king's palace. These relations are found, by modern travellers, to be the fictions of French and other missionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either excessively thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that cover wooden or other materials. The government here is extremely despotic; even servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely a sixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bangkok, which stands about 18 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca.) The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers,

ellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and gums. Some missionaries pretend that it is the Golden Chersonesus, or Peninsula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Mofuccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an industrious, ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about 520 English miles; and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by sea and land, are much the same with the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, the despotism of their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China; some particulars of which we have mentioned in the general view of this peninsula. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese; and they are much given to trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East Indies; but at the same time we are told, that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, is subject to the Chinese emperor. It is reasonable to suppose, that all those rich countries were peopled from China, or at least that they had, some time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became so large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reserving to itself a kind of feudal superiority over them all.

Tonquin

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and little can be added to what has been said, unless we adopt the fictions of the catholic missionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquinefe had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the chouah.

The chouah resides generally in the capital Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing house on the north-side of the city, conveniently fitted up with store-houses, and office-houses, a noble dining-room, and handsome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The above is the best account we have been able to give of this vast peninsula. Its rarities, consisting of houses overlaid with gold, and solid idols of the same metal, adorned with an infinite number of precious stones and jewels, are mentioned by many travellers; but it is difficult to give them credit, when we consider the undisciplined weakness of the inhabitants, their superstition, indolence, ignorance, and native timidity; which must render them a prey not only to European adventurers, but to the Tartar conquerors of China. To this we may add, the universally admitted passion of those people for ostentation, and the many discoveries that have been made by candid travellers, of their displaying plated or gilded furniture and ornaments, at which they are wonderfully expert, for those of massy gold.

The possession of rubies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, conveys among those credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has sometimes occasioned bloody wars. After all, it must be acknowledged, that, however dark the accounts we have of those kingdoms may be, yet there is sufficient evidence to prove, that they are immensely rich in all the treasures of nature; but that those advantages are attended with many natural calamities, such as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempests, and above all, rapacious and poisonous animals, which render the possession of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

P E R S I A

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 } Breadth 1100 }	between { 44 and 70 east longitude. 25 and 44 north latitude. }	800,000.

BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the North-West; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usser Tartary, on the North-East; by India, on the East; and by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the West.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: On the frontiers of India are Chorasan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Eterabad; Sableustan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sagistan the ancient Drangiana. The southern division contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedrossia, and Faristan, the ancient Persia. The south-west division, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chufistan, the ancient Susiana, and Irac-Agem the ancient Parthia. The north-west division, lying between the Caspian sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan; and Mazanderan.

NAME.] Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danae. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman; the Persians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

AIR.] In so extensive an empire this is very different. Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of those mountains which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating, but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] These vary like the air. The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits.—South of mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, fenna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pistachio nuts, melons, cucumbers; and garden-stuff, not to mention vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Isfahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious

salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most excellent flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture, to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafoetida flows from a plant called *Hiltot*, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are those of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rises in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even with boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Ubec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

WATER.] The scarcity of rivers in Persia, is joined to a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have also been discovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern as well as ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear callico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive; consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslin, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very

very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their gash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purposes both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent washings and ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweatmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat, after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton, or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor and set at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great masters of ceremony towards their superiors, and so polite, that they accommodate Europeans who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately playing at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the cadée, or judge, for a wife during the time they propose to stay. The cadée for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest,

honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that, amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahometans of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and *Abu Bekr*, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with some bramin superstitions. When they are taxed by the Christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of them do, they answer very sensibly, "You Christians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing sins, which is the very case with us." Having mentioned the bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian *guebres* or *gauris*, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient magi, the followers of Zoroaster, may be highly worth a learned disquisition: That both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved; but the Indian bramins and parsees accuse the *gauris*, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the *guebres* devotions. It must be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very surprising inflammatory qualities, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the *guebres* pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end, and a large hollow cane stuck in the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the *gauris*, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called *Souffees*, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabeen Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. We have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Christians, who are very numerous in Persia. The present race of Persians are said to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their late wars with the Turks.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both; and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford (Eng.) containing the lives of an hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated of the Persian poets. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of Eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Schiras, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces, both in prose and verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhsheb wrote in Persian a book called the "Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron

of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the sixteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford, in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

At present, learning is at a very low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES,] The monuments of antiquity
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] in Persia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expense, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty which is displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be seen at Ipahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Gombroon work such cures, that they are esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naphtha near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country, is the burning phenomenon; and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houses of men of quality in Persia, are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being

ing built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanseras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the south of Astrachan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and vines of which are incomparable. The vines of Shiras are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Pars, the ancient Persia, and hath a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone; and are pretty much the same in all Mahometan countries. Before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but often circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when, all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

We might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios or harems, the women's apartments; but from the most credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taste and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers; and there is no country where women are so strictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Persia.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufactures in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness, neatness, and shew; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the English and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English, in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterburgh is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians; but nothing can be said with certainty on that head, till the government of Persia is in a more settled condition than it is at present.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic, and often capricious monarch. The Persians however had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people.

ple. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

[REVENUES.] The crown claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. After saying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Persian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be said with any certainty in the present distracted state of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

[MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

[ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or the *Disposer of Kingdoms*. Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner. *This act is given by whom the universe obeys.*

[HISTORY.] All ancient historians mention the Persian monarchs and their grandeur; and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here sufficient to say, that the Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their posterity were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arsaces, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself,

Itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, Chæki Adir, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, though some of them were valiant and politic, and enlarged the empire, and from him sometimes called So-phic, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance and indolence, which brought them into such disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hæsein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Mirwéis; as Mahmud himself was by E-fref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed E-fref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir; made a successful expedition into Indostan, where he acquired an amazing booty, but brought back an inconsiderable part of this booty from India, losing great part of it upon his return, by the Matrattas and various accidents. He next conquered Üsbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghestan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763, and, according to the latest accounts, still keeps possession of the throne.

See Rollin's Ancient History.

* The instances of wanton cruelty, and the most savage barbarity, recorded of some of the kings of Persia, are shocking to humanity, and a striking evidence of the miseries and calamities occasioned by despotic power. Shah Abbas, surnamed the Great, having three sons, caused the eyes of the two youngest to be put out, and afterwards put the eldest to death. He was succeeded by his grandson, who began his reign by ordering the eyes of his only brother to be cut out, and he also cast from a rock his two uncles, who had before been blinded by order of Shah Abbas. The instances of his cruelty were innumerable. He buried alive forty four women of his Haram, though when he was not hunting, or over his cups, he used to pass his time with them. Sæfie, or Suliman, who ascended the throne of Persia in 1666, and was a brutal tyrant, when he was intoxicated either with wine or anger, often ordered the hands, feet, ears, and noses, of those near him to be cut off, their eyes to be plucked-out, or their lives to be sacrificed, as if it were his pastime.

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SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1430	} between {	35 and 60 east longitude	} 700,000
Breadth 1200		12 and 30 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Turkey on the North; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	— — —	SUEZ, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	Haggiâz or Mecca	MECCA, E. lon. 43-30. lat. 21-20.
	Tehama	Siden—Medina
	Mocha	Dhafar
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	Hadramut	MOCHA, E. long. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45.
	Casséen	Sibit
	Segur	Hadramut
	Orman or Muscat	Casséen
	Jamâma	Segur
	Bahara	Muscat
		Jamâma
		Elcalf.

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandise pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red-Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red-Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Mussedon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the Tropic of Cancer, passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by

by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or oliveyards; but the whole is a lone, bare, desolate wilderness, no otherways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

[ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for travelling the dry and parched deserts of this country, for they are so formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throat, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell it at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is situated.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } The Arabians, like most of the na-
CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. } tions of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be in general a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done since they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are such thieves; that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations through motives of devotion or curiosity, are struck with terror on their approaches towards the deserts. These robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from

from Mecca, killed about 60 000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army.

It has been contended says Mr. Bruce, that Polygamy is unnatural and detrimental to the population of a country. This has been founded upon a calculation from the bills of mortality of particular countries, by which it appears that the number of the sexes is equal. In England the proportion is found to be, as thirteen to twelve: Nature having provided a greater proportion of men, in order to make up for the havoc occasioned by war, murder, drunkenness, and all species of violence to which women are not so subject as men. These arguments however, do not apply to this country and many others: From a diligent enquiry, it appears, that from the Isthmus of Suez to the Straits of Babelmandeb, which contains the three Arabias, the proportion is fully four women to one man.

Without allowing Mahomet all the abilities some have done, we may surely suppose him to have seen this great disproportion of four women born to one man: And from its obvious consequences, we are not to wonder that one of his first cares was to rectify it, as it struck at the very root of his Empire, Power and Religion; with this view, he enacted, or rather revived, the law which gave liberty to every individual to marry four wives, each of whom was to be equal in rank and honour, without any preference but what the predilection of the husband gave her. By this he secured civil rights to each woman, and procured a means of doing away that reproach, of *dying without issue*, to which the minds of the whole sex have always been sensible, whatever their religion was, or from whatever part of the world they came. Many, have taxed this permission of a plurality of wives, (one of the most *political* and *necessary* measures of that Legislator) with a tendency to encourage lewdness, from which it was very far distant. The expediency of the measure will further appear, by drawing a comparison between the state of women in those countries in which the former calculations are made, and the one we are now describing. Women in those countries are commonly capable of child bearing at fourteen, let the other term be forty eight, when they bear no more: Thirty four years therefore these women bear children. At the age of fourteen or fifteen they are objects of our love; they are endeared by bearing us children after that time, and none will pretend, that at forty eight and fifty years a woman is not an agreeable companion. Perhaps the last years, to thinking minds, are fully as agreeable as the first. We grow old together, we have a near prospect of dying together; nothing can present a more agreeable picture of social life, than monogamy in these countries.

The Arab on the other hand begins to bear children at eleven, and seldom or never has a child after twenty. The time then of her child-bearing is nine years, and *four women taken together*, have then the term of thirty six; so that the women in the former case, who bear children for thirty four years, have only two years less than the wives whom Mahomet has allowed. But there are other grievous differences. An Arabian girl, at eleven years old, is the object of man's desire; being an infant however in understanding, she is not a rational companion for him. A man marries there, say at twenty, and before he is thirty, his wife improved as a companion, ceases to be an object of his desires, and a mother of children; so that the best and most

most vigorous of his days are spent with a woman he cannot love, and with her he would be destined to live forty or forty-five years without comfort to himself by increase of family, or utility to the public.

The reasons then against polygamy, which subsists in the countries first mentioned, do by no means subsist in Arabia.*

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water and sugar, is their usual drink; they have no strong liquors.

[RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism.

[LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabick, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are among Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other: They look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say, they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*.

In the Temple of Mecca, or, suspended on its walls and gates, are seven Arabian poems, called the *Moalakat*, a fine specimen of Oriental poetry, as to the dramatic pastoral, which have been lately translated into English by Sir William Jones: The following stanzas of one of the poems are transcribed, as they serve to gratify the curiosity, and also display a lively and entertaining view of the Arabian customs and modes of living.

1. "Desolate are the mansions of the fair, the stations in Minia,
where they rested, and those where they fixed their abodes!
Wild are the hills of Goul, and deserted is the summit of Rijaam.
2. The canals of Rayann are destroyed; the remains of them are laid
bare, and smoothed by the floods, like characters engraved on the
solid rocks.

3. Dear

* Bruce's Travels.

3. Dear ruins ! Many a year has been closed, many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapsed since I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants.
4. The rainy constellations of spring have made their hills green and luxuriant : The drops from the thunder-clouds have drenched them with profuse as well as gentle showers :
5. Showers from every nightly cloud, from every cloud veiling the horizon at day-break, and from every evening cloud, responsive with hoarse murmurs.
6. Here the wild eringo-plants raise their heads ; here the antelopes bring forth their young by the sides of the valley ; and here the ostriches drop their eggs.
7. The large-eyed wild cows lie suckling their young a few days old ; their young, who will soon become an herd on the plain.
8. The torrents have cleared the rubbish, and disclosed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer restore effaced letters in a book.
9. Or as the black dust, sprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view, with a brighter tint, the blue stains of woad.
10. I stood asking news of the ruins concerning their lovely inhabitants ; but what avail my questions to dreary rocks, who answer them only by their echo ?
11. In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once stood ; but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing of them remains but the canals, which encircled their tents, and the Thumaam-plants, with which they were repaired.
12. How were thy tender affections raised, when the damsels of the tribe departed ; when they hid themselves in carriages of cotton, like antelopes in their lair ; and the tents, as they were struck, gave a piercing sound !
13. They were concealed in vehicles, whose sides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine spun curtains, and pictured veils.
14. A company of maidens were seated in them, with black-eyes and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of Tudah, or the roes of Wegera, tenderly gazing on their young.
15. They hastened their camels, till the sultry vapour gradually stole them from thy sight ; and they seemed to pass through a vale, wild with tamarisks, and rough with large stones, like the valley of *Beisfa*."

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, } What is called the Desert of Sinai,
AND ARTS. } is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth ; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai ; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains, are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in scripture happened.

The

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muschat, Suez, and Juddah or Jidda. Mocha is well built, the houses very lofty, and are with the walls and forts covered with a chinam or stæco that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Suez, the Arsinoë of the ancients, is surrounded by the desert, and but a shabby place. The ships are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs and other articles by the way Cairo. The port of Juddah, according to Mr. Bruce, is very extensive, consisting of numberless shoals, small islands, and sunken rocks, with deep channels between them. The harbour is very secure, but difficult of entrance: The pilots, however, are very skilful, and no accidents ever happen.*

We cannot omit here to mention the astonishing manner in which trade is carried on at this place. While Mr. Bruce was there in May, 1769, nine ships arrived from India, some of them worth perhaps £200,000. One merchant, a Turk, living at Mecca, thirty hours journey off, where no christian dares go, while the whole continent is open to the Turk for escape, offers to purchase the cargoes of four out of nine of these Ships himself: Another of the same cast, comes and says he will buy none, unless he has them all. The samples are shewn, and the cargoes of the whole nine ships are carried into the wildest part of Arabia, by men with whom one would not wish to trust himself alone in the field. This is not all; two India Brokers come into the room to settle the price. One on the part of the India Captain, the other on that of the buyer the Turk. They are neither Mahometans nor Christians, but have credit with both. They sit down on a carpet, and take an India shawl, which they carry on their shoulder like a napkin, and spread it over their hands. They talk in the mean time, on different subjects; of the arrival of the ships from India, or of the news of the day, as if they were employed in no serious business whatever. There never was one instance of a dispute happening in these sales.

Matters are to be carried still further, and the money is to be paid. A private Moor, who has nothing to support him but his character, becomes responsible for the payment of these cargoes. This man delivers a number of hempen bags full of what is supposed to be money. He marks the contents upon the bag, and puts his seal upon the string that ties the mouth of it. This is received for what is marked upon it, without any one ever having opened the bag, and in India, it is current for the value marked upon it, as long as the bag lasts.

Juddah being the most unwholesome part of Arabia, is at the same time, in the most barren and desert situation. This, and many other inconveniences under which it labours, would probably have occasioned its being abandoned altogether, were it not for its vicinity to Mecca, and the great and sudden influx of wealth from the India trade, which once a year, arrives in this part, but does not continue, passing on as through a turnpike to Mecca, whence it is dispersed all

over the east. Very little advantage however accrues to Juddah. The customs are all immediately sent to a needy sovereign, and a hungry set of relations, dependents and ministers at Mecca. The goods returned in bags and in boxes, and passes on as rapidly to the ships as the goods do to the market, and leaves as little profit behind. In the mean time provisions rise to a prodigious price, and this falls upon the townsmen, while all the profit of the traffic is in the hands of strangers, most of whom, after the market is over, retire to Yemen, and other neighbouring countries, which abound in every sort of provision. Though Jidda or Juddah is the country of their Prophet, yet no where are there so many unmarried women; and the permission of marrying four wives was allowed in this district in the first instance, and afterwards communicated to all the tribes. But Mahomet, in his permission of plurality of wives, seems constantly to have been on his guard against suffering that, which was intended for the welfare of his people, from operating in a different manner. He did not permit a man to marry two, three or four wives, unless he could maintain them: And the man who married them was obliged to shew before the Cadi or some equivalent officer, that it was in his power to support them. From this great scarcity of provisions, which is the result of an extraordinary concourse of people to a place almost destitute of the necessaries of life, few inhabitants of Jidda can avail themselves of the privileges granted by Mahomet, as they cannot maintain more than one wife. From this cause arises the want of people here, and the large number of unmarried women.

Mecca the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a mosque so glorious, that it is generally counted the most magnificent of any temple in the Turkish dominions: Its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every Mussulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life time, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the *Most Holy* by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bashaw of Egypt, by order of the grand-signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, so curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones, that it is esteemed a master-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are stiled *xerifs* and *imans*, both of them including offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the califs

califs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws residing among them; but it is certain they receive large gratuities from the grand-signior for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their kings command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

HISTORY.] The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they shall be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, for the luxuriance of its soil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and sweetest region of the world, and is distinguished by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the sixth century, anno 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endowed with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth, and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed: He carefully laid hold of these particulars, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among them, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by a Sergian monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often

subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers, and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet, sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the Eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachments to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to establish a kingdom upon earth which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates), and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published than a vast many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest we formerly mention-

ed, and compose a book called the *Koran*, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Book. The person of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachir, or the city of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 62d year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called in Arabic, *Hegira*, "the Flight."

Mahomet, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians, was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt, and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the most powerful monarch in his time. He was proclaimed king at Medina in the year 627, and after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, he died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries.

The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced most of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable part of mankind.

See the History of the Turkish or Ottoman Empire, from its foundation in 1300, to the peace of Belgrade in 1740, to which is prefixed an Historical Discourse on Mahomet and his successors; translated from the French of Mignot, by A. Hawkins, Esq. published 1787.

THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Niphon, Bongo, Tonfa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN, and are governed by a most despotic prince, who is sometimes called emperor and sometimes king. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The

The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very inaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas; they are subject to earthquakes, and have some volcanos. The Dutch expelled the Portuguese from this gainful trade. The Japanese are idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasacki, in the Island of Dezima, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like those of the Chinese and Tartars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black; and such a sameness of fashion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head-dress is the same from the emperor to the peasant. The fashion of their clothes has also remained the same from very high antiquity. They consist of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff.

Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, stools, benches, cupboards, or even beds. Their custom is to sit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always soft and clean. Their food is served up to them on a low board, raised but a few inches from the floor, and one dish only at a time. They have mirrors, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves: instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly: every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations, between equals, abound also with civility and politeness: to this children are early accustomed by the example

example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here, though, as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which they are in Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chinese, and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured goods which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer skins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greatest part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandize they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consist in 9000 chests of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, succotas, cottons, stuffs and rinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is said to be Guam, east longitude 140, north latitude 14: they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pillaging qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, except that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewise an Oriental Island. It is situated to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the south coast, and ending at the north. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains, belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the same with the Chinese, already described. The Chinese, have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, of which we scarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy, cowardly people, and live in the most unwholesome part of the island, the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The PHILIPPINES, are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese sea (part of the Pacific Ocean), 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manilla, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintudos, or painted people, and Mestres, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru as well as with all the islands and places of the East Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per

per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly, which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisngly in those islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriance of the soil are almost incredible. The tree amet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The **MOLUCCAS**, commonly called the **SPICE OR CLOVE ISLANDS**. These are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of sagoe. Their chief produce consist of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of these islands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another called Fort Orange in Machian.

AMBOYNA. This island, taken in a large sense, is one, and the most considerable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of south latitude, and 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known that when the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the Eng-

lish and Dutch, and the barbarities of the latter in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade; and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but must be transmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period, to all posterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The **BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS**, are situated between 127 and 128 degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, (the chief town of which is Lantor, Poleron) Rosfing, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on these islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on these islands only, and they are entirely subject to the Dutch. In several islands that lie near Banda, and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, because, as naturalists tell us, birds, especially doves and pigeons, swallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the same state; which is one of the reasons why the Dutch declare war against both those birds in their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

The island of **CELEBES, or MACASSAR**, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the Oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might easily drive the Dutch from their island. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified **GILOLO and CERAM**, two other spice islands lying under the equator; and will sink any ships that attempt to traffic in those seas.

The **SUNDA ISLANDS**. These are situated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and has therefore been thought to be the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang, one of which was dissected by Dr. Tyson at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The original

original inhabitants are said to live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts; but the sea-coast is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of this island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is divided by the straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold, that it is thought by some to be the Ophir mentioned in the scriptures; but Mr. Mariden in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown to the ancients. The highest mountain in Sumatra, is called *Ophir* by the Europeans, whose summit above the level of the sea is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriffe by 577 feet. The Portuguese were the first discoverers and settlers, but met with disgrace in their attempts against Acheen. The first English fleet that made its appearance in this part of the world, and laid the foundation of a commerce that was to eclipse that of every other European state, visited Acheen in the year 1602, under captain Lancaster, who carried a letter from queen Elizabeth to the king of that place. The English East-India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen, and Fort-Marborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Acheen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who possess the sea-coasts. The interior parts are governed by Pagan princes, whose governments are all independent, and their language and manners are very different. The natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those of the adjacent islands, but this island is surpassed by few in rice, pepper, and camphor, and in the bountiful indulgence of nature. It is from this country that most of the cassia sent to Europe is produced. The cassia tree grows to fifty or sixty feet, with a stem of about two feet diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. The quantity of pepper produced in the East-India company's districts on Sumatra, is annually 1200 tons; of which the greater part comes to Europe, and the rest is sent to China.

Rain is very frequent here; sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are several volcanos on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, who came hither from the peninsula of Malacca; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connexion with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from those of the Malays; the latter using the Arabic character, as do the Acheenese. The principal internal languages of the island are the Rejang and Batha, each containing characters essentially different from each other. The people between the districts of the English company, and those of the Dutch at Palembang, on the other side the island, write on long narrow slips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of other eastern nations. These inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in small villages, called Doosons, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders,

ers, and terminate disputes. They have almost all of them, particularly the women, large swellings in their throat, some nearly as big as a man's head, but in general as big as an ostrich's egg, like the góitres of the Alps. That part of this island which is called the Cassia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners and customs. They have no king, but live in villages, independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor plank pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between these fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which are concealed by the grass, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take prisoners, they put to death and eat, and their skulls they hang up as trophies, in the houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy: a man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but Mr. Marsden observes, it is extremely rare, that an instance occurs of their having more than one, and that only among a few of their chiefs; but this continence is attributed to their poverty. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same with that of the inhabitants of the South-Sea islands, generally styled Otheitean cloth. The Buffalo (*carbow*) constitutes a principal part of their food, and is the only animal employed in their domestic labours. The Sumatran pheasant is a bird of uncommon beauty.

Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of ENCANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers that entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded by regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here is a mixture of Eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a splendor superior to that of any European potentate, except on some solemn occasions. The city is as beautiful as it is strong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world; the Chinese residing in this island are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in

Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia ; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia ; and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island and the neighbourhood of the city. Their government is admirably well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands.] These islands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmless, inoffensive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON, OR SELEN-DIVE.] This island, though not the largest, is thought to be by nature the richest, and finest island in the world ; and is celebrated for being the only place which produces the true Cinnamon. It is separated by the Gulf of Manora, from the continent of Indostan, to which it is supposed to have been joined, till torn from it by the force of the waves, or earthquakes ; and the shallowness of the intervening channel seems to favour this opinion, for a sand-bank, called Adam's bridge, (on which only a few feet water runs,) interrupts all navigation except by boats. On this bank, and the neighbouring coast, is a pearl fishery, formerly considerable, but now much declined.

This island, which is happily situated for commerce, is inhabited by two distinct nations, the Bedas to the north, and the Cinglasses to the south ; it is about 250 miles long, and 200 broad ; the natives call it, with some shew of reason, the terrestrial paradise ; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, salt-petre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper ; besides cinnamon, gold, and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowls and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered ; and besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted ; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, and Negambo.

Mountains, covered with impossible forests, intersect it in all directions, amongst which Adam's pic rises like a lofty cone, far superior to the rest in elevation, and visible, (it is said) at the distance of more than 100 miles. From this mountain issues the Mowil-ganga, the largest river in the island, which visiting Candy the ancient capital, falls after a course of several miles into the bay of Trincomalee, the finest not only in Ceylon, but in all Indostan ; it is capable of receiving 1000 sail of the largest ships in perfect security. Ceylon, though formerly divided into several petty kingdoms, has now but one prince, who possesses only the internal parts of the island, and resides at Deggige, but is called the king of Candy, from the ancient capital, which having suffered much in the wars, between the Portuguese and natives, has ceased to be the royal residence.

The Dutch, who expelled the Portuguese, have possessed themselves of the entire coast, in order to exclude all other nations from the cinnamon

namon trade : this valuable spice, however, is cultivated only in the south-west coast, in a tract called the Cinnamon coast, in which the principal places are, COLUMBO, the capital of the Dutch settlements, in the island, regularly fortified, on a tolerable harbour formerly very considerable, but much declined. Columbo root, an article lately introduced into the *matery medica*, originally grew in America, and was thence transplanted to this town, which gives name to it, and supplies all India, and Europe with it: It is a bitter, rather ungrateful to the taste, but when received into the stomach, it appears to be corroborant, antiseptic, sedative, and powerfully antiemetic. It has been used with great success in the cholera morbus and other bilious complaints. POYR DE GALLE, on a small indifferent harbour, is fortified, and become the centre of the Dutch trade in the island.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this island, has two, if not three, barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which when stripped is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious island, to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled, and have monopolized it ever since to themselves. Indeed, in January 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the last treaty of peace.

THE MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went for money upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: "Of this tree (says a well-informed author) they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree.

We have already mentioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coast, in speaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewish, Christian religions, and with many foreign superstitions.

The sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-east to south-south-east, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited; but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other in respect both to their situation and national constitution. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of laryx and pines; those to the southward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes,

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The sea-otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia; but those to the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern islands they sew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillets, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

A F R I C A.

A F R I C A.

AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez, and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4300 miles; and the broadest part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees, to Cape Gurdafui, near the straits of Babel-Mandeb, in 51-20 east longitude, is 3500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the south by the southern ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe or Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives, in these scorching regions, would as soon expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that water by freezing should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or western ocean at Senegal, after a course of 2800 miles. It increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilizes the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile which dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the western ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The mountains of the moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomopata, and are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and

and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were styled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes, or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, so called, because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy grounds. It is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1498, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the south extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; at present in the possession of the Dutch; and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandeb, and is the communication between the Red Sea and the Indian ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic historians. It is however the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very centre of the country, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which Nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritians, subdued Carthage, and by degrees all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences;

sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and they are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

There are scarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and consequently we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following Table,

	Nations.	leng.	bre.	Chief cities.	Diff. and bear. from London.	Religions.
Barbery.	Morocco, Tafilet, &c.	500	480	Fez	1080 S.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	200	Algiers	920 S.	Mahom.
	Tunis	220	170	Tunis	990 S.E.	Mahom.
	Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli	1260 S.E.	Mahom.
	Barca	400	300	Tolemeta	1440 S.E.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	Grand Cairo	1920 S.E.	Mahom.
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	Dara	1565 S.	Pagans
	Zaara	3400	660	Tegella	1800 S.	Pagans
	Negroland	2200	840	Madinga	2500 S.	Pagans
	Guinea	1800	360	Benin	2700 S.	Pagans
Up, Ethiop.	Nubia	940	600	Nubia	2418 S.	Ma. & Pa.
	Abyssinia	900	800	Gondar	2880 S.E.	Christian.
	Abex	540	130	Doncala	3580 S.E.	Ch. & Pa.
	The middle parts, called the Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.					
Low Guinea.	Loango	410	300	Loango	3300 S.	Ch. & Pa.
	Congo	540	420	St. Salvador	3480 S.	Ch. & Pa.
	Angola	360	250	Loando	3750 S.	Ch. & Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	Benguela	3900 S.	Pagans.
	Mataman	450	240	No Towns	* * *	Pagans.
	Ajan	900	300	Brava	3702 S.E.	Pagans.
	Zanguebar	400	350	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S.E.	Pagans.
	Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa	4500 S.	Pagans.
	Monemugi	900	660	Chicova	4260 S.	Pagans.
	Sofala	480	300	Sofala	4600 S.E.	Pagans.
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	No Towns	* * *	agans.
	Caffraria or Hottentot	708	660	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	Pagans.
	The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian seas and Atlantic Ocean; or which are following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.					
	Islands.	Sq. Mi.	Towns.	Trad. with or belong.		
	Babel Mandeb, at the entrance of the Red Sea		Babel Mandeb	All Nations		
	Socotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calaulia	Ditto		
	The Comora Isles, ditto	1,000	Joanna	Ditto		
	Madagascar, ditto	168,000	St. Antin	Ditto		
	Mauritius, ditto	1,340	Mauritius	French		
	Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto		
	St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena	English		
	Ascension, ditto			Uninhabited		
	St. Matthew, do			Ditto.		
	St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes island, Ferdinands	ditto	S. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese		
	Cape Verd Islands, ditto		2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto	
	Go:es, ditto		Fort St. Michael	French		
	Canaries, ditto		Palma, St. Christophers	Spanish		
	Madeiras, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese		
	The Azores, or West. Isles lie nearly at an equal distance from Europ. Afric. & Amer.	ditto	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto		
			2,000			

Having given the reader some idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their supposed dimensions, we shall now consider it under three grand divisions : First, Egypt ; secondly, the states of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt on the east, to the Atlantic Ocean, west ; and, lastly, that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope ; the last of these divisions, indeed, is vastly greater than the other two ; but the nations, which it contains, are so little known, and so barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, so similar in most respects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

E G Y P T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } between { 20 and 32 north latitude. } 140,700.	}	
Breadth 250 }		

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North ; by the Red Sea, East ; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South ; and by the Desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Northern division contains	Lower Egypt	GRAND CAIRO, E. lon. 32 N. Lat. 30.
		Bulac Alexandria Rosetto Damietta
Southern division contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd or Thebes Coffiar

AIR.] It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months of the year (from March to November) the heat is almost insupportable by an European. " During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it." The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poisonous winds*, or the *hot winds of the desert*. They are of such extreme heat and aridity that no animated body exposed to it can withstand its fatal influence. During the three days which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted ; and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprizes remote from shelter : when it exceeds three days it is insupportable.

RIVERS, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The sources of this celebrated river were so much unknown to the ancients, that the search for them became a proverb to express any ridiculous or impossible attempt. By the Jesuit missionaries, however, who formerly passed into Abyssinia, they certainly were explored ; and the very reason given by Mr. Bruce for supposing that the missionaries never were there, must be a convincing

ing proof to every rational person that they really did visit them. The reason he gives, is a small difference betwixt his calculation and that of the missionaries in the latitude of the fountains from which the principal branch of the Nile proceeds, and which, according to his map, is exactly in 11 degrees north latitude. The difference is not quite a degree: it is impossible to know which of the travellers are in the right; and we may as well make this difference an argument against Mr. Bruce, as against the missionaries. According to both accounts, it rises in the territory of Gojam in Abyssinia, runs first northward, then changing its course to north-east, falls into the great lake of Dembea, from whence taking a circle south and westward, it again assumes a northerly direction, and being joined by two other large rivers, named the White River and the Atbara, or Astaboras, it passes through the great desert of Nubia, enters Egypt at the south west corner under the Tropic of Cancer, and continues its course between two rows of mountains, fertilizing annually the low ground between them; for the whole of Upper Egypt, as has already been mentioned, is a long and not very broad valley. The fountains are situated, as has already been mentioned, in a long and not very broad valley. The fountains are situated, as has already been said, in 11 degrees north latitude; and almost 27 east longitude; and are three in number, rising out of the marshy ground at the foot of a mountain; the water is fine, and issues in considerable quantity. About two miles from its source the stream becomes sufficiently large to turn a mill, but soon afterwards increases greatly, though even after a course of 60 miles it is fordable at certain seasons.

The natives, at the head of the Nile, pay divine honours to it. Thousands of cattle are offered, supposed to reside at its source. The Lake Dembea is much the largest known in this country. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles; but it decreases greatly at each extremity, where it is not sometimes above ten miles broad. Its greatest length is forty-nine miles from north to south. In the dry months, from October to March, the Lake shrinks greatly in size; but after all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like Radii drawn to a center, then it swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course a much larger surface.

The fertility of Egypt is well known to arise entirely from the annual overflowing of the Nile, and this is now equally well known to arise from the rains which fall periodically in Abyssinia. By these its waters are augmented, and begin to rise about the middle of June, and continue so to do until the middle of September, or the end of that month, the inundation taking up 100 days to arrive at its height. After that time it gradually decreases, and returns to its former channel, and so great is the influence of the sun, that even the vast quantity of water which at all times runs in its channel, becomes corrupted and heated to such a degree, that it can scarce be used before the return of the flood. No notice, however, is taken of the rise of the river till the end of June, when it has usually swelled to five or six cubits beyond its former standard. This is publicly proclaimed through the streets of Cairo by a crier, and the daily increase continues to be proclaimed in like manner, till it has attained the height of 16 pecks, when great rejoicings are made, and the inhabitants cry out

out *Waffah Ullah*, "God has given us abundance." This commonly happens about the end of July, or before the 20th of August, and the sooner it rises to the height just mentioned, the greater hope they have of a plentiful harvest. Sometimes, however, they are disappointed, as was the case in 1705, when it did not rise to the requisite height, till the 19th of September; the consequence of which was, that a famine and pestilence ensued. After the inundation has risen to this height, the banks are cut to let it into the canals which water the country, and prepare it for the reception of the seed. The height to which it rises is different, depending entirely on the quantity of rain that falls in Abyssinia. If it does not attain to 16 peeks, the inhabitants are exempted from paying tribute. Eighteen cubits produces but an indifferent crop; 22 a very good one; but, if the inundation exceeds 24, a famine ensues, because the waters do not retire in time for sowing the corn.

The waters of the Nile are mightily extolled by the Egyptians, on account of their wholesome and light qualities, and likewise their pleasant taste; but these commendations are naturally to be expected from people who never saw any other water; though it is certain that by the great length of its course, the Nile must be very perfectly deprived of every saline and earthly taint, excepting only the mud which happens to be accidentally mixed with it. This indeed is so abundant in the dry season, that it cannot be used without filtration, and even then has a putrid quality, which were it to continue long, would undoubtedly bring on dangerous diseases, but the waters of the inundation are always pure and wholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The fertility of the soil of Egypt has been celebrated in all ages, and if proper care was taken, there is not the least reason to doubt that it would now be the same as ever. In the dry months indeed the whole of this country is a dusty desert; though this is owing to nothing but the want of water; for the gardens which are artificially watered afford a perpetual verdure. As some parts of the country lie too high to be reached by the inundation, artificial means are likewise used for watering the corn grounds, though by reason of the unartful methods made use of, very little produce can be expected. One of the ways in which the water is generally raised is by the *Sakiah*, or Persian wheel, turned by oxen, and having several earthen vessels fastened to it by a rope, which empty themselves as the wheel turns round, into a cistern at top. In places where the banks of the river are high, they sometimes make basins in the side of them, near which they fix an upright pole, on the top of which is another moving upon an axle. At one end of the cross pole hangs a great stone, and at the other a leathern bucket; and the latter being pulled down by two men, is raised by the weight of the stone, and emptied into a proper cistern. From these cisterns the water is conveyed to the gardens, or plantations, and allowed to run in several little trenches, from whence it is conducted all round the beds in rills, which the gardener easily stops by raising the earth with his foot, and diverts the current another way.

Throughout all Egypt the soil is remarkably impregnated with that species of salt called Mineral Alkali, mingled with some common salt, and this may be supposed a reason of the extraordinary quickness of vegetation

vegetation in this country, which is so remarkable, that a certain species of gourd, named *Kara*, will send out in one night a shoot four inches in length; but for the same reason in all probability it is, that foreign plants will not thrive here. Thus the European merchants, residing at Cairo, are obliged annually to send to Malta for the seeds of their garden stuffs; and always observe, that though they thrive very well, and bear seed the first year, yet if that seed is sown, the succeeding plants are too weak and slender. All kinds of grain are produced in plenty in Egypt, and the harvest months are march and April, during which the people reap three crops, viz. one of lettuces and cucumbers (the latter being a principal article of food with them) another of melons, and a third of corn. Dares, figs, plantanes, &c. are produced here in great plenty, as well as palm trees, from which wine is made.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 20,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, these people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called *Ichneumon*, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal something resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects.

They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt; but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. It seems to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly; according to M. Volney, the number of inhabitants may amount at present to 2,300,000, of which Cairo contains about 250,000.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are represented as slovenly, indolent people, and are here distinguished by the name of Coptis; in their complexions, they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion. Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. The Arabs who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal

triarchal mode of tending their flocks, and many of them have no fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers, the other natives of their country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptis are generally excellent accountants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as thble made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling sight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] The bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their *santas*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to say what species of Christianity is professed by the Christian Coptis, which are here numerous, but they profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. Arabic or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters. Here it is proper to make one observation which is of general use. The califs or Saracens who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting,

painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, especially those who called themselves califs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning therefore possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabic or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds with these. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest, covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet.* It contains a room thirty four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

Among the greatest curiosities in this country, or perhaps in the whole world, we may reckon those people called *Pfylli*, who have the faculty, either natural or acquired, of enchanting the most venomous serpents, so that they shall have no power to bite or hurt them, though they retain all their mischievous qualities with regard to others. Accounts of these have been transmitted by the Roman historians, but were looked upon as false till confirmed by those of modern travellers. Mr. Hasselquist asserts, that he has seen one of these people handling the most venomous reptiles of this kind as if they had been laces; nay, Mr. Bruce not only assures us of this fact, but that he has seen a fellow eat a living serpent, beginning at its tail, and proceeding all the way up to its head, without the creature offering to resent such a violent injury. In what manner this extraordinary enchantment is performed we know not; for those who practise it will not speak upon the subject.

The mummy pits, so called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said that some of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mœris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern

* M. Volney, says, that a late mensuration assigns to each face of the Great Pyramid, six hundred feet; and its perpendicular height, four hundred and eighty feet.

modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens, is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe. The construction of the oven is very curious.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND } Even a slight review of these would a-
PUBLIC EDIFICIES. } mount to a large volume. In many places,
not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red Sea furnished Europe and great part of Asia with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. The mole which was built to form a communication with the island of Pharos is 1000 yards in length, and though near 2000 years old, such were its excellent materials as to resist in a great measure the violence of winds and waves ever since. All the parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary sea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade. The length of the city is two miles, but only half a mile broad. In the environs are many country houses belonging to Christian merchants, with fine gardens, producing the choicest fruits of the East. The Mahometan inhabitants are here also particularly civil and polite.

Cairo, now Maser, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles

miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladin; at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they shew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shewn in Old Cairo, but Captain Norden suspects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west, is Baitac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: The intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Darnietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west banks of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cosfiar, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers, who visit those places, is to hire a Janizary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the Isthmus, that joins Africa with Asia. The children of Israel are supposed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red Sea; almost every object and village in this country presents some amazing piece of antiquity. The difficulties in visiting it are great; so that the accounts we can depend upon are but few, nor do they always agree.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, callicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, senna, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, callicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. The trade of the English with this country is almost annihilated, as the French are able to undersell them in the principal articles of trade, particularly in light cloths of Languedoc, called first and second *Londrins*, which yield a good profit.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] A viceroy is sent to Egypt, from the Porte, under the title of the bashaw of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire. It is generally agreed, that the bashaw is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or *beys*,

beys, who have parcelled out Egypt among themselves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one against another. It has sometimes happened, that those bashaws have employed their arms against their masters; and they are often displaced by the Porte, upon complaint from those petty princes. These circumstances may account for the reason why Egypt is not overloaded with taxes. Captain Norden and Dr. Pococke have given us the best, and indeed a very favourable account of those petty princes, who are called the Schechs or Sheiks of the Bedonians, or wandering Arabs, and are generally too powerful to receive laws from the Turkish government.

Egypt is now divided into 24 provinces, each of which is governed by a Sangiack, or Bey, so that the government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the bashaw, and the republican by the mamalukes or sangiacs. The bashaw is appointed by the grand signior as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consists of a divan, composed of these twenty-four sangiacs, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the sheik bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the bashaw. Every one of the sangiacs is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power; the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand signior's bashaw acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post, the Porte is obliged to send another. They have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] From the nature of this divided government it must be difficult, if not impossible to form a judgment of the amount of the revenue of this country; according to the most probable conjecture, it exceeds two millions annually at present.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Captain Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janizaries, and assafs which are the chief; the former amounting to about six or eight thousand, and the latter to between three and four thousand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not appear, that the bashaw ever ventures to employ those troops against the Arab or Egyptian beys already mentioned, and who have separate armies of their own; so that, in fact, their dependance upon the Porte is little more than nominal, and amounts at most to feudal services.*

HISTORY. See *Rollin's Ancient History*.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head we shall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean sea; on the South, by Tafilet; and on the East, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers, being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth. Fez,

* According to M. Volney, the principal military strength of the country is now in the hands of the Mamlouks, as scarce a vestige remains of the corps of janizaries, &c. which formerly kept Egypt in subjection.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the East, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded in other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the East by the kingdom of Tunis, on the North by the Mediterranean, on the South by Mount Atlas, and on the West by the kingdoms of Morocco and Taflet. According to Dr. Shaw, who resided 12 years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the North and East; by the kingdom of Algiers on the West; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the South; being 220 miles in length from North to South, and 170 in breadth from East to West.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean sea; on the South by the country of the Beriberies; on the West by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the East by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs, but the capital of Biledulgerid (the ancient Numidia) is Dara.

This being premised, I shall consider the Barbary states as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS. The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. These states, under the Roman empire were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines, which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their constitution, yet they are still fertile, not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for their great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyenas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable,

table, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Camels and Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most servicable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden. Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, camellions, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw (speaking of his travels through Barbary) the apprehensions we were under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capla-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Morocco was certainly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true that their king or emperor has 86,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen's shops, and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisines are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilized of the European government might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The Tunisine women are very handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (*2 Kings, chap. ix. verse 30.*) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour genteel and complaisant, and great regularity appears through all the streets and city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants,

who

who are said to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a peice with those of the Egyptians. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea. They are notwithstanding far inferior to the Europeans, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisines, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hospitable, inoffence people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, the more pure are their manners. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveness about them, especially those who are of the Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

DRESS.] The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is shocking. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat is boiled or roasted to rags.

RELIGION.] All foreigners are here allowed the open profession of their religion, but the inhabitants of these states are Mahometans; and many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the califs. All of them are very fond of idiots; and in some cases their protection screens offenders from punishment, for the most notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors) have adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity.

LANGUAGE.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and sea-faring

farings people are no strangers to that medly of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIGUITIES AND CURIOSITIES,] This article is well worth the
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } study of an antiquary, but the
subjects of it are difficult of access. The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the Pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity; but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants; and but few curious persons, except Dr. Shaw, have visited the country. Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidences of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old Julia Cæsarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are said to be still remaining, but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Urica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the califs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, excepting its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez, 30 miles distant, and very populous. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts the common people live in a dirty, slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and an half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it is said, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege, and that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. If so, the Spaniards must have been very deficient either in courage or conduct. They attacked it in the year 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horse, and 47 king's ships of different rates, and 346 transports. In the year 1783 and 84, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys, but after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the
harbour

harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The capital, about 30 miles south of old Carthage, has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniences attending its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners.

Its mosques amount to 500: one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great eporium of all Barbary. Salce was formerly famous for the piracy of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tassilet, and Gesula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

Zaara, is a desert country, thinly peopled, and nearly destitute of both water and provisions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-belts, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which

which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephants teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities; the particulars of which are too many to specify. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are seldom punished.

It has often been thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by those barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather who do not pay them a subsidy, either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte to pretend to be their lord paramount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in the possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects to their deserts and mountains, so that the benefit, resulting from the conquest, must be tedious and precarious. Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful; of these some account hath already been given.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT. In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the califate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high-priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand Signior to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet. What we have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish bashaw or dey, who governs in the name of the Grand Signior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a

vacancy

vacancy of the government happens, which commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000*l.* a year, without greatly oppressing the subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. A detachment of the army of their states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea, sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the Grand Signior is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty bashaws. These bashaws seldom fail of forming parties, among the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life; and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited, but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] We have already mentioned those of Algiers, but they are now said to be extended by Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to a part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mohometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000 a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND.] By the best accounts we have received, the King of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the strength of this army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. These wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Salée, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cologies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed

in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse into the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any Tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished; the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, or indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these people not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

[HISTORY.] There perhaps is no problem in history so unaccountable as the decay or fall of the splendor, power, and glory of the states of Barbary; which, when Rome was mistress of the world, formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century, that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unsuccessful; and, as already observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were all called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the califate of the Saracens. They have been in general a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continued state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since; nor does the crown of Great-Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

Of AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope. *See the Table and Map.*

THIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known; there is no modern traveller that hath penetrated into the interior parts; so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, they are all of a black complexion: In their religion, except on the sea-coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are pagans; and the form of government is every where monarchical, or despotic. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are said to be grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they must be little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each governed by its own prince. In Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stands on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, styled *Negus*, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the *Negafcha Negafcht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This indeed must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendants, whether male or female.

We are but imperfectly acquainted with the manners and customs of the people of this extensive country. The accounts given us by Mr. Bruce, of the Abyssinians, represent them as in a state of very great barbarism. Their manner of feeding is beyond a parallel, if we may believe the report of our author. He informs us, that having fallen in with some soldiers driving a cow before them, he was surpris'd to see them throw down the animal, cut off pieces of her flesh, and then flapping the skin over the wound, make her get up and walk on as before. This he at first supposed to be a military manœuvre, and an expeditious method of carrying provisions along with them; but he soon found that it was the common practice of the country, and that the fate of the unfortunate animals used by Abyssinians for food, was much worse than if they were devoured by the most cruel wild beasts. The latter would kill them at once, or at least not keep them long in torment; but these wild beasts in human shape protract their agonies as much as possible; flesh being in no estimation among them, unless it be warm and quivering with life. In their manners, they are debauched in the most incredible degree; the country is a seat of continual war and bloodshed; ignorance, and the most abominable superstitions universally prevail; and, when to all this we join the nominal profession of Christianity, the idea is too shocking to be born.

Although

Although we read from the Jesuits, says Mr. Bruce, a great deal about marriage and polygamy, yet there is nothing which may be averred more truly, than that there is no such thing as marriage in Abyssinia, unless that which is contracted by mutual consent, without other forms, subsisting only till dissolved of one or other, and to be renewed or repealed as often as it is agreeable to both parties, who when they please, cohabit together as man and wife, after having been divorced, had children by others, or whether they have been married, or had children with others or not. Upon separation they divide the children. If the numbers are unequal they are divided by lot. There is no such distinction as legitimate or illegitimate children from the king to the beggar.

The religion of the Abyssinians is a mixture of Christianity, Judaism and Paganism, the two latter of which are by far the most predominant. There are here more Churches than in any other country, and though it is very mountainous, and consequently the view much obstructed, it is very seldom you see less than five or six churches. Every great man that dies thinks he has atoned for all his wickedness, if he leaves a fund to build a Church, or has built one in his life time. Wherever a victory is obtained, a church is erected, the situation for them is always chosen near running water, for the convenience of their purifications and ablutions, in which they observe strictly the levitical law. The churches are all round, with thatched roofs: Their summits are perfect cones: The outside is surrounded by a number of wooden pillars, which are nothing else than the trunks of the cedar tree, and are placed to support the edifice, about eight feet of the roof projecting beyond the wall of the church, which forms an agreeable walk or colonade, around it in hot weather, or in rain. The inside of the church is in several divisions, according as is prescribed by the law of Moses. The first is a circle somewhat wider than the inner one; here the congregation sit and pray. Within this is a square, and that square is divided by a veil or curtain, in which is another very small division answering to the holy of holies.

This is so narrow, that none but the priests can go in to it. You must be bare-footed whenever you enter the church, and then you may go through every part of it, provided you are pure, that is, have not been concerned with women for 24 hours before, nor touched dead bodies or carrion; (a curious assemblage of ideas,) in which case you must stand at an awful distance and say your prayers.

The churches are full of pictures slovenly painted on parchment, and nailed upon the walls. Sometimes for a particular church they get a number of pictures of saints, on skins of parchment ready finished from Cairo, in a style very little superior to their own performances. There is no choice in their saints, they are both of the old and new Testament, and those that might be dispensed with from both. There is St. Pontius Pilate and his wife; there is St. Balaam and his ass; Samson and his Jaw Bone; and so of the rest.

The Abyssinians receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the hulk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. Large pieces of bread are given to the communicants in proportion to their quality, and it sometimes is the case, with great men, who though they

they open their mouths as wide as they conveniently can, yet from the respect the priest pays them, such a portion of the loaf is put into their mouths, that water runs from their eyes, from the incapacity of chewing it, which however they do as indecently, and with full as much noise as they eat at table.

The Abyssinians are not all agreed about the state of souls before the resurrection of the body. The opinion which generally prevails, is that there is no third state, but that, after the example of the thief, the souls of good men enjoy beatific vision immediately upon the separation from the body. But their practice and books both contradict this; for when any person dies, alms are given, and prayers are offered for the souls of those departed, which would be vain did they believe they were in the presence of God.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile; this arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces with the utmost luxuriance; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Fruticui, Monomotapa, Casati, and Mehemugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives, detestable as is the traffic, make the most considerable article in the produce and trade of this miserable quarter of the globe.

The principal towns in this part of Africa, which are known, are the following.

Gondar, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in times of peace: The houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west end of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence; it was a square building, flanked with square towers, was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Izana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it; the audience chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

Adowa, the capital of Tigre, is situated on the west side of a small plain, surrounded every way by mountains; it contains about 300 houses; it was not formerly the capital, but has accidentally become so upon the accession of the governor, whose property lies in and about it. His mansion house resembles a prison rather than a palace, for
there

there are in and about it, more than 300 persons in irons, some of whom have been there for 20 years, mostly with a view to extort money from them. Adowa is the seat of a considerable manufacture of coarse cotton cloth, which circulates instead of money all over Abyssinia.

Siré, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on the brink of a very steep, narrow valley. In the midst of this valley runs a brook bordered with palm trees, which bear no fruit: Its houses are all of clay. This town is also famous for the manufacture of coarse cotton cloths, which pass for current money through all the Province of Tigré; beside these, beads, needles, cochol and incense, at times only, are considered as money. Siré is situated lat. $14^{\circ} 4' 35''$ north, and long. $38^{\circ} 0' 16''$ E. from Greenwich, and although in one of the finest countries in the world, says Mr. Bruce, putrid fevers of the very worst kind, are almost constant here.

The nations bounding on Abyssinia, are but little or not at all known. They are, the chief of them, on the north, south and West, Pagan blacks. Sennaar, the chief town of the kingdom of Sennaar, is in lat. $13^{\circ} 34' 36''$ north, $33^{\circ} 30' 30''$ east from Greenwich: It is on the west side of the Nile, and close upon the banks of it. The ground whercon it stands, rises just enough to prevent the river from entering the town. The country around Sennaar is exceedingly pleasant in the months of August and September. The corn at this season is now sprung up, and makes the whole of this immense plain appear a level green land, interspersed with great lakes of water, and ornamented at certain intervals with groups of villages, the conical tops of the houses appearing at a distance, like small encampments. Through this extensive plain, winds the Nile, a delightful river there, more than a mile broad, full to the brim, but never overflowing. Every where on these banks are seen, numerous herds of the most beautiful cattle of various kinds, the tribute recently extorted from all the Arabs; who, freed from their vexations, return home with the remainder of their flocks in peace, at as great a distance from the town, country, and their oppressors as they possibly can.

War and treason seem to be the only employment of this horrid people, whom Heaven has separated by almost impassable deserts from the rest of mankind. The dress of the Sennaar's is very simple: It consists of a long shirt of blue surar cloth, called marotuy, which covers them from the lower part of their neck down to their feet, but does not conceal the neck itself; and this is the only difference between the men's and women's dress; that of the women covering theirs altogether, being buttoned like ours. Both men and women go barefooted in the house. Their floors are covered with Persian carpets, especially the women's apartments. In fair weather, they wear sandals; and without doors they use a kind of wooden patten, neatly ornamented with shells. In the greatest heat at noon, they order buckets of water to be thrown upon them instead of bathing. Both men and women anoint themselves, at least once a day, with camel's grease, mixed with civet, which they imagine softens their skin, and preserves them from cutaneous eruptions, of which they are so fearful, that the smallest pimple in any visible part of their body, keeps them in their house till it disappears. They lie all night, in a shirt dipt in grease, upon a bull's hide tanned, and very much softened by this constant greasing,
and

and very cool at the same time, though it occasions a smell that no washing can free them from. Their horned cattle are the largest and fattest in the world, and are exceedingly fine; but the common meat sold in the market, is camel's flesh: The liver of the animal, and the sparerib are always eaten raw, through the whole country.

All the nations of Africa, within the tropics, are wonderfully affected at the smallest eruption or roughness of the skin; nor is there any remedy, however violent, that they will not fly to, for immediate relief. A very singular complaint mentioned by travellers as common to these countries, is the *Farenteit*, a corruption of an Arabic word which signifies the worm of Pharaoh. This animal afflicts those who are in a habit of drinking stagnant water. It appears indiscriminately in every part of the body: It comes on with an itching in the spot, and on observing, the small black head of this worm is very visible. Its body is seemingly of a white silky texture, very small like a tendon. After its appearance, the natives of these countries, who are used to it, seize it gently by the head, and wrap it round a thin piece of silk, or small bird's feather. Every day, or several times a day, they try to wind it up upon the quill as far as it comes readily; and upon the smallest resistance, they give over lest it should break. They are often as much as five feet in length.

On the Guinea or western coast, the English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river of Senegal, with its dependencies were given up to France. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast, where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for this purpose.

According to a late sensible writer, Mr. Ramsay, the annual British exports to Africa are estimated at 500,000*l.* including a considerable quantity that is annually exchanged with American and other foreign traders on the coast; about 50,000*l.* of this is returned in ivory, gold dust, gum, &c. The greatest part of the profits of the slave trade is raised on the sugar plantations. If by establishing factories, and encouraging civilization on the coast of Africa, and returning some of the West-India and other slaves, to their original country, some amends could be made for past treachery, to the natives, and the inhabitants could be instructed in the culture of tobacco, indigo, cotton, rice, &c. to barter with us for our manufactures, great might be the profits and much would it serve the cause of humanity. An undertaking of this kind has lately been set on foot by the *Sierra Leona* company which bids fair to be successful, and does very great honor to the humane gentlemen, who are agents in this business.

The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts, and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanzibar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned

mentioned, but likewise for several others, as sena, aloes, civet, amber-grease, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the southern part of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, particularly Cape Town, which is well settled, and fortified; where their ships, bound for India, usually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spirituous liquors.

The establishment which the Dutch East-India company have made on either side of the Cape of Good Hope, the extreme southern point of that great Continent, which comprehends Europe, Asia and Africa, extends according to computation, 450 miles Eastward and Westward, and 250 towards the North. In this extensive domain, the population amounts to 17,000 inhabitants of European descent, and about 30,000 slaves, Africans and Asiatics.

This country is capable of being made, by the simplest means, a populous commercial Colony. Its pure and temperate climate is favourable to health, longevity and population. Its soil, though not apparently rich, is, from the genial temperature of the air, and alternate dews and sunshine, so kindly vegetative, that it nourishes with little culture, and almost spontaneously, whatever the husbandman, the botanist, the florist chooses to commit to its bosom. Thus it is calculated to produce whatever is requisite to the increase of flocks, horses, and cattle; and at the same time to yield whatever is necessary to the comfortable subsistence of the human species.

The greatest want of this country, is that of timber for building, and even for fuel. The navigable rivers are separated from each other by great distances: But canals are more practicable here than in the low countries of Europe. The east side of the promontory, and the inland parts, are the richest, and capable of the highest cultivation. The two principal parts with regard to actual commerce, are Table Bay and False Bay, which are always safe; so formed and sheltered, as alternately to yield security against the two prevailing winds, which are peculiar to that meridian. There are other bays very fit for navigation; but the policy of the chartered sovereigns, the East India Company, has drawn a veil over the true knowledge of them. The same jealousy which hides the knowledge of the ports to which we allude, prohibits the inhabitants from transporting, on any pretext, their produce and effects to the principal towns, coastwise by water. The excellent vines of the Cape, if encouraged and improved, would yield to none in taste, flavour or delicacy. Its grains are not inferior to those of Sicily. Aloes, myrtle wax, salt and paints, it is capable of furnishing in profusion; as also indigo, cotton and tobacco. It contains virgin copper, and copper ore, and the appearance of the soil in many places indicates the possession of the precious metals.

Families in this place generally consist of from 7 to 17 children, and some from 18 to 27. From the want of intercourse with strangers, they are all allied together with intermarriages; without feeling, however, for each other any kindred affection, and even without that sympathy and fellowship which prevail in other countries among neighbours. The females appear to be more numerous than the other sex. It is computed, that at the least five-sixth parts of the whole number of European descent (17,000) are females and male children under
manhood.

manhood. About one-fourth part of those who are descended from Europeans, reside at Cape-Town, and about two-fifths of all the slaves.

The people of this place are less the descendants of the Dutch than of emigrants from France (after the revocation of the Edict of Nantz) from all the protestant estates in Germany, and from the Austrian Netherlands.

As there is no exportation but from Table and False Bays, wines, grain, and some other articles pay duties upon entering the towns.— There is a considerable quantity of wheat shipped annually by the company to Batavia, Ceylon and Holland. Cattle and sheep for the use of shipping, are provided by contracting farmers, who pay a duty for this exclusive privilege.

The chief justice, or fiscal, unites in his own person the three distinct branches of government; the legislative, the judicial and the executive. This legislator, judge and executioner, with high powers, possesses great privileges and emoluments: He can impose and levy taxes for his own use; dispense with laws; create new crimes; compound for crimes of all denominations and complexions, and in general, dispose as he pleases, of the lives and fortunes of the whole people. It is true there is a kind of controlling power, paramount to this highly privileged person; but woe to him who dares appeal to that tribunal.

Most families manufacture their own articles of wearing apparel and household furniture: So that they are only obliged to import from Europe and Asia the gross materials, and a few of the simplest articles of convenience, and still fewer of luxury. Their streets are spacious, airy and regularly laid out at right angles; and they seem to have inherited and preserved the cleanliness of Haerlem and Delft. But there is one inconveniency which they cannot remedy with all their industry. The strong squalls of wind which often force themselves through narrow passes between the surrounding mountains, raise dust in the streets, in troublesome quantities, in spite of the frequent application of water from canals and occasional gutters.

Every house keeper has good accommodations for boarders: but strangers are discouraged from settling there by political finess. As the Cape of Good-Hope has, for many years, been a half-way house for refreshment, out and home, travellers of quick conceptions and some genius, have had frequent opportunities of drawing the strangest medleys of characters, and of remarking the various effects of wealth, and climate on the manners and passions of men. The various degrees of rank, and the different stations and circumstances of persons travelling to and from India, have furnished ample scope for observations of this kind.

The *Aborigènes* of the country, who are called *Hottentots*, and who are of a mild and tractable disposition, have been easily reduced to the condition of obedient subjects. They are a quiet, inoffensive people, useful to the Dutch in many respects, particularly in the management of flocks and herds of cattle. They have been very much misrepresented in Europe: And it is surprising that the falsehoods which have been propagated concerning them, should so long have gained credit in the world. It is not true, that they are in the practice of eating raw flesh, or that they entwine their bodies with the entrails of cattle. They pre-
pare

bare their food with fire; and their cloathing consists of a dressed hide, which is tied like a collar round the neck, hangs down over the shoulders near to the ground, and is broad, and it may be wrapt round the fore part of the body; besides this, they wear another covering of skin round the loins, which reaches half way down the thighs. Sometimes they have a cap for the head, and shoes for the feet of the same materials. Their shoes are formed of a piece of hide, drawn closely about the feet with thongs of the same. The Hottentots having few conveniences for bathing, and living in a climate where they are very frequently involved in clouds of dust, have acquired habits of dirtiness; but their skins, when washed, are clear, though fallow. There is a straggling nation of Hottentots, in very inland parts of the country, who are mere savages, having neither flocks nor herds, houses, huts nor settled residence. These savages live by prey, and their abodes are caves, rocks and trees. They use very little cloathing: It has been said, that they are cannibals; but this has not been ascertained. They are untameable and unmanageable by any means that have been yet tried. They refuse to converse as other uncivilized nations readily do, by natural signs; and scarce deserve to be ranked among the human species. They are happily, very few in number, and are seldom to be seen in day-light. They make their depredations in the night, like so many wolves and tigers.

We are informed by a late learned traveller, that the Hottentots live much in the same manner as the ancient Gauls, mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries; residing in different herds or tribes, on the banks of rivers, and near the forests; where they form so many distinct villages and independent republics. By means of the rivers, the country about them is fertile in the production of those roots and wild fruits on which the Hottentots in a great measure subsist; and the forests yield them the like advantages. The Hottentot villages are all circular; the cabbins of which they are composed being covered with skins, and so very low, that a man must either stoop very much, or crawl on his knees, to get into them. They serve, indeed, chiefly to contain provisions, and their implements of husbandry; the owner himself never occupying them unless when it rains: At other times, he passes his leisure hours in sleeping at the door of his hut; where he lies on his belly, and exposes his back to the sun and the weather; waking now and then to amuse himself with smoking a certain strong-scented herb, which hath much the same effect as our tobacco.

The employment of the Hottentots is purely pastoral; their principal and almost only occupation being the care of their herds of sheep and kine. Of these each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa. Lions, indeed, are not very common there; but there are elephants, the rhinoceros, leopards, tigers, and several kinds of wolves, more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsmen to go, or send, every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of

prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case, he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsmen entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, where he is inevitably destroyed. United among themselves by the bonds of fraternal concord, the inhabitants of the same village live in constant peace. But they take cruel vengeance on the neighbouring tribes, on the first insult that is offered them. The subject of their mutual complaints is generally the stealing of a sheep or cow, and sometimes only a suspicion of it; the consequences, however, are usually very terrible, when they determine on revenge; as they take all possible means, after having made this determination, to make the aggressors suppose the injury forgotten; but no sooner do they find their dissimulation hath taken effect, in the security of the enemy, than they fall suddenly upon them with poisoned weapons, sparing neither age nor sex, but rooting out at once the whole community: such is the method of going to war in this country.

The care of household affairs among the Hottentots belongs to the department of the females. The men, indeed, are the butchers, and prepare the meat for dressing; but the care of providing the vegetables concerns only the women. Thus the mother of a family sets out in a morning, attended by such of her children as are able to follow her, and carrying the rest in her arms or on her back. In this manner she searches the woods and river sides, for roots, pulse, or fruit; of which having gotten a sufficient quantity, she returns, lights a fire on a large stone before the cabin, and when the food is dressed, wakes her husband, who sits down to his meal with the rest of the family. The women are clothed with sheep-skins, as well as the men; wearing the wool outwards in summer, and inwards during the winter.

HISTORY.] The Abyssinians, from a very ancient tradition, according to Mr. Bruce, attribute the foundation of their monarchy to Menilek, son of Solomon, by the Queen of *Saba*, (*Sheba*) or Arab, rendered in the Vulgate, the Queen of the South. The annals of the Abyssinians say, she was a Pagan, when she left Arab, but being full of admiration at the sight of Solomon's works, she was converted to Judaism in Jerusalem, and bore him a son whom she called Menilek, and he became their first King. She returned with her son to Saba, or Arab, whom, after keeping him some years, she sent back to his father to be instructed. Solomon did not neglect his charge, and he was anointed and crowned King of Ethiopia, in the temple of Jerusalem, and at his inauguration, took the name of David: After this he returned to Arab, and brought with him a colony of Jews, among whom were many doctors of the Law of Moses, particularly one of each Tribe, to make Judges in his kingdom, from whom the present Umbra (or Supreme Judges, three of whom always attend the king) are said and believed to be descended. With these came also Azarias, the son of Zadok the priest, and brought with him a Hebrew transcript of the law, which was delivered into his custody, as he bore the title of Nebrit, or High Priest;

priest; and this charge though the book itself was burnt with the church at Axum in the Moorish war of Adel, is still continued, as it said, in the lineage of Azarias, who are keepers of the church of Axum at this day. All Abyffinia was thereupon converted, and the Government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Mr. Bruce has collected a chronological list of the Princes who have reigned in that country, from the restoration of the line of Solomon, to the time he was there, in the year 1769. The kings of Abyffinia, are above all laws. They are supreme in all causes, ecclesiastical and civil. The land and persons of their subjects are equally their property, and every inhabitant of their kingdom is born their slave: If he bears a higher rank, it is by the king's gift; for his nearest relations are accounted nothing better. Punishments inflicted on criminals are the cross or crucifixion, slaying alive, lapidation, plucking out the eyes: This last is inflicted usually on rebels. It is considered as a fundamental law of the land, that none of the royal family, who have any bodily defect or deformity shall be allowed to succeed to the crown; and for this purpose any of the princes who may have escaped from the mountain of Wechne, and who are afterwards taken, are mutilated in some of their members, that thus they may be disqualified from succeeding. The crown being hereditary in one family, but elective in the person, and polygamy being permitted, must have multiplied their heirs very much, and produced constant disputes, so that it was found necessary to provide a remedy for the anarchy and effusion of royal blood, which was otherwise inevitably to follow. The remedy was a humane and gentle one; they were confined in a good climate, upon a high mountain, and maintained there at the public expence: They are taught to read and write, but nothing else. 750 Cloths for wrapping round them, 3000 ounces of Gold, which is 30,000 dollars are allowed by the state for their maintainance. These princes are hardly used, and in troublesome times, often put to death upon the smallest pretensions. It is said, that their revenue is sometimes so grossly misapplied, that some of them die with hunger and cold. The situation however is not so distressing as that of the princes of the neighbouring kingdom of Sennaar or Nubia. There, no mountain is trusted with the confinement of their princes; but as soon as the father dies, the throats of all the collaterals, and all their descendants that can be laid hold of, are cut; and this is the case with all the states in the desert, west of Sennaar.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the most noted of any for the infamous slave trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human flesh, and encouraged in the Negroe countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West India islands might be supplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of those poor unhappy creatures from Africa for slaves has exceeded 100,000, numbers of whom are driven down like sheep, perhaps 1000 miles from the sea coast, who are generally inhabitants of villages, that have been surrounded in the night by armed force, and carried off for sale.

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the Negroes in the English settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, which is upwards of 250 miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes supported by the slave trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government, and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and, whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to slavery; if a woman, the female part is sold. "While on the coast" says he, "I saw instances of this sort so truly cruel, as made my very bosom bleed. This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchase them, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on them. I am sorry to say they are un-naturally averse to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese, French, and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeed in their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advantage of the commerce, as of religion. It is for the sake of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting to the settlements of these nations."

It is high time for the legislature to enforce and put an end to this most infamous of all trades, and so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so repugnant to the principles of a free government.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandeb, Madagalar, the Comora Islands, Bourbon, and Mauritius.

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in east lon. 53, north lat. 12, thirty leagues east of Cape Gardesoi, on the continent of Africa: It is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or Sheik who is probably tributary to the Poite.

BABELMANDEB. The island of Babelmandeb gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situated in east lon. 44 30, north lat. 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through

through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The island is of little value, being a barren, sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

COMORA. These Islands are, Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angezeia, and Comora; situated between 41 and 46 east lon. and between 10 and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which claims sovereignty over, and exacts tribute from the others, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East-India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan persuasion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situated between 43 and 51 deg. east lon. and between 10 and 26 south lat. 200 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to south; and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The sea falls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel, or passage, through which all European ships, in their voyage to and from India, generally fall, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions: some white, some negroes, some Mahometans, some pagans. The whites, and those of a tawny complexion who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their Assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Many of them observe the Jewish sabbath, and give some account of the sacred history, the creation and fall of man, as also of Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David; from whence it is conjectured that they are descended of Jews who formerly settled here; though none knows how or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1642; but the people disliking their government, were driven out in 1651; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder; but the French have given it the name of THE ISLE OF FRANCE. It is situated in east lon. 56, south lat. 20, south about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with

with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers well stocked with fish; and though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in possession of the French.

BOURBON. The Isle of Bourbon is situated in east lon. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, smoke, and sulphur, with a hideous roaring noise, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: Sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there,) aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor; and here their East-India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean, lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the Old World, on the east; and America, or the New World, on the west. In this Ocean on the African coast are the following islands that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape-Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands.

ST. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situated in west lon. 6-4, south lat. 16, being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of south America. The island is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high, and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the east side of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chappel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship over-shoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn: of the last, however, most part is destroyed by the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed: so that the flour they use is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, silks, muslins, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the Empress Helena, mother of the Emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here: And the English East-India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprize. However, the English, under the command of Capt. Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East-India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East-India ships take in water and fresh provisions here, in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them outward bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situated in 7 deg. 40 min. south lat. 600 miles north west of St. Helena: It received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and is a mountainous, barren island, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but has a safe, convenient harbour, where the East-India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtles or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above an hundred pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night-time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel, as to turn many more than they use leaving them to die on the shore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a small island lying in 6-1 west lon. and 1-30 south lat. 300 miles to the north east of Ascension, and was also discovered

ered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserted it, this island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. St. THOMAS, PRINCES ISLAND, ANNAPOA, and FERNANDOPO, are situated in the gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and belong still to them; they furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by. And to the honor of the Portuguese government, and disgrace of the West-India legislatures, there are 15,000 Negro Christians in St. Thomas, instructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worship, clean and well clothed.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about 20 in number; but some of them being only barren, uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference, yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges and other tropical fruits; but the plant of most consequence is madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is plenty of roots, garden-stuffs, hogs, and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an English and French Squadron the last war) situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships, those outward bound to Guinea or the East-Indies, from England, Holland and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the Island of Mayo, or May, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea water, which at spring tides, is received into a sort of pan, formed by a sand bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several English ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this Island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited aboard their ships. The sea water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving. The

The island of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situated within cannon shot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43, W. lon. 17-20, and was so called by the Dutch, from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and it has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1677 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when it was reduced by commodore Keppel, but restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English in the last war, but again restored at the peace of 1783.

CANARIES.] The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 degrees west lon, and between 27 and 29 degrees north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuertaventura, and Langarote. These islands enjoy a pure, temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which, in time of peace, is computed at ten thousand hogsheads annually. The Canaries abound with those beautiful little birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile as to produce two harvests in the year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glass observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150 miles. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, near three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts. These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resembled the Africans in their stature and complexion, when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS.] The three islands called the Madeiras, are situated, according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 west lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards; and in the middle of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richest wine, sugar, the most delicate fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomgranates; together with corn, honey, and wax; it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the West where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence it was carried to the Brasils in America. The Portuguese not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, malmsey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. No less than 20,000 hogheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one is called Port Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the southwest; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES.] Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, that are situated between 25 and 32 degrees west lon. and between 37 and 40 degrees north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the midway between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the 15th century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who in a voyage to Lisbon, was by stress of weather driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish Islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them, to whom they still belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also the inundations of surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; also in cattle, fowl, and fish. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animals breed on the Azores, and that if carried thither they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the southeast winds. It is generally visited by their homeward bound fleets from Brazil, Africa, and the East Indies. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as the bishop.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

IN this place, I shall mention those only which have been made in the eastern hemisphere, having given an account of the others at the close of our description of America. The parts discovered in this hemisphere that merit particular notice, are New Holland, New Guinea, New Britain, and New Ireland. We shall also here add a more particular account of the Sandwich Islands.

CONTINENT OF NEW HOLLAND.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Length } 2400 { between { 110° and 153° E. Long.
Breadth } 2300 { between { 11° and 42° S. Lat.

IT lies S. E. of the Island of Java, and South of New Guinea, in the Great South Sea. For more than a century after its first discovery by the Dutch, in 1616, it was thought to be a part of a vast southern Continent, the existence of which had been a favourite idea with many experienced navigators. The great extent of New Holland, gives it an unquestionable claim to the name of CONTINENT.

The principal Capes are Cape York, and South Cape, which form the extreme N. and S. points of the Continent. Between these Capes, along the Eastern shore, are Cape Flattery, Cape Gloucester, Cape Townsend, Sandy Cape, Smokely Cape, and Cape Howe. The most noted Bays are Botany Bay on the East side of the Continent, Bateman Bay, south of it, and Glass house Bay, Harvey's, Keppel, Halifax, and Trinity Bays, all between Botany Bay, and York Cape, on the Eastern shore. Shark Bay lies on the west side of the Continent, about south lat. 25°. The capacious gulf of Carpentaria, discovered in 1618, lies on the North; York Cape, and Arneim's land, make the two points of it.

The whole Eastern coast of this Continent, except the very Southern point, was discovered and explored by Capt. Cook, in 1770, and is called NEW SOUTH WALES. It is claimed by England on the old principle of prior discovery.

From want of opportunity to examine, no considerable rivers have yet been discovered; but from the appearance of the country, it is conjectured that it is well watered. Two kinds of Gum are produced here, called red and yellow Gums; the former resembles *Sanguis Draconis*, but is perfectly soluble in water. It is drawn from the tree by tapping, or taken out of the veins of the wood, when dry, in which it is copiously distributed. It is a very powerful remedy in the dysentery.

The yellow Gum, as it is called, is strictly resin, not being at all soluble in water: It has the resemblance of Gamboge, but has not the property of staining. The plant that produces it is low and small, with long grassy leaves; but the fructification of it shoots out in a singular manner from the centre of the leaves, on a single straight stem, to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Of this stem, which is like some of the Reed Grass, the natives usually make their spears. The resin is generally dug up out of the soil, under the tree, not collected from it, and may perhaps be that which Talisman calls "Gum Lac of the Ground."

There

There are a great variety of birds and animals found here, several of which, before the discovery of this place, were non descripts.*

The Natives go always uncovered, although it is observed they suffer sometimes from the cold. Those on the borders of the sea coast subsist principally on fish. On that part of the coast which the English have invaded, the natives have retired, and from accounts, are much distressed for provision. A kind of twine is manufactured among them, which, with their fishing nets, is very neatly made from the flax plant. This plant promises to be very valuable for the purpose of making cordage, and the finest manufactures. It grows in Norfolk island (a small island N. W. of New Holland, on which the English are likewise making a settlement) in great plenty and with such luxuriance as to reach the height of eight feet.

Their cutting implements are made of stone. Several figures of animals, of shields and weapons, and even of men, have been seen carved upon the rocks roughly, indeed, but sufficiently well executed to indicate the object intended by them. On the top of the hills, is the figure of a man in the attitude assumed by them, when they begin to dance, executed in a still superiour stile. That the arts of imitation should thus precede in any degree those of necessity, seems to be an exception to the rules laid down in theory for the progress of invention. Though they have made no attempts towards clothing themselves, they are by no means insensible of the cold, and appear very much to dislike the rain. During a shower, they have been observed to cover their heads with pieces of bark, and to shiver exceedingly. Their method of kindling fire is probably very laborious, as they are rarely seen without a fire actually made, or a piece of burning wood which they carry with them from place to place, and even in their canoes. The perpetual fires which in some countries formed a part of the national religion, had perhaps no other origin than a similar inability to produce it at pleasure, and if we suppose the original flame to have been made from lightning, the fiction of its coming down from heaven, will be found to deviate very little from the truth.

In May, 1787, the British government fitted out a Squadron of eleven vessels, with 800 convicts, under the the command of Arthur Phillip, Esq. in order to form a settlement on this Continent. The situation determined upon has been named Port Jackson; south lat. $32^{\circ} 50'$ east lon. from Greenwich, $159^{\circ} 19' 30''$. This place is about 9 miles from Botany Bay, and has a harbour capable of containing 1000 sail of the line in perfect security. A plan of a town has been regularly laid out, and from the latest accounts, the prospect was flattering to the new settlers.

On the first arrival of the English, the natives were found amicable, hospitable, unaccustomed to act with treachery, or to take the least advantage, and every precaution was taken to prevent this harmony from being interrupted; but from some disagreement with individuals, or what is more probable, a dislike of the encroachments on their territories, they appear to avoid any intercourse with their new neighbours.

The

* The reader will find cuts, and a description of a number of these animals and birds, in "The Voyage of Governour Phillip to Botany Bay," published by John Stockdale, London, in 1790.

• The natives, like all other barbarous nations, have some customs peculiar to themselves. Governour Phillip, in the interviews he had with the natives, observed that the women in general had lost two joints from the little finger of their left hands. He was not able to find out the occasion of this mutilation, but noticed that it was confined to the females.*

The men are distinguished in a different manner: Their fingers are not mutilated, but most of them want the right front tooth in the upper jaw. They also have a custom of perforating the cartilage that divides the nostrils, and thrusting through it a long bone or stick.

The women are not treated with much tenderness; and are kept in great subordination by their husbands. They appear to be employed chiefly in the canoes, in which women have frequently been seen with young children at the breast.

The inhabitants are not numerous, and are of a chocolate colour, middle stature, and very active and courageous. Their food is chiefly fish, birds of various kinds, yams, fruit, and the flesh of the Kangaroo, an animal resembling the Opossum, and peculiar to this Continent. Their weapons are spears and lances of different kinds, which they throw with great dexterity. They also use shields of an oblong form, made of bark.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by Captain Cook, to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named *Tierra del Espiritu Santo*. From that time, till Bougainville's voyage in 1768, and Capt. Cook's voyage in the *Endeavour*, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern Continent, called *Terra Australis incognita*. But when Capt. Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the *Resolution*, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of $14^{\circ} 29'$, and $20^{\circ} 4'$ south; and between $169^{\circ} 41'$, and $170^{\circ} 21'$ east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. *Terra del Espiritu Santo*, Mallicolla, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Anra, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Apece, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Porromanga, Ironan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and southwestward of them, lies *NEW CALEDONIA*, a very large island, first discovered by Capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about 37 leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chestnut brown. A few leagues distant are two small islands, called the Islands of Pines, and Botany Island.

NEW

* Patterson, in his *Travels in Africa*, tells us that he met with a tribe of Hottentots near Orange River, all of whom had lost the first joint of their little finger: The reason they gave for cutting it off was, that it was a cure for a particular sickness to which they were subject when young. It would be a curious coincidence should it be discovered that the natives of New Holland do it for any similar reason.

NEW GUINEA,

Till the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Capt. Cook discovered a strait between them which runs northeast, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north east, from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty one, to one hundred and fifty degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and valleys, interspersed with groves of cocoa nut trees, plantains, bread fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South Sea islands. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side the straits.

North of New Guinea, is NEW BRITAIN, which is situated in the 4th degree of south latitude, and $152^{\circ} 19'$ east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary Continent, till Capt. Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, 1767, found that it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa nut trees.

NEW IRELAND

Extends in length, from the north east to the south east, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black, and woolly headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not like them, flat noses and thick lips. Northwestward of New Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by Capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of a very considerable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; but the rest of the cluster received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages already mentioned, another voyage was performed by Capt. Cook and Capt. Clerke, in the Resolution and Discovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland; In this course they discovered two islands, which Capt. Cook called Prince Edward's isles. The largest about 15 leagues in circuit, is in lat. $46^{\circ} 53'$ south, lon. $36^{\circ} 45'$; The other about 9 leagues in circuit, lat. $46^{\circ} 45'$ and long. $38^{\circ} 8'$ E. both barren and almost covered with snow. From thence they proceeded to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society Isles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Isles, which are twelve in number, and are situated between $22^{\circ} 15'$ and $38^{\circ} 53'$ N. lat. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of

the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Society and Friendly Isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. Owhyhee is in circumference about 300 English miles, and the number of inhabitants is computed at 150,000. The others are large and well peopled. The natives are described as of a mild and friendly temper and carriage, and in hospitality to strangers not exceeded by the inhabitants of the Friendly Isles. On the 7th of February, being early in lat. $44^{\circ} 33'$ north, and lon. $235^{\circ} 36'$ east, they saw part of the American continent bearing north east.

Capt. Cook afterwards discovered King George's Sound, which is situated on the north west coast of America, and is extensive; that part of it where the ships under his command anchored, is in lat. $49^{\circ} 36'$ north, and lon. $233^{\circ} 28'$ east. The whole sound is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. $59^{\circ} 54'$ north. The harbour in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalashka, and after their departure from thence still continued to trace the coast. They arrived on the 20th of August 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. lon. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eastward, the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the North; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, Capt. Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, by an act of sudden resentment and fear, rather than from a bad disposition, on the island of Owhyhee, the largest of the Sandwich isles, on the 14th of February 1779; and his death was universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 sec. north. After the death of Capt. Cook, the command devolved on Capt. Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward on the 22d day of August 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.

A NEW
GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places, in the known World, Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations,

Names of Places.	Requines.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Abbeville	Picardy	France	Europe	50°27' N.		1°54' E.	
Aberdeen	Aberdeen	Scotland	Europe	57-22 N.		1-40 W.	
Abo	Finland	Sweden	Europe	60-27 N.		22-18 E.	
Acapulco	Mexico	North	America	17-10 N.	101-20 W.		
Achem	Samatra	East Indies	Asia	5-22 N.		95-29 E.	
Adrianople	Romania	Turkey	Europe	42-00 N.		26-30 E.	
Adriatick sea or Gulf of Venice	Between	Italy and Turkey	Europe				Mediterranean Sea.
Adventure (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	17-05 S.	144-12 W.		
Agde	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-18 N.		3-33 E.	
Agen	Guienne	France	Europe	44-12 N.		0-40 E.	
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies	Atlantic ocean	Europe	49-56 N.		6-41 W.	
Agra	Agra	East India	Asia	25-43 N.		76-49 E.	
Air	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55-30 N.		4-35 W.	
Aix	Provence	France	Europe	43-31 N.		5-31 E.	
Albany	New York	United States	America	42-43 N.		73-30 W.	
Alby	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-55 N.		2-13 E.	
Aleppo	Syria	Turkey	Asia	35-45 N.		37-25 E.	
Alexandretta	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36-35 N.		36-25 E.	
Alexandria	Lower Egypt	Turkey	Africa	31-11 N.		30-21 E.	
ALEXANDRIA	Virginia	United States	America	38-45 N.		77-10 W.	
Algiers	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36-49 N.		2-17 E.	
Amboyna	Amboyna Isle	East India	Asia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.		
Ambrym Isle	South	Pacific ocean	Asia	16-09 S.	163-17 E.		
Amiens	Picardy	France	Europe	49-53 N.		2-22 E.	
AMSTERDAM	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-22 N.		4-49 E.	
Amsterdam	Isle	Pacific ocean	Asia	21-09 S.	174-51 W.		
Ancona	March of Ancona	Italy	Europe	43-37 N.		13-35 E.	
Angra	Tercera Isle	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38-39 N.		27-07 W.	
ANNAPOLIS	Maryland	U. States	America	39-02 N.		76-40 W.	
Antigua (Saint John's town)	Antigua Isle	Carib. sea	N. America	17-04 N.		62-04 W.	
Antioch	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36-30 N.		36-40 E.	
Antwerp	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-13 N.		04-27 E.	
Apæ (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	16-46 S.	163-32 E.		
Archangel	Dwina	Russia	Europe	64-34 N.		38-59 E.	
Archipelago	Islands of Greece	Europe					Mediterranean Sea.
Ascension Isle		South Atlantic	Ocean	7-56 N.	14-27 W.		
Astracan	Astracan	Russia	Asia	46-00 N.		51-00 E.	
Athens	Achaia	Turkey	Europe	38-05 N.		23-57 E.	
Augusta	Georgia	United States	America	33-39 N.		82-9 W.	
St. Augustin	Madagascar	South Indian sea	Africa	23-35 S.		43-13 E.	
Augustine	E. Florida	North	America	29-51 N.		81-40 W.	
Ava	Ava	East India	Asia	20-20 N.		95-30 E.	
Avignon	Provence	France	Europe	43-57 N.		04-53 E.	
Aurora Isle	South	Pacific ocean	Asia	15-28 S.	163-22 E.		

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
BAGDAD	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
BALAZORE	Orixa	East India	Asia	21-20 N.	86-03 E.
BALBEC	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
BALDIVIA	Chili	South	America	39-35 S.	81-10 W.
BALTIC SEA	between	Germ. & Swed.	Europe	Atlantic	Ocean.
BALTIMORE	Maryland	United States	America	39-21 N.	77-48 W.
BARBADA ISLE		Atlantic ocean	N. America	17-49 N.	61-55 W.
BARCELONA	Catalonia	Spain	Europe	41-26 N.	02-18 E.
BASEL	Basil	Switzerland	Europe	47-35 N.	07-34 E.
BAFFETERRE	Guadaloupe	Carib. sea	N. America	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
BAFFORA	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
BALTIA	Corica	Italy	Europe	42-20 N.	09-40 E.
BATAVIA	Java	East India	Asia	06-10 S.	106-56 E.
BATH	Somerfetshire	England	Europe	51-22 N.	02-16 W.
BAY OF BISCAY	Coast of	France	Europe	Atlantic	Ocean.
BAY OF BENGAL	Coast of	India	Asia	Indian	Ocean.
BAYEUX	Normandy	France	Europe	49-18 N.	00-47 E.
BAYONNE	Gascony	France	Europe	43-20 N.	01-35 W.
BELFAST	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-30 N.	06-30 W.
BELGRADE	Servia	Turkey	Europe	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
BENCOLEN	Sumatra	East India	Asia	03-49 S.	102-05 E.
BENDER	Bassarabia	Turkey	Europe	40-40 N.	29-00 E.
BENNINGTON	Vermont	United States	N. America	42-42 N.	74-10 W.
BERLIN	Brandenburg	Germany	Europe	52-32 N.	13-34 E.
BERMUDAS	Bermuda Isles	Atlantic ocean	N. America	32-25 N.	63-23 W.
BERN	Bern	Switzerland	Europe	47-00 N.	07-20 E.
BERWICK	Berwickshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48 N.	01-45 W.
BETHICHEM	Pennsylvania	United States	America	40-37 N.	75-14 W.
BILBOA	Biscay	Spain	Europe	43-26 N.	03-18 W.
BIRMINGHAM	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-30 N.	01-50 W.
BLACK LUXINE SEA	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia		
BOKHARIA	Usbeck	Tartary	Asia	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
BOLABOLA	Isle	Pacific ocean	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47 W.
BOLIGNA	Bolognese	Italy	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
BOLOGNE	Picardy	France	Europe	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
BOLLCHERIFKOI	Siberia	Russia	Asia	52-54 N.	150-42 E.
BOMBAY	Bombay Isle	East India	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
BORROUGHTON	Linlithgowshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48 N.	03-44 W.
BOSTON	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53-10 N.	00-05 E.
BOSTON	Massachusetts	United States	America	42-23 N.	71 W.
BOURBON ISLE	South	Indian ocean	Africa	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
BOURDEAUX	Guicenne	France	Europe	44-50 N.	00-29 W.
BREDA	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-40 N.	04-40 E.
BREMEN	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	53-25 N.	08-20 E.
BRESLAU	Silesia	Bohemia	Europe	51-03 N.	17 E.
BREST	Bretany	France	Europe	48-22 N.	04-25 E.
BRIDGETOWN	Barbadoes	Atlantic ocean	N. America	13-05 N.	58-03 W.
BRISTOL	Somerfetshire	England	Europe	51-33 N.	02-40 W.
BRITISH SEA	Between	Brit. and Germ.	Europe	Atlantic	Ocean
BRUGES	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-16 N.	03-05 E.
BRUNSWICK	Low Saxony	Germany	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
BRUSSELS	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-51 N.	04-26 E.
BUDA	Lower	Hungary	Europe	47-40 N.	10-20 E.
BUENOS AYRES	La Plata	Brasil	S. America	34-35 S.	58-26 E.
BUKARAST	Walachia	Turkey	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
BURLINGTON	Jersey	North	America	40-08 N.	75-00 W.
CAABELLO PORT	Terra Firma	South	America	10-03 N.	67-27 W.
CACHAO	Tonquin	East India	Asia	21-30 N.	105-00 E.
CADIZ	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36-31 N.	6-06 W.
CAEN	Normandy	France	Europe	49-14 N.	0-16 W.
CAGLIARI	Sardinia	Italy	Europe	39-25 N.	9-38 E.
CAHORS	Guicenne	France	Europe	44-26 N.	1-31 E.
CAIRO	Lower	Egypt	Africa	30-02 N.	31-23 E.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Calais	Picardy	France	Europe	50-57 N.	1-55 E.
Caldutta	Bengal	East India	Asia	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
Calao	Peru	South	America	12-01 N.	76-53 W.
Calmar	Smaland	Sweden	Europe	56-40 N.	16-26 E.
Cambray	Cambresis	Netherlands	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
Cambristown	Argyleshire	Scotland	Europe	55-30 N.	5-40 W.
Cambodia	Cambodia	East India	Asia	13-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cambridge	Cambridgeshire	England	Europe	52-12 N.	0-09 E.
Cambridge	Massachusetts	United States	America	42-23 N.	71-07 W.
Canary, N. E.	Canary Isles	Atlantic ocean	Africa	28-13 N.	15-33 W.
Candia [Point	Candia Islands	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23 E.
Candy	Ceylon	Indian ocean	Asia	7-54 N.	79-00 E.
Canfo Port	Nova Scotia	North	America	45-20 N.	60-50 W.
Cantebury	Kent	England	Europe	51-16 N.	1-15 E.
Canton	Canton	China	Asia	23-07 N.	113-07 E.
Cape Clear	Sea	Ireland	Europe	51-18 N.	11-10 W.
— Comorin	On the side of the Gang.	East India	Asia	7-56 N.	78-10 E.
— Finisterre	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42-51 N.	9-12 W.
— Florida	East Florida	North	America	24-57 N.	80-30 W.
— of Good Hope	Hottentots	Caffraria	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
— Horn	Terra del Fuego Island	South	America	55-58 S.	67-21 W.
— St. Vincent	Algarve	Portugal	Europe	37-02 N.	8-57 W.
— Verd		Negroland	Africa	14-45 N.	17-28 W.
Cardigan	Cardiganshire	Wales	Europe	52-10 N.	4-38 W.
Carlskroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	56-20 N.	15-31 E.
Carlisle	Cumberland	England	Europe	54-47 N.	2-35 W.
Carthage Ruins	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36-30 N.	9-00 E.
Carthage	Terra Firma	South	America	10-26 N.	75-21 W.
Carthage	Murcia	Spain	Europe	37-37 N.	1-03 W.
Casan	Casan	Siberia	Asia	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Caspian Sea	Russia	Tartary	Asia		
Cassel	Hesse Cassel	Germany	Europe	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
Castres	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catherine Isle	Atlantic	Ocean	S. America	27-35 S.	49-12 W.
Cattegat	Between	Swed. and Den.	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Cavan	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne	Cayenne Isle	South	America	4-56 N.	52-10 W.
Cette	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-23 N.	3-47 E.
Couta	Fez	Morocco	Africa	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Chalons	Burgundy	France	Europe	46-16 N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagor	Bengal	East India	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
CHARLESTON	South Carolina	United States	America	32-35 N.	79-19 W.
Cheshelton	Massachusetts	United States	America	42-24 N.	70-32 W.
Charlton	Ille	Hudson's Bay	N. America	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres	Orleannois	France	Europe	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg	Normandy	France	Europe	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Chester	Cheshire	England	Europe	53-15 N.	3-00 W.
Christmas Sound	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
St. Christopher's Isle	Caribbean	Sea	N. America	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia	Patro Di S. Petro	Italy	Europe	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles	Atlantic	Ocean	S. America	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont	Auvergne	France	Europe	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar	Alsace	France	Europe	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne	Elce. of Cologne	Germany	Europe	50-55 N.	7-10 E.
Constance	Suabia	Germany	Europe	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
CONSTANTI- NOBLE	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
COPENHAGEN	Zeland Isle	Denmark	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
Corinth	Morea	Turkey	Europe	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
CORK	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23 W.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Coventry	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-25 N.	1-25 W.
Cowes	Isle of Wight	England	Europe	50-45 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow	Little Poland	Poland	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremsmunster	Archduchy of Austria	Germany	Europe	48-03 N.	14-12 E.
Cummin	Ile	N. Pacific Ocean	Asia	31-40 N.	121-09 E.
Curassou	Curassou Isle	West India	America	11-56 N.	68-00 W.
Cusco	Peru	South	America	12-25 S.	78-00 W.
Dacca	Bengal	East India	Asia	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Damascus	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic	Polish Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Dax	Gascony	France	Europe	43-42 N.	0-58 W.
Delft	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-06 N.	4-05 E.
Delhi	Delhi	East India	Asia	29-00 N.	76-20 E.
Derbent	Daghistan	Persia	Asia	41-41 N.	50-30 E.
Derby	Derbyshire	England	Europe	52-48 N.	1-30 W.
Derry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	55-40 N.	7-40 W.
Dieppe	Normandy	France	Europe	49-55 N.	0-59 E.
Dieu	Guzerat	East India	Asia	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
Dijon	Burgundy	France	Europe	47-19 N.	4-57 E.
Dilbengen	Suabia	Germany	Europe	48-30 N.	10-19 E.
Dol	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-33 N.	1-41 W.
Dominique	Windward Iles	West India	America	15-18 N.	61-22 W.
DOVER	Kent	England	Europe	51-07 N.	1-13 E.
Dover	Delaware	United States	America	39-10 N.	75-34 W.
DRESDEN	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-00 N.	13-36 E.
Dreux	Orleanois	France	Europe	48-44 N.	1-16 E.
DUBLIN	Leinster	Ireland	Europe	53-21 N.	6-01 W.
Dumbarton	Dumbartonshire	Scotland	Europe	55-44 N.	4-20 W.
Dumfries	Dumfrieshire	Scotland	Europe	55-08 N.	3-25 W.
Dunbar	Haddington	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.	2-25 W.
Dundee	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56-26 N.	2-48 W.
Dungeness	Kent	England	Europe	50-52 N.	1-04 E.
Dunkirk	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-02 N.	2-27 E.
Durham	Durham	England	Europe	54-48 N.	1-25 W.
Eaooe Isle	Pacific Ocean	Ocean	Asia	21-24 S.	174-25 W.
Easter Isle	Pacific Ocean	Ocean	America	27-06 S.	109-41 W.
Eastern Ocean	betw. the n. w. of N. Carolina	N. America and United States	N. E. of Asia	N. Pacific ocean.	
Edenton	N. Carolina	United States	America	36-04 N.	77-00 W.
Edinburgh	Edinburghshire	Scotland	Europe	55-57 N.	3-17 W.
Edystone	Eng. Channel	England	Europe	50-08 N.	4-29 W.
Elbing	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-11 N.	20-00 E.
Emden	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	53-25 N.	7-10 E.
Enatum Isle	Pacific Ocean	Ocean	Asia	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
Enebrun	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-34 N.	5-21 E.
English Channel	between Eng. and France	Eng. and France	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ephesus	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38-01 N.	27-30 E.
Erramanga Isle	Pacific Ocean	Ocean	Asia	18-46 S.	169-23 E.
Erzerum	Turcomania	Turkey	Asia	39-56 N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea	Coast of Guinea	Guinea	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Evreux	Normandy	France	Europe	49-01 N.	1-13 E.
Eustatia Town	Carib. sea	West India	N. America	17-29 N.	63-05 W.
Exeter	Devonshire	England	Europe	50-44 N.	3-29 W.
Falkirk	Sterling	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.	3-48 W.
Falmouth	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
Fayal Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-32 N.	28-36 W.
Ferdinand Na-ronka	Brazil	Brazil	S. America	3-55 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara	Ferrarese	Italy	Europe	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
Ferrol	Galicia	Spain	Europe	43-30 N.	8-40 W.
Fez	Fez	Morocco	Africa	33-30 N.	6-00 W.
Florence	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43-46 N.	11-07 E.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Flores	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	39-34 N.		30-51 W.	
St. Flour	Auvergne	France	Europe	45-01 N.		3-10 E.	
Fort St. David	Coromandel	East India	Asia	12-05 N.		80-55 E.	
France (Isle of)	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20-09 S.		57-33 E.	
Francfort on the Main	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49-55 N.		8-40 E.	
Trarwburg	Polish	Prussia	Europe	54-22 N.		20-12 E.	
Trigo Ile	Cape Verd	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	14-56 N.		24-23 W.	
Funchal	Madeira	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	32-37 N.		17-01 W.	
Furneaux Isle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	17-11 S.		143-01 W.	
G Ap	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-33 N.		6-09 E.	
GENEVA	Geneva	Switzerland	Europe	46-12 N.		6-05 E.	
GENOA	Genoa	Italy	Europe	44-25 N.		8-30 E.	
GENES	Savoy	Italy	Europe	44-25 N.		8-40 E.	
St. George's Isle	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-39 N.		27-55 W.	
St. George's Port	Coromandel	East India	Asia	13-04 N.		80-33 E.	
St. George's Town	Bermudas	Atlantic Ocean	N. America	32-45 N.		63-30 W.	
Ghent	Flaners	Netherlands	Europe	51-03 N.		3-48 E.	
Gibraltar	Andaluna	Spain	Europe	36-05 N.		5-17 W.	
Glasgow	Lanerkshire	Scotland	Europe	55-51 N.		4-10 W.	
Gloucester	Gloucestershire	England	Europe	51-05 N.		2-16 W.	
Goa	Malabar	East India	Asia	15-31 N.		73-50 E.	
Goat Isle	Indian	Ocean	Asia	13-55 N.		120-07 E.	
Gombroon	Faristan	Persia	Asia	27-30 N.		74-20 E.	
Gomera Isle	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-05 N.		17-03 W.	
Good Hope	Hottentots	Caffres	Africa	33-55 S.		18-28 E.	
— Town							
Goree	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	14-40 N.		17-20 W.	
Gottenburg	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	57-42 N.		11-43 E.	
Gottengen	Hanover	Germany	Europe	51-31 N.		9-58 E.	
Granville	Normandy	France	Europe	48-50 N.		1-32 W.	
Gratiosa	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	39-02 N.		27-53 W.	
Grata	Stiria	Germany	Europe	47-04 N.		15-29 E.	
Gravelines	Fr. Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-59 N.		2-13 E.	
Greenock	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55-52 N.		4-22 W.	
Gryphswald	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54-04 N.		13-43 E.	
Gaudaloupe	Caribbean	Sea	N. America	15-59 N.		61-54 W.	
Guam	Ladronc Isles	East India	Asia	14-00 N.		140-30 E.	
Gulf of Bothnia	Coast of	Sweden	Europe			Baltic Sea	
— of California	between	California and Mexico	N. America			Pacific Ocean.	
— of Finland	between	Sweden & Ruffia	Europe			Baltic Sea.	
— of St. Laurence	Coast of	New Scotland	N. America			Atlantic Ocean.	
— of Mexico	Coast of	Mexico	N. America			Atlantic Ocean.	
— of Ormus	between	Persia & Arabia	Asia			Indian Ocean.	
— of Persia	between	Persia & Arabia	Asia			Indian Ocean.	
— of Venice	between	Italy & Turkey	Europe			Mediterranean Sea.	
H AERLEM	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-20 N.		4-10 E.	
HAGUE	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-04 N.		4-22 E.	
Hamburg	Holstein	Germany	Europe	53-34 N.		9-55 E.	
Halifax	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-45 N.		1-52 W.	
HALIFAX	Nova Scotia	North America	America	44-40 N.		63-15 W.	
Hanover	Saxony	Germany	Europe	52-32 N.		9-35 E.	
Hartford	Connecticut	United States	America	41-50 N.		72-50 W.	
Hastings	Suffex	England	Europe	50-52 N.		04-06 E.	
Havannah	Cuba	Island	N. America	23-11 N.		82-13 W.	
Havre de Grace	Normandy	France	Europe	49-29 N.		0-10 E.	
La Heefe	Dutch Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-25 N.		4-50 E.	
St. Helena (Ja. Town)	South	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15-55 S.		5-44 W.	
Hellefont	Mediterranean and Black Sea	Europe and	Asia				
Hernofand	W. Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	62-38 N.		17-58 E.	

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Hereford	Herefordshire	England	Europe	52-06 N.		2-38 W.	
Hervey's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-17 S.		158-24 W.	
Hoai Nagham	Kian Nan	China	Asia	33-34 N.		118-54 E.	
La Hogue Cape	Normandy	France	Europe	43-44 N.		1-51 W.	
Hood's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	9-26 S.		138-47 W.	
Hoogstraten	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-24 N.		4-52 E.	
Howe's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-46 S.		154-04 W.	
Huabine Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-44 S.		151-01 W.	
Hudson's Bay	Coast of	Labrador	N. America			N. Atlantic Ocean.	
Hull	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-45 N.		0-12 W.	
Jakutskoi	Siberia	Russia	Europe	62-01 N.		129-52 E.	
Janeiro (Rio)		Brazil	S. America	22-54 S.		42-38 W.	
Jaffay	Moldavia	Turkey	Europe	47-08 N.		27-34 E.	
Java Head	Java	East India	Asia	6-49 S.		106-33 E.	
Jeddo	Japan	East India	Asia	35-20 N.		39-00 E.	
Jerusalem	Palestine	Turkey	Asia	31-52 N.		35-05 E.	
Immer Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	3-16 S.		169-51 E.	
Indian Ocean		Coast of India	Asia				
Ingoldstadt	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-45 N.		11-27 E.	
Inverness	Invernesshire	Scotland	Europe	57-33 N.		4-02 W.	
St. John's Town	Antigua	Leeward Isles	N. America	17-04 N.		62-04 E.	
St. John's Town	Newfoundland	North	America	47-32 N.		52-21 W.	
St. Joseph's	California	Mexico	N. America	23-03 N.		109-37 W.	
Irish Sea between	Great Britain and	Ireland, Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.				
Iraname Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-31 S.		170-26 E.	
Ilamabad	Bengal	East India	Asia	22-20 N.		91-50 E.	
Isle of Pines	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-38 S.		167-43 E.	
ISPAHAN	Irac Agem	Perfia	Asia	32-25 N.		52-55 E.	
Isthmus of Suez	joins Africa to Asia.						
— of Corinth,	joins the Morea to Greece,	Europe.					
— of Panama,	joins North and South America.						
— of Malacca,	joins Malacca to Farther India,	Asia.					
Ivica Isle	Mediterr. Sea	Italy	Europe	38-50 N.		1-40 E.	
Judda	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21-29 N.		49-27 E.	
Juthia	Siam	East India	Asia	14-18 N.		100-55 E.	
Kamtschatka	Siberia	Russia	Asia	57-10 N.		163-00 E.	
Kedgere	Bengal	East India	Asia	21-48 N.		88-55 E.	
Kelfo	Roxboro' shire	Scotland	Europe	55-38 N.		02-12 W.	
Kilmarnock	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55-38 N.		04-30 W.	
Kingfale	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51-32 N.		08-20 W.	
KINGSTON	Jamaica	West India	America	18-15 N.		76-38 W.	
Kiow	Ukraine	Russia	Europe	50-30 N.		31-12 E.	
Kola	Lapland	Russia	Europe	68-52 N.		33-13 E.	
Koningsberg	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-43 N.		19-35 E.	
Laguna	Teneriffe	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	28-28 N.		16-13 W.	
Lahor	Lahor	East India	Asia	32-40 N.		75-30 E.	
Lancaster	Lancashire	England	Europe	54-05 N.		02-55 E.	
Lancaster	Pennsylvania	United States	America	40-02 N.		76-20 W.	
Landau	Alsace	France	Europe	49-11 N.		08-02 E.	
Landcroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	55-52 N.		12-51 E.	
Laufanne	Canton of Vaud	Switzerland	Europe	46-31 N.		06-50 E.	
Leeds	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-48 N.		01-29 W.	
Leicester	Leicestershire	England	Europe	52-38 N.		01-03 W.	
Leipsic	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-19 N.		12-25 E.	
Leith	Edinburghshire	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.		03-00 W.	
Leper's Island	S. Pacific	Ocean	Asia	15-23 S.		168-03 E.	
Leopard	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-26 N.		04-36 W.	
Letparre	Guicne	France	Europe	45-18 N.		00-52 W.	
Levant Sea	Coast of	Syria	Asia			Mediterranean Sea.	
LEXINGTON	Kentucky	United States	America	38-25 N.		85 9 W.	
Leyden	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-10 N.		04-32 E.	
Liege	Bishop. of Liege	Netherlands	Europe	50-37 N.		05-40 E.	

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Lima	Peru	South	America	12-01 S.	76-44 W.		
Limerick	Munster	Ireland	Europe	52-35 N.	08-48 W.		
Limoges	Limoges	France	Europe	45-49 N.	01-20 E.		
Lincoln	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53-15 N.	00-27 W.		
Linlithgow	Linlithgowshire	Scotland	Europe	55-56 E.	03-30 W.		
Linz	Austria	Germany	Europe	48-16 N.	13-57 E.		
Lisbon	Estremadura	Portugal	Europe	38-42 N.	09-04 W.		
Lille	French Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-37 N.	03-09 E.		
Litchfield	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52-43 N.	01-04 W.		
Lizard Point	Cornwall	England	Europe	49-57 N.	05-10 W.		
LONDON	Middlesex	England	Europe	51-31 N.	1st Meridian		
Londonderry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	50-00 N.	07-40 W.		
Loretto	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	43-15 N.	14-15 E.		
Louisa	Cape Breton Isle	North	America	45-53 N.	59-48 W.		
Louvain	Austrian Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-53 N.	04-49 E.		
Louveau	Siam	East India	Asia	12-42 N.	100-56 E.		
Lubeck	Holstein	Germany	Europe	54-00 N.	11-40 E.		
St. Lucia Isle	Windward Isles	West India	N. America	13-24 N.	60-46 W.		
Lunden	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	55-41 N.	13-26 E.		
Luneville	Lorraine	France	Europe	48-35 N.	06-35 E.		
Luxemburg	Luxemburg	Netherlands	Europe	49-37 N.	06-16 E.		
Lyons	France	France	Europe	45-45 N.	04-54 E.		
MACAO	Canton	China	Asia	22-12 N.	113-51 E.		
Macassar	Celebes Isle	East India	Asia	05-09 S.	119-53 E.		
Madeira Funchal	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.		
Madras	Coromandel	East India	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.		
MADRID	New Castile	Spain	Europe	40-25 N.	03-20 W.		
Magdalena Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	10-25 S.	138-44 W.		
Mahon Port	Minorca	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39-50 N.	03-53 E.		
Majorca	Isle	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39-35 N.	02-34 E.		
Malacca	Malacca	East India	Asia	02-12 N.	102-10 E.		
Malines	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-01 N.	04-33 E.		
Malicola (Isle)	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-15 N.	167-44 E.		
St. Maloes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-38 N.	01-53 W.		
Malta Isle	Mediterranean	Sea	Africa	35-54 N.	14-33 E.		
Manilla	Luconia Philip. Isles	East India	Asia	14-36 N.	120-58 E.		
MANTUA	Mantua	Italy	Europe	45-20 N.	10-47 E.		
Marpealante	Atlantic	Ocean	S. America	15-55 N.	61-06 W.		
MARSETTA	N. W. Territory	United States	America	39-34 N.	81-40 W.		
Marailles	Provence	France	Europe	43-17 N.	05-27 E.		
St. Martha	St. Martha	Terra Firma	America	11-26 N.	73-59 W.		
St. Martin's Isle	Caribbean Isles	West India	America	18-04 N.	62-57 W.		
Martinico Isle	Caribbean Isles	West India	America	14-44 N.	61-16 W.		
St. Mary's Isle	Scilly Isles	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49-57 N.	06-38 W.		
St. Mary's Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	36-56 N.	25-04 W.		
Malkelyne Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-32 S.	168-04 E.		
Mauritius	India	Ocean	Africa	20-09 S.	57-34 E.		
Maurua Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-25 S.	152-37 E.		
Mayence	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-54 N.	08-25 E.		
Mayo Isle	Cape Verd	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15-10 N.	23-00 W.		
Meaux	Champagne	France	Europe	48-57 N.	03-57 E.		
Mecca	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21-45 N.	41-00 E.		
Medina	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	25-00 N.	39-53 E.		
Mediterr. Sea	Between	Europe and	Africa	Atlantic Ocean			
Mequinez	Fez	Barbary	Africa	34-30 N.	06-00 E.		
MESSINA	Scilly Island	Italy	Europe	38-30 N.	15-40 E.		
Mergui	Siam	East India	Asia	12-12 N.	98-13 E.		
Mexico	Mexico	North	America	19-54 N.	100-00 W.		
Miateca Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 W.		
St. Michael's	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	37-47 N.	25-37 W.		
Middleburg Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	21-20 S.	174-29 W.		
MILAN	Milanese	Italy	Europe	45-25 N.	09-30 E.		

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Milford Haven	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51-45 N.	05-15 W.
Mocha	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	13-40 N.	43-50 E.
MODENA	Modena	Italy	Europe	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montreal	Canada	North	America	45-35 N.	73-11 W.
Montpelier	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-36 N.	03-37 E.
Montague Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-26 S.	168-36 E.
Montrose	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56-34 N.	02-22 W.
Monferrat Isle	Caribbean Isles	West India	America	16-47 N.	62-12 W.
MOROCCO	Morocco	Barbary	Africa	30-32 N.	06-10 W.
Moscow	Moscow	Russia	Europe	55-45 N.	37-50 E.
Munich	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-09 N.	11-35 E.
Munster	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	52-00 N.	07-10 E.
NAmur	Namur	Netherlands	Europe	50-28 N.	04-49 E.
Nancy	Lorraine	France	Europe	48-41 N.	06-11 E.
Nangafachi	Japan	N. Pacific Ocean	Asia	32-32 N.	138-51 E.
Nanking	Kiangnan	China	Asia	32-11 N.	118-30 E.
Nantes	Bretagne	France	Europe	47-13 N.	01-28 W.
Naples	Naples	Italy	Europe	40-50 N.	14-18 E.
Narva	Livonia	Russia	Europe	59-00 N.	27-35 E.
NEW HAVEN	Connecticut	United States	America	41-19 N.	73-09 W.
NEW YORK	New York	United States	America	40-40 N.	74-00 W.
Newcastle	Northumberland	England	Europe	55-03 N.	01-24 W.
Newport	Rhode Island	United States	America	41-35 N.	71-06 W.
Nice	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	43-41 N.	07-22 E.
St. Nicholas Mole	Hifpaniola	West India	America	19-49 N.	73-24 W.
Nieuport	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-07 N.	02-50 E.
Nineveh	Curdistan	Turkey	Asia	36-00 N.	45-00 E.
Ningpo	Chekiang	China	Asia	29-57 N.	120-23 E.
Norfolk Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	29-01 S.	168-15 E.
Norfolk	Virginia	United States	America	36-55 N.	01-20 W.
Noriton	Pennsylvania	North	America	40-09 N.	75-18 W.
North Cape	Wardhus	Lapland	Europe	71-10 N.	26-02 E.
Northampton	Northamptonsh.	England	Europe	52-15 N.	00-55 W.
Norwich	Norfolk	England	Europe	52-40 N.	01-25 E.
Nuremberg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49-27 N.	11-12 E.
Nottingham	Nottinghamsh.	England	Europe	53-00 N.	01-06 W.
O Chotskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	09-40 S.	138-56 W.
Ohitahoo Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	09-55 S.	139-01 W.
Oleron	Saintonge	France	Europe	46-00 N.	01-20 W.
Olinde	Brasil	South	America	08-13 S.	35-00 W.
Olmutz	Moravia	Bohemia	Europe	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
Olympia	Greece	Turkey	Europe	37-30 N.	22-00 E.
St. Omer's	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-44 N.	02-19 E.
Onateayo Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	09-58 S.	138-46 W.
Oporto	Duoro	Portugal	Europe	41-10 N.	08-22 W.
Oran	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36-30 N.	00-05 E.
Orenburg	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
L'Orient (Port)	Bretagne	France	Europe	47-45 N.	03-20 W.
Orleans	Orleannois	France	Europe	47-54 N.	01-59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louifiana	North	America	29-57 N.	89-53 W.
Ormus	Ormicos Isle	Persia	Asia	26-50 N.	57-00 E.
Orotava	Teneriffe	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-23 N.	16-19 W.
Ork	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51-12 N.	58-37 E.
Ofnaburg Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Oftend	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-13 N.	03-00 E.
Otahcite	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-29 S.	149-35 W.
Owhyee	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-10 S.	199-00 E.
Oxford Obfer- vatory	Oxfordshire	England	Europe	51-45 N.	01-10 W.
Pacific or O- riental Ocean	Between	Asia and	America		

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Nadua	Paduano	Italy	Europe	45-22 N.		12-00 E.	
Padley	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48 N.		04-08 W.	
Palermo	Sicily Ifle	Italy	Europe	38-30 N.		13-43 E.	
Palliser's Ifles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15-38 S.		146-25 W.	
Palma Ifle	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-36 N.		17-45 W.	
Palmerston's Ifle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	18-00 S.		162-52 W.	
Palmyna	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-00 N.		39-00 E.	
Panamá	Darien	Terra Firma	S. America	08-47 N.		80-16 W.	
Paoom Ifle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-30 S.		163-33 E.	
PARIS (Observ.)	Ifle of France	France	Europe	48-50 N.		2-25 E.	
Parma	Parmafan	Italy	Europe	44-45 N.		10-51 E.	
Patna	Bengal	East India	Asia	25-45 N.		83-00 E.	
Patrixford	Iceland	N. Atlan. Ocean	Europe	65-35 N.		14-05 W.	
Pat.	Bearn	France	Europe	43-15 N.		0-04 W.	
St. Paul's Ifle	South	Indian Ocean	Africa	37-51 S.		77-53 E.	
Pegu	Pegu	East India	Asia	17-00 N.		97-00 E.	
Peking	Pekchili	China	Asia	39-54 N.		116-29 E.	
Pelew Ifland	North	Pacific Ocean	Asia	7-00 N.		135-00 E.	
Pembroke	Pembrokeshir	Wales	Europe	51-45 N.		4-50 W.	
PENSACOLA	West Florida	North	America	30-22 N.		87-20 W.	
Penzance	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-08 N.		6-00 W.	
Perigueux	Guienne	France	Europe	45-11 N.		0-48 E.	
Perinaldi	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43-53 N.		7-45 E.	
Perth	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56-22 N.		3-12 W.	
Perth Amboy	New Jersey	United States	America	40-30 N.		74-20 W.	
Persepolis	Trac Agem	Perfia	Asia	30-30 N.		54-00 E.	
St. Peter's Fort	Martinico	W. India	N. America	14-44 N.		61-16 W.	
St. Peter's Ifle	North	Atlantic Ocean	America	46-46 N.		56-12 W.	
PETERSBURG	Ingria	Ruffia	Europe	59-56 N.		30-24 E.	
Petropawlofskoi	Kamifchatka	Ruffia	Asia	53-01 N.		158-45 E.	
PHILADELPHIA	Pennfylvania	United States	America	39-56 N.		75-09 W.	
St. Philip's Fort	Minorca	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39-50 N.		3-53 E.	
Pickerfign Ifle	South	Atlantic Ocean	America	54-42 S.		36-53 W.	
Pico	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-28 N.		28-21 W.	
Pines, Ifle of	N. Caledonia	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-38 S.		167-43 E.	
Pifa	Tufcany	Italy	Europe	43-43 N.		10-17 E.	
Placentia	Newfoundl. Ifle	North	America	47-26 N.		55-00 W.	
Plymouth	Devonshire	England	Europe	50-22 N.		4-10 W.	
Plymouth	Massachusetts	United States	America	41-48 N.		70-25 W.	
Pollingen	Swabia	Germany	Europe	47-48 N.		10-48 E.	
Poncherry	Coromandel	East India	Asia	11-41 N.		79-57 E.	
Ponoí	Lapland	Ruffia	Europe	67-06 N.		36-28 E.	
Porto Bello	Terra Firma	South	America	09-33 N.		79-45 W.	
Port Sancto Ifle	Madeira	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	32-58 N.		16-20 W.	
Port Royal	Jamaica	West India	America	18-00 N.		76-40 W.	
Port Royal	Martinico	West India	America	14-35 N.		61-04 W.	
Portland Ifle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	39-25 S.		178-17 E.	
Portland Ifle	North	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	63-22 N.		18-49 W.	
Portfmo. Town	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-47 N.		01-01 W.	
— Academy	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-48 N.		1-01 W.	
Portfmouth	New Hampshire	United States	America	43-03 N.		70-43 W.	
Potofi	Peru	South	America	21-00 S.		77-00 W.	
Prague		Bohemia	Europe	50-04 N.		14-50 E.	
Prefburg	Upper	Hungary	Europe	48-20 N.		17-30 W.	
Prefton	Lancashire	England	Europe	53-45 N.		2-50 W.	
Prince of Wales Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47 N.		94-02 W.	
Providence	Rhode Ifland	United States	America	41-55 N.		71-21 W.	
Pulo Candor Ifle	Indian Ocean	East India	Asia	8-20 N.		107-25 E.	
Pulo Timor Ifle	Gulf of Siam	East India	Asia	3-00 N.		104-30 E.	
Pyleftaart Ifle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-23 S.		175-36 W.	
Q. Uebec	Lower Canada	North	America	46-55 N.		69-48 W.	
Q. Queen	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	10-11 S.		164-35 E.	
Charlotte's Ifles							

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
St. Quintin	Picardy	France	Europe	49-50 N.	3-22 E.
Quito	Peru	South	America	0-13 S.	77-50 W.
R Agufa	Dalmatia	Venice	Europe	42-45 N.	12-05 E.
Ramhead	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-18 N.	4-15 W.
Ratibon	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-56 N.	12-05 E.
Re Isle	Aunis	France	Europe	46-14 N.	1-29 W.
Recif	Brazil	South	America	8-10 S.	35-36 W.
Resolution Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-23 S.	140-40 W.
Rheims	Champagne	France	Europe	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes	Rhode Island	Levant sea	Asia	36-20 N.	28-00 E.
RICHMOND	Virginia	United States	America	37-40 N.	77-50 W.
Riga	Livonia	Russia	Europe	50-55 N.	24-00 E.
Rimini	Romagna	Italy	Europe	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
Rennes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
Rochelle	Aunis	France	Europe	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
Rochfort	Saintonge	France	Europe	46-02 N.	0-53 W.
Rock of Lisbon	Mouth of Tagus	Portugal	Europe	38-50 N.	9-30 W.
	River				
Rodez	Guicnac	France	Europe	44-21 N.	2-39 E.
Rodrigues Isle	South	Indian Ocean	America	10-40 N.	63-15 E.
Rome, St. Peter's	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	41-53 N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51-56 N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	20-16 N.	174-25 W.
Rouen	Normandy	France	Europe	49-26 N.	1-00 W.
S Aba Isle	Carib, sea	West India	America	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
Sagan	Silesia	Germany	Europe	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
St. Augustine	East Florida	North	America	29-45 N.	81-12 W.
St. Domingo	Carib, sea	West India	America	18-20 N.	70-20 W.
St. George's	Between	England and Ireland	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Channel					
St. Jago	Chili	South	America	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
St. Juan	California	North	America	26-25 N.	114-09 W.
St. Salvador	Brazil	South	America	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
Salem	Massachusetts	United States	America	42-35 N.	70-52 W.
Salisbury	Wiltshire	England	Europe	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
Sall Isle	North	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	16-38 N.	22-51 W.
Salonichi	Macedonia	Turkey	Europe	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Isles	North	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	30-00 N.	15-49 W.
Samana	Hispaniola	West India	America	19-15 N.	69-11 W.
Samarcand	Ufbec	Tartary	Asia	40-40 N.	69-00 E.
Samaria Ruins	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	32-40 N.	38-00 E.
Sandwich Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-41 S.	168-38 W.
Santa Cruz	Teneriffe	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
Santa Fee	New Mexico	North	America	36-00 N.	104-00 W.
Savage Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-02 S.	169-25 W.
SAVANNAH	Georgia	United States	America	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
Saunder's Isle	South Georgia	S. Atlantic Ocean	S. America	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
Sayd, or Thebes	Upper	Egypt	Africa	27-00 N.	32-20 E.
Scarborough	Yorkshire	England	Europe	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
Schwezingen	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
Stone	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
Sea of Afoph	Little Tartary	Europe and Asia	Asia		Black sea.
— Marmora	Turkey in	Europe and Asia	Asia		
— Ochotk	Between	Siberia, and Kamtschatka, Asia,	Asia		N. Pacific Ocean.
— Yellow	Between Eastern	Tartary, China and Corea	Asia		N. Pacific Ocean.
Sedan	Champagne	France	Europe	49-42 N.	5-02 E.
Senegal		Negroland	Africa	15-53 N.	16-26 W.
Seville	Andalufia	Spain	Europe	37-15 N.	6-05 W.
Sheerness	Kent	England	Europe	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Shepherd's Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-58 S.	168-47 E.
Shields (South)	Durham	England	Europe	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Shrewsbury	Shropshire	England	Europe	52-43 N.	2-46 W.
Siam	Siam	East India	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>
				<i>D. M.</i>	<i>D. M.</i>
Sidon	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Singon	Chensi	China	Asia	34-16 N.	108-48 E.
Siberon	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-11 N.	6-01 E.
Smyrna	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Sombavera Isles	Carib. sea	West India	N. America	18-38 N.	63-32 W.
Soolo Isle	Philip. Isles	East India	Asia	5-57 N.	121-20 E.
Southampton	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Spaw	Leige	Germany	Europe	50-30 N.	5-40 E.
Stafford	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52-50 N.	2-00 W.
Stockholm	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59-20 N.	18-08 E.
Sterling	Sterlingshire	Scotland	Europe	56-10 N.	3-50 W.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
— of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
— of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
— of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
— of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego, and Patagonia, South America.					
— of La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Ocean.					
— of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
— of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
— of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Stralsund	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54-23 N.	13-22 E.
Strasbourg	Alsace	France	Europe	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Stramnefs	Iceland	N. Atlant. Ocean	Europe	65-39 N.	24-24 W.
Suez	Suez	Egypt	Africa	29-50 N.	33-27 E.
Sultz	Lorraine	France	Europe	47-53 N.	7-09 W.
Sunderland	Durham	England	Europe	54-55 N.	1-10 W.
Surat	Guzurat	East India	Asia	21-10 N.	72-27 E.
Surinam	Surinam	South America	America	6-00 N.	55-30 W.
Syracuse	Sicily Isle	Italy	Europe	36-38 N.	15-05 E.
T able Island	New Hebrides	South Pacific	Asia	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Tanjour	Tanjour	East India	Asia	11-27 N.	79-07 E.
Tanna	South Pacific Ocean	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-32 S.	169-46 E.
Taoukaa Isle	South Pacific Ocean	Pacific Ocean	Asia	14-30 S.	145-04 W.
Tauris	Aderbeitzan	Persia	Asia	38-20 N.	46-30 E.
Tellis	Georgia	Persia	Asia	43-30 N.	47-00 E.
Temontengis	Soloo	East India	Asia	5-57 N.	120-28 E.
Teneriffe Peak	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-12 N.	16-24 W.
Tercera	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-45 N.	27-01 W.
Teruah	Fez	Barbary	Africa	35-40 N.	5-18 W.
St. Thomas's Isle	Virgin Isles	West India	America	18-21 N.	64-46 W.
Thorn	Regal Prussia	Poland	Europe	52-56 N.	19-00 W.
Timor, S.W. Poi.		East India	Asia	10-23 S.	124-04 E.
Timorland S. Po.		East India	Asia	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
Tobolski	Siberia	Russia	Asia	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Toledo	New Castile	Spain	Europe	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tomsk	Siberia	Russia	Asia	56-29 N.	85-04 E.
Tonga Tabu Isle	South Pacific Ocean	Pacific Ocean	Asia	21-09 S.	174-41 W.
Tornea	Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	65-50 N.	24-17 E.
Toulon	Provence	France	Europe	43-07 N.	6-01 E.
Trapefond	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent	Trent	Germany	Europe	46-05 N.	11-02 E.
Trenton	New Jersey	United States	America	40-15 N.	74-15 W.
Tripoli	Tripoli	Barbary	Africa	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli	Syria	Turkey	Asia	34-30 N.	36-15 E.
Troy Ruins	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	39-30 N.	26-30 E.
Tunis	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36-47 N.	10-00 E.
Turin	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	45-05 N.	7-45 E.
Turtle Isle	South Pacific Ocean	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02 W.
Tyre	Paletine	Turkey	Asia	30-32 N.	36-00 E.
Tyrnaw	Trentschin	Hungary	Europe	48-23 N.	17-38 E.
U liatea	South Pacific Ocean	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-45 S.	151-26 W.
Uplal	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59-61 N.	17-47 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Uraniberg	Huen Isle	Denmark	Europe	55-54 N.	12-57 E.
Ushant Isle	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-28 N.	4-59 W.
Utrecht	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-07 N.	5-00 E.
Venice	Venice	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz	Mexico	North	America	19-12 N.	97-25 W.
VERNON, Mount	Virginia	United States	America	38-40 N.	77-20 W.
Verona	Verohese	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Verlailles	Isle of France	France	Europe	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
VIENNA, Obser.	Austria	Germany	Europe	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo	Galicía	Spain	Europe	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Vintimiglia	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43-53 N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda	Virgin Isles	West India	America	18-18 N.	63-59 W.
WAKEFIELD	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-42 N.	1-28 W.
Wales' Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47 N.	94-01 W.
Wardhus	Norwegian Lapland	Lapland	Europe	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warsaw	Maffovia	Poland	Europe	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Warwick	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
WASHINGTON	Columb. District	United States	America	38-54 N.	77-09 W.
Waterford	Munster	Ireland	Europe	52-12 N.	7-16 W.
Wells	Somerleshire	England	Europe	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Westman Isles	North	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitehaven	Cumberland	England	Europe	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Whitfuntide Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Williamsburg	Virginia	United States	America	37-12 N.	76-48 W.
Willis's Isles	South Georgia	Atlantic Ocean	America	54-00 S.	38-24 W.
Winchester	Hampshire	England	Europe	51-06 N.	1-15 W.
Wilna	Lithuania	Poland	Europe	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Wittenburg	Upper Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wologda	Wologda	Russia	Europe	59-19 N.	41-50 E.
Worcester	Worcestershire	England	Europe	52-09 N.	1-55 W.
Worcester	Massachusetts	United States	America	42-23 N.	71-44 W.
Worms	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-38 N.	8-05 E.
Wollak		Russia	Europe	61-15 N.	
Wurtzburg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
YARMOUTH	Norfolk	England	Europe	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-59 N.	1-01 W.
Yorkminster	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55-26 N.	70-03 W.
Greenwich Observ.	Kent, England,	Europe,	51° 23' 40" N. 0° 5' 37" E. of St. Paul's,		London.



AN IMPROVED
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE,
 OF
 REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS;
 Comprehending, in one view, the ANALYSIS OF OUTLINES OF GENERAL
 HISTORY, from the CREATION to the present TIME.

- ♦♦♦♦♦—
- Bef. Ann.
 4004 THE creation of the world, and of Adam and Eve.
 4003 The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman.
 3017 Enoch translated into heaven.
 2348 The old world destroyed by a deluge which continued 377 days.
 2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity; upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.
 2234 Celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.
 2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years, to the conquest of Cambyfes.
 2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years.
 1921 The covenant of God made with Abraham, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.
 1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness by fire from heaven.
 1856 The kingdom of Argos in Greece begins under Inachus.
 1822 Memnon the Egyptian invents the letters.
 1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flints.
 1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.
 1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high priest of the Israelites.
 1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter.
 1566 Cecrops brings a colony of Saïtes from Egypt, into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens in Greece.
 1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.
 1503 Deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.
 1498 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children, which completed the 430 years of sojourning.
 1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
 1453 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
 1452 The Pentateuch, or five first books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died the year following, aged 110 years.
 1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives; and the period of the sabbatical year commences.
 1263 Argonautic expedition.
 1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave rise to the Trojan war, and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burned.

534 AN IMPROVED CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

534
Bef. Christ.

- 1048 David is sole King of Israel.
 1004 The Temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
 896 Elijah, the prophet, is translated to heaven.
 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by Queen Dido.
 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
 776 The first Olympiad begins.
 753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, first King of the Romans.
 720 Samaria taken, after three years siege, and the kingdom of Israel overthrown by Salmanaser King of Assyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
 The first eclipse of the moon on record.
 648 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
 604 By order of Necho, King of Egypt, some Phœnicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
 600 Thales of Miletus travels into Egypt, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, and gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that one Supreme Intelligence regulates all its motions.
 Maps, globes, and signs of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
 597 Jehoiakin, King of Judah, is carried away captive by Nebuchadnezzar to Babylon.
 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.
 562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
 559 Cyrus the first King of Persia.
 538 The kingdom of Babylon destroyed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issued an edict for the return of the Jews.
 534 The first tragedy acted at Athens, on a waggon, by *Thespis*.
 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a publick library first founded.
 516 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
 509 Tarquin the seventh and last King of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, until the battle of Pharsalia, 461 years.
 504 Sardis taken and burned by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.
 486 Æschylus, the Greek Poet, first gains the prize of tragedy.
 481 Xerxes, King of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews, and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
 445 The decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
 443 Censors created at Rome.
 422 Nineteen years cycle invented by Meton.
 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.
 Malachi, the last of the prophets.
 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
 379 Bœotian war commences in Greece, finished in 366, after the death of Epaminondas, the last of the Grecian heroes. After his death, Philip, brother to the King of Macedon, who had been educated under him, privately set out for that country, seized the kingdom, and after a continual course of war, treachery, and dissimulation, put an end to the liberty of the Greeks by the battle of Cheronea.
 366 Philip King of Macedon murdered, and succeeded by his son Alexander the Great.
 332 Alexandria in Egypt built.
 331 Alexander, King of Macedon, conquers Darius King of Persia, and other nations of Asia.
 323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms, after destroying his wives, children, brother, mother, and sisters.
 291 Darkness at Rome at noon day.
 299 Solar quadrants introduced at Rome.
 285 Dionysius, of Alexandria, began his astronomical æra on Monday June 26, being the first who found the solar year to consist exactly of 365 days five hours and 49 minutes.

Before Christ.

- 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, King of Egypt, employs seventy two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
- 269 The first coinage of silver at Rome.
- 264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 21 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles composed.
- 250 Eratosthenes first attempted to measure the earth.
- 242 Conic sections invented by Apollonius.
- 218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles; but being abandoned and refused support by his countrymen, fails in the accomplishment of his purpose.
- 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antiochus brings the Asiatic luxury to Rome.
- 170 Eighty thousand Jews massacred by Antiochus Epiphanes.
- 168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
- 163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
- 146 Carthage and Corinth raised to the ground by the Romans.
- 145 An hundred thousand inhabitants of Antioch massacred in one day by the Jews.
- 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
- 68 Cætiline's conspiracy against the liberties of his country detected.
- 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated. The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
- 45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself. The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
- 44 Cæsar killed in the senate house, after having fought 50 pitched battles, and overturned the liberties of his country.
- 43 Brutus, one of the conspirators against Cæsar, and chief of the republicans, being vanquished in the battle of Philippi, kills himself.
- 35 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.
- 30 Alexandria taken by Octavius, and Egypt reduced to a Roman province.
- 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman Emperor.
- 8 The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

After Christ.

- 12 CHRIST disputes with the Doctors in the temple.
- 29 ——— is baptized in the wilderness by John.
- 33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at three o'clock, P. M. His Resurrection on Lord's day, April 5: His Ascension, Thursday, May 14.
- 36 St. Paul converted.
- 40 St. Matthew writes his Gospel. Pontius Pilate kills himself.
- 49 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.
- 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.
- 44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
- 46 Christianity carried into Spain.
- 49 London is founded by the Romans; and in 363 surrounded with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.
- 51 Caractacus, the British King, is carried in chains to Rome.
- 52 The council of the Apostles at Jerusalem.
- 56 St. Luke writes his Gospel.
- 60 Christianity preached in Britain.
- 61 Boadicea, the British Queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
- 62 St. Paul is sent in bonds to Rome—writes his epistles between 51 and 66.
- 63 The acts of the Apostles written. Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.
- 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began, under Nero, the first persecution against the Christians.
- 67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.

A.D. Christ.

- 70 Titus takes Jerusalem, which is raised to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
- 85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, to protect the civilized Britons from the incursions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and first fails round Britain.
- 96 St. John the Evangelist wrote his revelation—his Gospel in 97.
- 121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland; upon which the Emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle; but this also proving ineffectual, Pollus Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick, since called Antonian's wall.
- 136 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.
- 139 Justin writes his first apology for the Christians.
- 140 Dublin built.
- 152 The Emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.
- 211 The Emperor Severus, after having conquered the Scots, and pent them up by a new wall between the Forth and Clyde (since called Graham's Dyke) having also conquered the Parthians in the East, and extended the Roman empire to its utmost bounds, dies at York.
- 217 The Septuagint said to be found in a cask. Church yards begin to be consecrated.
- 274 Silk first brought from India, and the manufactory of it introduced into Europe 551.
- 303 The tenth general persecution begins under Dioclesian and Galerius.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 308 Cardinals first instituted.
- 313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended against Arius, where was composed the famous Nicene Creed.
- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforward called Constantinople.
- 331 Constantine orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 363 The Emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital;) each being now under the government of different Emperors.
- The Scots utterly defeated and driven out of their country by the Picts and Romans.
- Marriage in Lent forbidden.
- 400 Bells invented by bishop Paulinus of Nola in Campagna.
- 404 The kingdom of Scotland revives under Fergus II.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, King of the Goths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
- Salique law confirmed by this monarch.
- 426 The Romans withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return, advising the Britons to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valour.
- 432 St. Patrick began to preach in Ireland: he died 17th March, 493, aged 122 years.
- 446 The Britons, now left to themselves, are greatly harassed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no assistance from that quarter.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns, ravages the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, King of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain against the Scots and Picts.
- 455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire entirely destroyed; upon the ruins of which several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other Barbarians; under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned are destroyed.
- 496 Clovis King of France baptized, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 502 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
- 510 Paris becomes the capital of France.

AN IMPROVED CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE. 537

- 516 The computing of time by the Christian æra is introduced, by Dionysius the monk.
 529 The code of Justinian, the eastern Emperor, is published.
 557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
 581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
 600 Bells first used in churches.
 606 The power of the Popes begins by the concessions of Phocas, Emperor of the East.
 622 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina in Arabia. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, *i. e.* the Flight.
 637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
 640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by the Saracens, and the grand library there burned by order of Omar their caliph, or prince.
 664 Glass invented in England by Benet a monk.
 670 Building with stone introduced into England by Bennet a monk.
 685 The Britons totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
 696 Churches first begun to be built in England.
 713 The Saracens conquer Spain. Their progress stopped in France by Charles Martel, in 732.
 726 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the Eastern empire.
 748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ begun to be used in history.
 749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
 761 Thirty thousand books burnt by order of the Emperor Leo.
 762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital of the Saracen Empire.
 786 The surplice, a vestment of the Pagan priests, introduced into churches.
 800 Charlemagne, King of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the western empire, and endeavours in vain to restore learning in Europe.
 828 Egbert King of Westex unites the Heptarchy by the name of England.
 838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth, which begins the second period of the Scottish history.
 The Danes with 60 ships arrived at, and took Dublin.
 867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
 871 Bath Springs first discovered.
 886 Juries first instituted.
 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders, composes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tithings; erects county courts, and founds the University of Oxford about this time.
 915 The University of Cambridge founded.
 936 The Saracen Empire divided into seven kingdoms, by usurpation.
 940 Christianity established in Denmark.
 989 Christianity established in Russia.
 991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens, from Arabia. Letters of the Alphabet were hitherto used.
 996 Otto III, makes the Empire of Germany elective.
 999 Boleslaus the first King of Poland.
 1000 Paper made of cotton rags comes into use, that of linen do. 1170.
 1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new style.
 1014 On Good Friday, April 23d, the famous battle of Clontarf was fought, wherein the Danes were completely defeated with a loss of 11,000 men, and driven out of Ireland—but the Irish King, Brian Boromy, was killed, aged 88.
 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
 Priests forbidden to marry.
 1017 Canute, King of Denmark, gets possession of England.
 1025 Musical gamut invented.
 1040 The Danes driven out of Scotland.
 1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
 1043 The Turks become formidable, and take possession of Persia.
 1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
 1066 The battle of Hastings fought, between Harold and William duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain: After which William becomes King of England.
 1070 William introduces the feudal law.
 1075 Henry IV, Emperor of Germany, and the Pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops, Henry, in penance, walks barefooted to Rome, towards the end of January.

Aft. Chris.

- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1080 Doomſday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a ſurvey of all the eſtates in England, and finiſhed in 1086.
- The Tower of London built by the ſame prince, to curb his Engliſh ſubjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Saxon of Engliſh language; are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
- 1086 Kingdom of Bohemia begun.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard preſſed by the Spaniards, call to their aſſiſtance Joſeph King of Morocco; by which the Moors get poſſeſſion of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The firſt cruſade to the Holy Land begun, to drive the infidels from Jeruſalem.
- 1107 King's ſpeech firſt delivered by Henry I.
- 1110 Edgar Atheling, the laſt of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reſide as a ſubject.
- Learning revived in Cambridge.
- 1118 The order of the Knights Templars inſtituted to defend the Sepulchre at Jeruſalem, and to protect Chriſtian ſtrangers.
- 1140 King Stephen grants liberty to his nobles to build caſtles; in conſequence of which 1100 are erected in 14 years.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1163 London bridge, conſiſting of 19 ſmall arches, firſt built of ſtone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
- 1171 Dermot MacMurrough, prince of Leinſter, being beaten and put to flight by other princes, induces ſome Engliſh adventurers to land in Ireland, and aſſiſt him in recovering his dominions: Dublin is beſieged and taken by Raymond le Gros.
- 1172 Henry II, lands at Waterford, and ſoon after obtains from Richard E. Strongbow (who had married the daughter of MacMurrough, and according to compact, ſucceeded to his dominions) a ſurrender of Dublin; where he erects a pavilion of wicker work, and entertains ſeveral Iriſh princes, who, voluntarily, ſubmit to him, on condition of being governed by the ſame laws, civil and eccleſiaſtical, and enjoying the ſame liberties and immunities, as the people of England.
- Henry II, landed in Ireland, with 400 knights and 5000 men.
- 1173 The ſame King grants its firſt charter to Dublin; and, by divers privileges, encourages a colony from Briſtol to ſettle in it.
- 1174 Henry II, creates his younger ſon, 12 years old, King or lord of Ireland, who grants charters to the city of Dublin, and other corporations.
- 1180 Glaſs windows began to be uſed in private houſes in England.
- 1182 Pope Alexander III, compelled the Kings of England and France to hold the ſtirrups of his ſaddle when he mounted his horſe.
- 1186 The great conjunction of the ſun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.
- 1193 The battle of Aſcalon, in Judea, in which Richard, King of England, defeated Saladin's army, conſiſting of 300,000 combatants.
- Richard treacherouſly impriſoned in his way home by the Emperor of Germany.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit*, firſt uſed as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
- 1200 Chimnies were not known in England.
- Surnames now began to be uſed: firſt among the nobility.
- 1208 London incorporated, and obtained its firſt charter from King John.
- 1210 King John met in Dublin upwards of 20 Iriſh princes, who ſwore allegiance to him, and there cauſed them to eſtabliſh the Engliſh laws and cuſtoms.
- Courts of judicature firſt erected in Ireland.
- 1215 Magna Charta is ſigned by King John and the barons of England; and the following year it is granted to the Iriſh by Henry III.
- 1217 The ſame prince grants the city of Dublin to the citizens, in fee farm, at 200 marks *per annum*.
- 1227 The Tartars, a new race of barbarians, under Gingis Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Aſia, conquer the greater part of that continent, and in 22 years deſtroy upwards of 14 millions of people.
- 1233 The inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now truſted to the Dominicans.
- The houſes of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.
- 1253 Magnifying glaſſes invented by Roger Bacon.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are compoſed by Alonzo King of Caſtile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which puts an end to the empire of the Saracens.

Aft. Christ.

- 1263 Acho, King of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 fail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, but most of them are cut to pieces by Alexander III, who recovers the western isles.
- 1264 The commons of England have a place in parliament.
- 1269 The Hamburg company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.
- 1280 Pulvis fulminans and gun powder invented by Roger Bacon.
- 1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I, who unites that principality to England.
- 1284 Edward II, born at Carnarvon, is the first prince of Wales.
- 1285 Alexander III, King of Scotland dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward King of England: Which lays the foundation of a long and desolating war between the two nations. Spectacles invented by Alexander Spina, a Spanish monk.
- 1293 There is a regular succession of English parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman. Silver hatted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury. Splinters of wood generally used for lights. Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1299 Windmills invented.
- 1300 About this time the mariner's compass was invented, or improved, by John Gioia, or Goya, a Neapolitan. The flower de luce, the arms of the duke of Anjou, then King of Naples, was placed by him at the point of the needle, in compliment to that prince.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons. Interest of money in England at 35 per cent.
- 1308 The Popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II, and Robert Bruce, in which the English are overthrown with prodigious slaughter, and all their boasted pretensions of sovereignty are utterly dissipated.
- 1320 Gold first coined in Christendom.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III, may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gunpowder first suggested as useful for warlike purposes by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1348, Edward III, had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressy. Oil painting first made use of by John Vanneck.
- 1344 The first creation to titles by patent used by Edward III.
- 1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III.
- 1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which King John of France, and his sons, are taken prisoners by Edward the Black Prince.
- 1357 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III, to his people.
- 1386 A company of linen weavers from the Netherlands established in London.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chase. Title of Baron first given by Richard II.
- 1390 Coarse cloth first made in England at Kendal.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the King's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster Abbey rebuilt and enlarged. Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.
- 1404 Bajazet defeated by Tamerlane, and the power of the Turks almost entirely destroyed.
- 1404 Hats for men invented at Paris by a Swiss.
- 1412 Denmark united with the crown of Norway.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt, gained over the French by Henry V, of England.
- 1416 The art of curing herrings invented by William Boekel, a Dutchman: By which he rendered an essential service to his country.
- 1428 The siege of Orleans. The celebrated Maid of Orleans appears, and gives the first blow to the English power in France. She is afterwards taken prisoner, and safely put to death.

AN IMPROVED CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

- 540
A.D. Christ.
- 1439 Laurentius of Haarlem invents the Art of Printing, which he practised with separate wooden types. Guttenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types. Peter Schœffer invented the mode of casting types in matrices. But the most authentic accounts ascribe the invention of Printing to Dr. Faust, or Fautus, in 1444.
- 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The sea broke in at Dort, and drowned 100,000 people.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which utterly overthrows the Roman empire.
- 1454 Otto Guerick, a German, invents the air pump.
Cape Verd Isles first seen.
Duelling appointed in certain cases in France, in order to have the judgment of God.
- 1460 Engravings and etchings in copper invented.
- 1471 Decimal arithmetic invented, and the use of tangents in trigonometry introduced, by Regiomontanus.
- 1473 Greek language brought into France.
- 1483 Richard III, King of England, and last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII, which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster.
- 1485 Great numbers carried off by the sweating sickness.
- 1486 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
- 1489 Maps and sea charts first brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
- 1491 William Groeyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subjects of that prince on certain conditions, but are cruelly persecuted by the inquisitors.
- 1492 AMERICA discovered by Columbus.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America discovered by Americus Vesputius, from whom the continent unjustly takes its name.
North America discovered by Cabot.
- 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles.
Brazil discovered by Cabral.
- 1503 Mines used in the attack and defence of places, invented.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
- 1513 Florida discovered.
- 1513 The battle of Flodden, in which James IV, of Scotland, is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
- 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt conquered by the Turks.
- 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, discovers the straits which bear his name, makes the first voyage round the world, but is killed by savages in the Marianne islands.
Republick of Geneva founded.
- 1520 Henry VIII, for his writings in favour of Popery, receives the title of "Defender of the Faith" from the Pope.
Chocolate first brought from Mexico by the Spaniards.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
- 1530 Copernicus revives the Pythagorean system of astronomy.
- 1533 Currant trees brought into England from Zante.
- 1537 Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorized, the present translation finished 1611.
About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king.
Pins first used in England; before which time the ladies used skewers.
- 1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.
- 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
- 1546 Interest of money first established in England by law at ten *per cent*.
Ann Alceæ, a Protestant, cruelly tortured by order of Henry VIII, who, to the utter disgrace of royalty, put his own hands to the rack, as not thinking the executioner sufficiently expert. She endured every thing with patience, and was afterwards burnt.
- 1549 Lords lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Cherries, pears, &c. introduced into England.
- 1553 Circulation of the blood through the lungs first published by Michael Servetus.

- Afr. Christ.*
 1557 Groats and half groats the greatest silver coin in England.
 1560 Siberia was about this time discovered, under the reign of the Czar Ivan Basilides.
 1563 Knives first made in England.
 The 39 articles of the English faith established.
 1565 Botany revived at Thuringe in Germany.
 Potatoes first brought to Ireland from New Spain.
 Henry Lord Darnly, husband to Queen Mary of Scotland, blown up with gunpowder in the Provost's house at Edinburgh, about two in the morning of Feb. 11.
 1569 Royal Exchange, of London, first built.
 Circulation of the blood published by Celsus.
 Mary Queen of Scotland, driven from her kingdom by the rebellion of her subjects, flies to Queen Elizabeth for protection, by whom she is treacherously imprisoned.
 1571 Printing in Irish characters first instituted.
 1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris.
 1573 Marby hill in Hereford removed of itself.
 1578 Apricots and artichokes introduced into England.
 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
 English East India company incorporated—established 1600.
 English Turkey company incorporated.
 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
 1581 J. Ulster, Archbishop of Armagh, born in Dublin, drew up 104 articles of religion for Ireland, 1615; which were established, 1635.—Died, 1636.
 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th October being counted 15.
 1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
 1587 Mary Queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years imprisonment.
 Duelling introduced into England.
 1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English Admirals.
 Henry IV, passes the edict of Nantz, tolerating the Protestants.
 The manufactory of paper introduced into England at Dartford.
 1589 Coaches first introduced into England.
 Bombs invented at Venlo.
 1591 Trinity college, Dublin, founded.
 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
 1600 Building with brick introduced into England by the earl of Arundel, most of the houses in London being hitherto built with wood.
 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI, of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
 1605 The Gunpowder Plot discovered at Westminster.
 Kepler lays the foundation of the Newtonian system of attraction.
 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
 1608 Galileo, of Florence, first discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.—Quebec settled by the French.
 1610 Henry IV, is murdered at Paris by Ravilliac, a priest.
 Virginia and Newfoundland settled by the English.
 Hudson's Bay discovered by a Captain of that name, who is left by his men to perish on that desolate coast.
 1611 Baronets first created in England by James I.
 1614 Napier, of Marchilton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
 Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
 The custom of powdering the hair took its rise from some bald fingers at St. German's fair, who powdered themselves to look the more ridiculous.
 New York and New Jersey settled by the Dutch.
 1618 New Holland discovered by the Dutch.
 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, fully confirms the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
 1620 The broad silk manufactory from raw silk introduced into England.
 1623 New Hampshire settled by an English colony.
 Plymouth in New England planted by a part of Mr. Robinson's congregation.
 1625 The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West Indies, is planted.
 1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.

A.D. Christ.

- 1627 The thermometer invented by Drebellius.
A colony of Swedes settled on Delaware river, Pennsylvania.
- 1630 Peruvian bark first brought to France.
- 1631 Newspapers first published at Paris.
- 1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
- 1633 Maryland settled by Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
- 1635 Connecticut and Rhode Island settled.
- 1638 Harvard College in Cambridge, Massachusetts, established.
- 1640 King Charles disobliges his Scottish subjects; on which their army under General Lesley, enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English Protestants were killed.
- 1642 Civil war begins in England.
- 1646 Episcopacy abolished in England.
Sympathetic powder made known by Sir Kenelm Digby.
- 1647 The first Selenographick maps made by Hevelius.
- 1649 Charles I, beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
- 1652 The first coffee house in London.
The speaking trumpet invented by Kircher, a Jesuit.
- 1654 Cromwell assumes the Protectorship.
- 1655 The English, under Admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
- 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the Protectorship by his son Richard.
- 1659 Transfusion of the blood first suggested at Oxford.
- 1660 King Charles II, is restored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Episcopacy restored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark being oppressed by the Nobles, surrender their privileges to Fred. III, who becomes absolute.
- 1662 The Royal Society established in London by Charles II.
Pendulum Clocks invented by John Fromentel, a Dutchman.
Fire engines invented.
- 1665 The plague rages in London.
- 1666 The great fire of London began, Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses and 400 streets.
Tea first used in England.
Academy of sciences established in France.
- 1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
- 1669 South Carolina planted by an English colony under Governor Sayle.
- 1670 The English Hudson's Bay Company incorporated.
- 1671 Academy of Architecture established in France.
- 1672 Lewis XIV, overruns great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their dykes, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
African company established.
- 1673 St. Helena taken by the English.
- 1675 Coffee houses shut up by proclamation, as encouragers of sedition.
- 1676 Repeating clocks and watches invented by Barlow.
- 1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act passed.
- 1679 Darkness at London, that one could not read at noon day, January 12.
- 1680 A great comet appeared, and continued visible from Nov. 3, to March 9.
- 1681 William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
Pennsylvania settled.
- 1682 College of physicians, at Edinburgh, incorporated.
Royal academy established at Nismes.
- 1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 *per cent.*
- 1685 The duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II, raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamously revoked by Lewis XIV, and the Protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, finished by Lewis XIV.
- 1688 The Revolution in Great Britain begins, Nov. 5. King James retires to France, December 3.

- 1689 *Act. Christ.*
 King William and Queen Mary, daughter and son in law to James II, are proclaimed February 16.
 Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed after gaining the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders disperse.
 • The land tax passes in England.
 • The toleration act passes in ditto.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
 1691 The war in Ireland finished, by the surrender of Limerick to William.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by Admiral Russel, defeated the French fleet off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used by the French.
 • The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
 • Bank of England established by King William.
 • The first public lottery was drawn this year.
 • Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1695 Bank of Scotland established.
- 1696 The peace of Ryswick.
- 1697 Malt tax established.
- 1699 The Scots settled a colony at the isthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
- 1700 Charles XII, of Sweden, begins his reign.
- 1701 Yale College established at Saybrook, Connecticut—removed to New Haven 1716.
 Prussia erected into a kingdom.
 Cottonian library settled for public benefit.
 Society for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts established.
- 1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by Queen Ann, daughter to James II, who, with the Emperor and States General, renews the war against France and Spain.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Rooke.
 The battle of Blenheim, won by the Duke of Marlborough and allies against the French.
 The Court of Exchequer instituted in England.
 Prussian blue discovered at Berlin.
- 1706 The Treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, signed June 22.
- 1707 The first British parliament.
- 1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by General Stanhope.
 The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
 Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the Duke of Savoy.
- 1709 Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, defeats Charles XII, at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
- 1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig Ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her brother, the late Pretender.
- The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
 • The English South Sea Company began.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.
- 1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.
 Interest reduced to five per cent. in England.
- 1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is succeeded by his great grandson Lewis XV.
 The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the Earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriffmuir, and the surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels disperse.
- 1716 Aurora Borealis first taken notice of in England—1719 in New England.
 The Pretender married to the Princess Sobieski, grand daughter to John Sobieski, late King of Poland.
 An act passed for septennial parliaments.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.
 Lombe's silk throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water wheel moves the rest; and in 24 hours it works 218,504,960 yards of organzine silk thread.
 The South Sea scheme in England begun April 7; was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29.

A. M. Christ.

- 1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is succeeded by his only son, George II.
 Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
 Russia, formerly a dukedom, is now established as an empire.
- 1728 North Carolina settled about this time.
- 1729 Parliament sat at the Blue coat hospital, Dublin, where an attempt was made to obtain the supplies for 21 years; but rejected by a majority of One.
- 1731 The first person executed in Britain for forgery.
- 1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and retains with two hundred and thirty one millions sterling.
 Several public spirited gentlemen begin the settlement of Georgia, one of the United States of America.
- 1736 Captain Porteous, having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace, at the execution of a smuggler, is himself hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.
- 1737 The earth proved to be flatted towards the poles.
- 1738 Westminster bridge, consisting of fifteen arches, began; finished in 1759, at the expense of 389,000*l.* defrayed by parliament.
- 1739 Letters of marque issued out in Britain against Spain, July 21, and war declared October 23.
- 1742 The first ship with Irish coals arrived at Dublin from Newry.
- 1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies, in favour of the Queen of Hungary.
- 1744 War declared against France.
 Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the Duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1746 British Lincn Company erected.
 Electric shock discovered.
 Lima and Callao swallowed up by an earthquake.
- 1748 The peace of Aix la Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.
 Halifax, in Nova Scotia, built.
- 1749 The interest of the British funds reduced to three per cent.
 British herring fishery incorporated.
 Dublin Society incorporated by charter.
- 1751 Antiquarian Society at London incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
 Identity of electric fire and lightning discovered by Dr. Franklin, who thereupon invented a method of securing buildings from thunder storms.
- 1753 The British Museum erected at Montague house.
 Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, instituted in London.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1756 One hundred and forty six Englishmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the Nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
 Marine Society established at London.
- 1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.
- 1760 Black Friars bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expense of 152,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll. George II dies, and is succeeded by George III.
- 1762 War declared against Spain.
 Peter III, Emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
 American philosphical society established in Philadelphia.
- 1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the Islands of Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000*l.* to Mr. Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time piece.
- 1765 George III's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.
 The famous stamp act passed in the British Parliament March 22. Repealed March 18, 1766.
 Grand canal adjoining the city basin, Dublin, begun; completed to Monastereven in 1786.

Aft. Christ.

- 1766 A great spot passed the sun's centre.
Gibraltar almost destroyed by a storm.
- 1768 Academy of painting established in London.
The Turks imprison the Russian Ambassador, and declare war against that empire.
Duration of Irish parliaments limited to eight years.
- 1769 Electricity of the aurora borealis discovered by Wiedeburg at Jena.
- 1770 Massacre at Boston, March 5.
- 1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his Majesty's ship the Endeavour, Lieutenant Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries.
- 1772 The King of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom.
A dreadful fire at Anagwa.
Twelve hundred and forty people killed in the island of Java by an electrified cloud.
A revolution in Denmark.
The Emperor of Germany, Empress of Russia, and the King of Prussia, strip the King of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 Capt. Phipps is sent to explore the North Pole; but having made eighty one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, returns.
The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull.
The English East India Company having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad, upon which the British government interferes, and sends out judges, &c.
The war between the Russians and Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are every where unsuccessful.
Tea, 340 chests, destroyed at Boston.
- 1774 Peace proclaimed between the Russians and Turks.
The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America; the colonies, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of the British parliament to tax them.
Boston Port Bill passed March 25.
Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, October 26.
First petition of Congress to the King, November.
- 1775 April 19. The first action happens in America between the British troops and the Americans at Lexington.
Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by Colonels Allen and Easton.
A dreadful fire in Grenada; loss computed at 500,000l.
Paper money issued by Congress.
June 17. A bloody action at Bunker's Hill between the British troops and the Americans, in which the brave General Warren was slain.
Charlestown burnt.
Battle of Quebec, where fell the brave Montgomery, December 31st.
- 1776 March 17. The town of Boston evacuated by the King's troops.
An unsuccessful attempt in July, made by Commodore Sir Peter Parker and Lieutenant General Clinton, upon Charleston in South Carolina.
Order for calling in all the light gold, and ordering it for the future to pass only by weight.
Congress declare the American colonies free and independent States, July 4.
The Americans retreat from Long Island, in August, after a bloody battle, and the city of New York is afterwards taken possession of by the King's troops.
December 25, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners at Trenton.
Torture abolished in Poland.
Battle of Brandywine.
- 1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia, September.
Lieutenant General Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, consisting of 5752 men to the American Generals Gates and Arnold, October 17.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French King and the thirteen United American States, in which their independence is acknowledged by the Court of France, February 6.
The remains of the Earl of Chatham interred at the publick expense in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.
The Earl of Carlisle, William Eden, Esq; and George Johnstone, Esq; arrived at Philadelphia the beginning of June, as commissioners for restoring peace between Great Britain and America.

A. E. Christ.

- 1778 Philadelphia evacuated by the King's troops, June 18.
 Battle at Monmouth.
 The Congress refuse to treat with the British commissioners.
 Dominica taken by the French, September 7.
 Pondicherry surrenders to the arms of Great Britain, October 17.
 St. Lucia taken by the French, December 28.
- 1779 St. Vincent taken by the French.
 Grenada taken by the French, July 3.
 Battle at Stony Point, July 15.
 October 12. Both Houses of the Irish Parliament address the King for a free trade.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.
 The inquisition abolished in the Duke of Modena's dominions.
 Admiral Rodney takes twenty two sail of Spanish ships, Jan. 8.
 The Admiral also engages a Spanish fleet under the command of Don Juan de Lan-
 gara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ships of the line, one more driven on
 shore, and another blown up, Jan. 16.
 Three actions between Admiral Rodney and the Count de Guichen, in the West
 Indies, in the months of April and May; but none of them decisive.
 Charleston, South Carolina, surrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.
 Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, surrender to the arms of the
 King of Spain, May 9.
 The Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000, go up to the House of Com-
 mons with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Catholics.
 That event followed by the most daring riots in the cities of London and Southwark
 for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together
 with the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, several private houses,
 &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed by the *interposition* of the
 military, and many of the rioters tried and executed for felony.
- Five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West
 Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, August 8.
 Earl Cornwallis obtains a victory over General Gates, near Camden, in South Car-
 olina, August 16.
 Arnold, the infamous traitor, deserts the service of his country, escapes to New
 York, and is made a Brigadier General in the British Service, September 24.—
 Burns New London.
 Major Andre, Adjutant General to the British army, hanged as a spy at Tappan, in
 the State of New York, October 3.
 The Hon. Henry Laurens is committed prisoner to the Tower on a charge of high
 treason, October 4.
 Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, by which great devastation is made in
 Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other islands, October 3. and 10.
 A declaration of hostilities published against Holland, December 20.
 First Irish State Lottery drawn.
 American Academy of Arts and Sciences instituted in Massachusetts.
- 1781 The Dutch island of St. Eustatia taken by Admiral Rodney and General ~~_____~~,
 February 3. Retaken by the French, November 27.
 The island of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.
 A bloody engagement fought between an English Squadron under the command of
 Admiral Parker, and a Dutch Squadron under the command of Admiral Zout-
 man, off the Dogger Bank, August 5.
 The Marquis La Fayette, at the head of 2000 light infantry, performs important
 services in Virginia.
 Earl Cornwallis, with the British army under his command, surrendered prisoners
 of war to the American and French troops, under the command of General Wash-
 ington and Count Rochambeau, at Yorktown, in Virginia, Oct. 19, which de-
 cided the contest in favour of America.
 Continental paper money ceased to circulate.
- 1782 Trincomale, on the island of Ceylon, taken by Admiral Hughes, Jan. 11.
 Minorca surrendered to the arms of the King of Spain, Feb. 5.
 The Island of St. Christopher taken by the French, Feb. 12.
 The island of Nevis, in the West Indies, taken by the French, Feb. 14.
 Montserrat taken by the French, Feb. 22.
 The British House of Commons address the King against any farther prosecution of
 offensive war on the continent of North America, March 4; and resolve, that the
 House would consider all those as enemies to his Majesty and this country, who
 should

Aft. Christ.

- should advise, or by any means attempt, the further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.
- Admiral Rodney obtains a victory over the French fleet under the command of Count de Grasse, whom he takes prisoner, near Dominica, in the West Indies.
- April 16. The Parliament of Ireland asserted its independence and constitutional rights. The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I, relative to the legislation of Ireland, received the royal assent, June 20.
- The first great Dungannon meeting of Delegates from the Irish Ulster Volunteers, held February 15.
- The French took and destroyed the forts and settlements in Hudson's Bay, August 24.
- The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, September 13.
- Treaty concluded between the republic of Holland and the United States of America, October 8.
- Provisional articles of peace signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic Majesty to be free, sovereign and independent states, November 30.
- 1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic Majesty and the Kings of France and Spain, signed at Versailles, Jan. 20.
- Three earthquakes at Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 23th.
- Armistice between Great Britain and Holland, Feb. 10.
- Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sept. 3.
- The fire balloon invented by M. Montgolfier of Lyons; from which discovery Messrs. Charles and Robert of Paris taking the hint, construct inflammable gas, or the *air balloon*.
- Courts of justice in England and Ireland separated by a British act of Parliament.
- The bank of Ireland, established by act of Parliament, opened 25th June.
- A convention of representatives from all the Volunteer Corps of Ireland held in the Rotunda, Dublin, for promoting a Parliamentary Reform, 10th Nov.
- 1784 The city of London wait on the King with an address of thanks for dismissing the coalition ministry, Jan. 16.
- The Great Seal stolen from the Lord Chancellor's house in Great Ormond street, March 24.
- The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
- Mr. Lunardi ascended in an air balloon from the Artillery ground, Moorfields; the first attempt of the kind in England, September 15.
- 1785 A Congress of Representatives from the Counties of Ireland held in Dublin, for promoting a Parliamentary Reform, January 20.
- 1786 Commissioners from several of the United States assembled at Annapolis, Maryland, to consult what measures should be taken to unite the States in some general and efficient system.
- Insurrection in Massachusetts.
- Charles River Bridge completed, connecting Boston and Charlestown, at the expense of 15,000l.
- The King of Sweden prohibited the use of torture in his kingdom.
- 1787 The articles of Confederation, originally entered into by the United States, being found essentially defective, a general Convention of Delegates from all the States, except Rhode Island, was held at Philadelphia, this summer, with General Washington at their head, for the purpose of framing a general plan of government for the United States. And after four months deliberation, fixed on our present excellent constitution, which has since been ratified by all the States.
- 1788 George Washington was unanimously elected President of the United States, and John Adams, Vice President.
- 1789 Congress met at New York for the first time under the new Constitution, March 4.
- April 30. George Washington was, in due form, publicly invested with the office of President of the United States of America.
- July 14. Revolution in France—capture of the Bastille.
- 1790 Grand French Confederation in the Champ de Mars.
- 1791 Seven islands discovered in the South Pacific Ocean, between the Marquesas and the Equator, by Capt. Joseph Ingraham, of Boston.
- First Folio and royal Quarto Bibles printed in America, at Worcester, Massachusetts—Small Quarto, at Trenton, New Jersey.
- 1792 A bridge was built over Merrimack River between Newbury and Salisbury, August.

Aft. Christ.

- 1792 August. The Marquis la Fayette, General of the armies of France, who was the friend, and had served in the Army of the United States; was a promoter of the French revolution, and firmly attached to the new Constitution of his country, accused of treason, and a price being set on his head, he quitted the army, and kingdom of France, with 12 officers of rank; who were all taken prisoners by the Prussians, and the Marquis is now in close confinement in the castle of Magdeburg, once the residence of the celebrated Trenck.
- 1793 January. Trial of Louis 16th, King of France, commenced; the National Assembly, consisting of 745 members, of whom, 25 being absent, and the opinions of those present, taken, it was decreed by 480 (forming a majority) that the execution should take place, without an appeal nominal to the people—the remaining number voted for punishment under various restrictions—Agreeably to the voice of the majority, he was beheaded the 21st January.
- February 5. Declaration of War, against the Combined Powers of Great Britain, Holland, &c. issued by the National Assembly of France.
- April. The President of the United States, issued his Proclamation, for the purposes of enjoining an impartial conduct on the part of the United States towards the belligerent powers, and of observing a strict neutrality.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Dates is implied the Time when the Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by fl.*

Bef. Christ.

- 997 **HOMER**, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to have lived near the time of Homer.
- 884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
- 600 Sappho, the Greek Lyric poetess, fl.
- 558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
- 556 AEsop, the first Greek fabulist.
- 648 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.
- 497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece.
- 478 Confucius, the Chinese Philosopher.
- 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet.
- 456 AEschylus, the first Greek tragic poet.
- 435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet.
- 413 Herodotus, of Greece, the first writer of profane history.
- 407 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl.
- Euripides, the Greek tragic poet.
- 406 Sophocles, ditto.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral Philosophy in Greece.
- 391 Thucydides, the Greek historian.
- 361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician.
- Democritus, the Greek philosopher.
- 359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian.
- 348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates.
- 336 Isocrates, the Greek orator.
- 332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato.
- 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator poisoned himself.
- 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle.
- 285 Theocritus, first Greek pastoral poet, fl.
- 277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl.

Bef. Christ.

- 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece.
- 268 Berosus, the Chaldean historian.
- 264 Zeno, founder of the stoic philosophy in Greece.
- 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.
- 208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
- 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet.
- 179 Ennius, the Roman poet.
- 159 Terence, of Carthage, Latin comic poet.
- 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, stoic philosopher.
- 124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian.
- 54 Lucretius, the Roman poet.
- 44 Julius Caesar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed.
- Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, fl.
- Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
- 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death.
- Cornelius Nepos, Roman biographer, fl.
- 34 Sallust, the Roman historian.
- 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, fl.
- 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet.
- 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets.
- 8 Horace, Roman lyric and satiric poet.
- Aft. Christ.
- 17 Livy, the Roman historian.
- 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet.
- 20 Celsus, the Rom. philoso. and physi. fl.
- 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
- 33 Phaedrus, the Roman fabulist.
- 45 Patereulus, the Roman historian, fl.
- 62 Persius, the Roman satiric poet.
- 64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman, historian of Alexander the Great, fl.

Seneca,

Afr. Christ.

- 64 Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death.
- 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto.
- 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian.
- 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian.
- 94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, fl.
- 95 Quintilian, Roman orator and advocate.
- 96 Statius, the Roman epic poet.
- 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl.
- 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian.
- 104 Martial of Spain, epigrammatic poet. Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
- 116 Pliny the younger, historical letters.
- 117 Suetonius, the Roman historian.
- 119 Plutarch of Greece, the biographer.
- 128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet.
- 140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, fl.
- 150 Justin, the Roman historian, fl.
- 157 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, fl.
- 167 Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the Apostles.
- 180 Lucian, the Roman philologist. Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman Emperor and philosopher.
- 193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
- 200 Diogenes Laertius, Greek biograph. fl.
- 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, fl.
- 254 Origen, Christian father of Alexandria. Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, fl.
- 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom.
- 273 Longinus the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian.
- 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
- 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.
- 342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer.
- 379 Basil, bishop of Caesarea.
- 389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constan.
- 395 Claudian, the Roman poet, fl.
- Heliodorus, Phœnicia, Ethiopicks, &c.
- 397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
- 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
- 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.
- 524 Boethius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher.
- 529 Procopius, of Caesarea, the Roman historian.

MODERN AUTHORS.

- 735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; history of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
- 901 King Alfred; history, philosophy.
- 980 Avicenna, the Mahometan philosopher and physician.
- 1118 Anna Comnena; Alexiad; or life of her father Emperor Alexius Comnenus.
- 1206 Averroes, Corduba, the Arabian philosopher.

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- 1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; history of England.
- 1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.
- 1321 Dante, Florence; poetry.
- 1374 Petrarch, Arezzo in Italy; poetry.
- 1376 Boccaccio, Tuscany; the Decameron, poems, &c.
- 1400 Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.
- 1481 Platina, Italy; Lives of the Popes, &c.
- 1502 Montaigne, Perigord in France; essays.
- 1509 Philip de Comines, Flanders; historical memoirs.
- 1517 Martin Luther, the Great Reformer, fl. John Calvin, do. do. fl.
- 1530 Machiavel, Florence; politics, comedies, &c.
- 1534 Ariosto, Lombardy; Orlando Furioso, and five comedies.
- 1535 Sir Thomas Moore, London; history, politics, &c.
- 1536 Erasmus, Rotterdam; Colloquies, Praise of Folly, &c.
- 1540 Guicciardini, Florence; history of Italy.
- 1543 Copernicus, Thorn in Prussia; astronomy.
- 1549 Michael de Cervantes Saavedra, Alcalá in Spain; Don Quixote, &c.
- 1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
- 1566 Hannibal Caro, Civita Nuova; poems and translations. Vida, Cremona; art of poetry, and other didactic poems.
- 1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology.
- 1578 Rev. John Knox, the Scots reformer; history of the church of Scotland.
- 1579 Camoens, Lisbon; the Lusiad, an epic poem.
- 1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; history of Scotland, psalms of David, politics, &c.
- 1590 Davila, Isle of Cyprus; history of the civil wars of France.
- 1595 Torquato Tasso, Italy; Jerusalem delivered, an epic poem. Aminta, &c.
- 1598 Edmund Spenser, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
- 1600 Rev. Richard Hooker, Exeter; Ecclesiastical Polity.
- 1605 Ulysses Aldrovandus, Bologna; natural history.
- 1608 Mendez, Castile; history of China, fl.
- 1610 Richard Knolles, Northamptonshire; history of the Turks.
- 1612 Battista Guarini, Ferrara; the Faithful Shepherd, a pastoral poem.
- 1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 35 dramatic pieces.
- 1616 Wm. Shakespeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
- 1622 John Napier, Marcheston, Scotland; inventor of logarithms.

Ant. Christ.

1623 William Camden, London; history and antiquities.

Father Paul Sarpi, Venice; history of the Council of Trent, rights of Sovereigns and Subjects, letters, &c.

1624 John Mariana, Castile; history of Spain.

1625 John Baptist Marino, Naples; poetry.

1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; philosophy and literature in general.

1627 Lewis de Congora, Cordova; poetry and plays.

1628 Francis de Malherbe, Normandy; poetry.

1630 John Kepler, Wittemberg; astronomy.

1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.

1635 Trajan Boccalini, Rome; satyrical pieces, &c.

1638 Ben. Johnson, Lond. dramatic pieces.

1639 Philip Massinger, Salisbury; 14 dramatic pieces.

1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.

Jeremiah Horrox, Lancashire; astronomer, died at the age of 22.

1646 Lewis Veliz de Guevara, Andalusia; comedies.

1650 Des Cartes, Touraine; philosophy and mathematics.

1654 John Selden, Suffex; antiquities and laws.

John Lewis de Balzac, Angouleme; letters, &c.

1645 Peter Gassendi, Provence; astronomy.

1656 Archbishop Usher, Dublin; divinity and chronology.

1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.

1662 Pascal, Auvergne; Thoughts upon Religion, &c.

1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.

1669 Sir John Denham, Dublin; Cooper's Hill and other poems.

1673 Moliere, Paris; comedies.

1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.

Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; history of the civil wars in England.

1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry and optics.

James Rohault, Amiens; physics.

1677 Rev. Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics.

Rev. Richard Baxter, Divinity, &c.

1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.

Francis, Duke of Rochefoucault, France; maxims.

Dr. Lewis Morey, Provence; Historical Dictionary.

1683 Mezeray, Lower Normandy; Abridgment of the history of France.

Ant. Christ.

1684 Wentworth Dillon, Earl of Roscommon, Ireland; essay on translated verse, Horace's art of poetry.

Peter Corneille, Rouen; 30 dramatic pieces.

1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, &c.

1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems.

1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; Intellectual System.

1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; history of physic.

Dr. Bonet, Geneva; medicine.

1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies. Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.

1691 Honorable Robert Boyle, natural and experimental philosophy, &c.

Sir George Mackenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.

1692 Giles Menage Angers; bibliography miscellaneous in verse and prose.

St. Real, Savoy; conspiracy of the Spaniards against the Republic of Venice.

1694 John Tillotson, Archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.

Antoniceta de la Garde Des Houlieries, Paris; poetry.

Marcelius Malpighi, Bologna; discovered the circulation of the sap in plants.

Puffendorf, Upper Saxony; jurisprudence and history.

1695 D'Herbelot, Paris; Bibliotheque orientale.

Huygens, Hague; mathematics and astronomy.

1696 John de La Bruyere, France; characters.

Marchioness De Sevigne, France; letters.

1697 Sir W. Temple, London; politics and polite literature.

1698 W. Molyneux, Dublin; the case of Ireland stated.

1699 John Racine, France; tragedies.

Rev. Dr. William Bates; Divinity.

1701 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, Virgil, ode on Saint Cecilia's day, &c.

Thomas Creech, Dorsetshire; translations.

1702 Malfaron, Marseilles; funeral orations.

1704 John Locke, Somersetshire; philosophy, government and theology.

Bocconi, Palermo; natural history.

Bossuet, Dijon; discourse upon Universal History, Funeral Orations, &c.

Bourdaloue, France; sermons.

1705 John Ray, Essex; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.

1706 Ballet, Picardy; Judgments of the learned, biography, &c.

- Christ.
 6 George Farquhar, Londonderry; 8 comedies.
 Rev. James Saurin, Sermons, tracts. f.
 7 John Philips, Oxfordshire; Splendid Shilling, and other poems.
 8 Thomas Corneille, brother to Peter; tragedies.
 9 David Gregory, Aberdeen; geometry, optics.
 Fleischer, Avignon; sermons, funeral orations, &c.
 Edmund Smith, Worcestershire; Phœdra, tragedy, translation of Longinus.
 10 Bouleau, Paris; satires, epistles, art of poetry, the Lutrin, &c.
 Cassini, Italy; astronomy.
 11 Ant. Ash. Cooper, B. of Shaftsbury; characteristics.
 Dr. Archibald Pitcairn, Edinburgh, medicine.
 12 Gubert Burnet, Edinburgh, Bishop of Salisbury; history, biography, &c.
 13 Malebranche, Paris; philosophy.
 14 Francis De Salignac De la Mothe Fenelon, Archbishop of Cambray, Perigord; Telemachus, Dialogues of the Dead, Demoustration of the Being of God, &c.
 Leibnitz, Leipsic; philosophy, &c.
 15 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; 7 tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.
 16 Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathematics and astronomy.
 Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guardian, tragedy of Cato, &c.
 Dr. John Keill, Edinburgh, mathematics and astronomy.
 17 Sir Samuel Garth, Yorkhire; poetry.
 18 Anne Dacier, France; translation of Homer, Terence, &c.
 19 Matthew Prior, London; poems and politics.
 20 Fleury, Paris; history.
 Bayle, Foix; historical and critical dictionary.
 21 Rapin de Thoyras, Languedoc; history of England.
 22 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; mathematics, geometry, astronomy, &c.
 23 Father Daniel, Rouen; history of France.
 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.
 Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
 William Congreve, Staffordshire; seven dramatic pieces.
 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Meamshire; medicine, coins, politics.
 24 Vertot, France; Revolutions of Rome, Portugal, Sweden, &c.
 1738 Mr. Boerhaave, Leyden; botany, &c.
 John Chambers, England; Cyclopaedia.
 1741 Rollin, Paris; history, Belles Lettres.
 John Baptist Rousseau, Paris; odes, epistles, epigrams, comedies, letters.
 Le Sage, Bretany; Gil Blas, &c.
 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley, London; natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.
 1743 Mafflun, France; sermons.
 Richard Savage, London; tragedy, &c.
 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems; letters, translation of Homer.
 1745 Reverend Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
 1746 Coll. M'Laurin, Argyleshire; algebra, view of Newton's philosophy.
 1747 Rev. Jonathan Dickinson, President, Princeton College; Divinity.
 1748 James Thomson, Roxburghshire; Seasons, and other pieces, five tragedies.
 Reverend Dr. Isaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philosophy, psalms, &c.
 Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Ireland; system of moral philosophy.
 1750 Rev. Dr. Conyers Middleton, York-shire; life of Cicero, &c.
 Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphysics and natural philosophy.
 1751 Lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philosophy, metaphysics, and politics.
 1752 Reverend Dr. Doddridge; Family Expositor, Lectures, Sermons, &c.
 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poisons, plague, small-pox, medicine.
 Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.
 1755 Montesquieu, Bordeaux; spirit of laws, grandeur and declension of the Romans, Persian letters, &c.
 1756 W. Collins, Chichester; poetry.
 West, England; translation of Pindar, poems.
 1757 Reaumur, Rochelle; natural history of insects.
 Reverend Aaron Burr, President of Princeton College; Answer to Eryn's Humble Inquiry, Sermons, Colley Cibber, London; plays.
 1758 Reverend Jonathan Edwards, President of Princeton College; Divinity, Metaphysics.
 1760 Reverend James Davies, President of Princeton College; Sermons.
 1761 Sherlock, Bishop of London; sermons.
 Hoadley, Bishop of Exeter; sermons.
 Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa, Pamela.
 Rev. Dr. John Leland, Lancashire; answer to Deistical Writers.
 1763 W. Shenstone, Shropshire; poems.
 1764 Reverend Charles Churchill, England; Rosciad, satires.

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- 1765 Reverend Dr. Edward Young, Night Thoughts, and other poems, &c.
Robert Simfon, Glasgow; Conic Sections, Euclid, Apollonius.
- 1766 Reverend Dr. Samuel Finley, President Princeton College; Sermons, Tracts.
Reverend Thomas Clap, President of Yale College; Sermons, Tracts.
- 1767 Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; Anatomy of the bones anatomical and medical essays.
Muratori, Italy; history, antiquities.
Metaftasio, Italy; dramatick pieces, fl.
- 1768 Reverend Lawrence Sterne, Dublin; 45 sermons, Sentimental Journey, Triftram Shandy.
William Cunningham, Ireland; Pastorals, &c.
- 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.
- 1770 Dr. Mark Akenfid, Newcastle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire; History of England, novels, &c.
- 1771 Thomas Gray, London; poems.
- 1773 Earl of Chefterfield; letters.
George Lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire; History of England.
- 1774 Oliver Goldfmith, Rofcommon, in Ireland; History of the Earth and animated Nature, Citizen of the World, essays, &c.
Hon. Peyton Randolph, first President of the American Congress.
- 1775 Dr. John Hawkefworth; essays.
- 1776 David Hume, Mersé; History of England, essays.
James Fergufon, Aberdeenshire; astronomy.
- 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
- 1778 Voltaire, Paris; the Henriad, an epic poem, dramatick pieces, poetry, history, literature in general.
Rev. Dr. Elliot, Boston; Sermons.
- 1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays.
William Warburton, Bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.
- 1780 Sir William Blackftone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Law of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkfhire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philologic Inquiries, Philof. Arrangement
Gov. Hutchinfon, Boston, Maffachufetts; History.
- 1782 Thomas Newton, Bishop of Bristol, Litchfield; difcourfes on the prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxboroughfhire; Difcafes of the Army.
Henry Home, Lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticifm, Sketches of the History of Man, Principles of Equity, of Morality, Art of Thinking, Hints on Education, General Farmer, &c.
- 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerksfhire; anatomy.
John James Rouffeau, Geneva; Emilius, a treatise on Education, Dictionary of Mufic, New Heloifa, &c.
- 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnfon, Litchfield; Maffachufetts Dictionary, biography, &c.
- 1785 William Whitehead, Poet Laureate; poems and plays.
Dr. Thomas Leland, Ireland; History of Ireland, &c. &c.
- 1786 Dr. Gilbert Stuart, Edinburgh; History of Mary, Queen of Scots, History of the Reformation, &c.
- 1787 Rev. Dr. Chauncey, Boston; compendious view of Epifcopacy from the fathers, Salvation for all men, Sermons, Tracts, &c.
- 1788 The Count De Buffon, Paris; Natural History.
- 1790 James Bowdoin, Gov. Maffachufetts; Philosophy, politics.
William Livingfton, Gov. New York; essays, poetry, poetics.
Dr. Benjamin Franklin, Boston; Electricity, natural philosophy, &c.
- 1791 Rev. John Wesley, Bishop of Melanics.
- 1792 Henry Laurens, South Carolina, President of Congress.



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