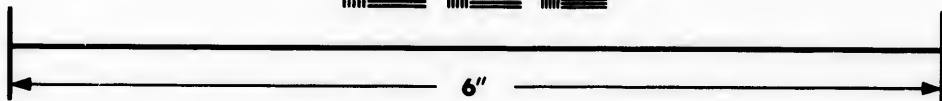
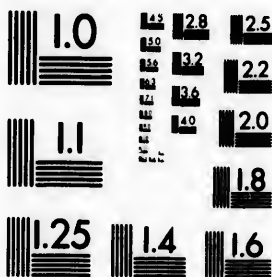


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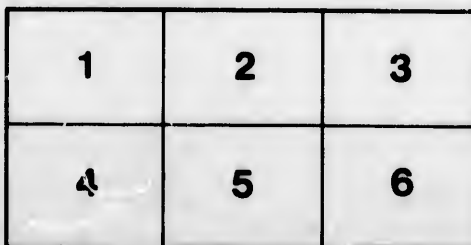
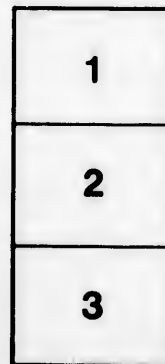
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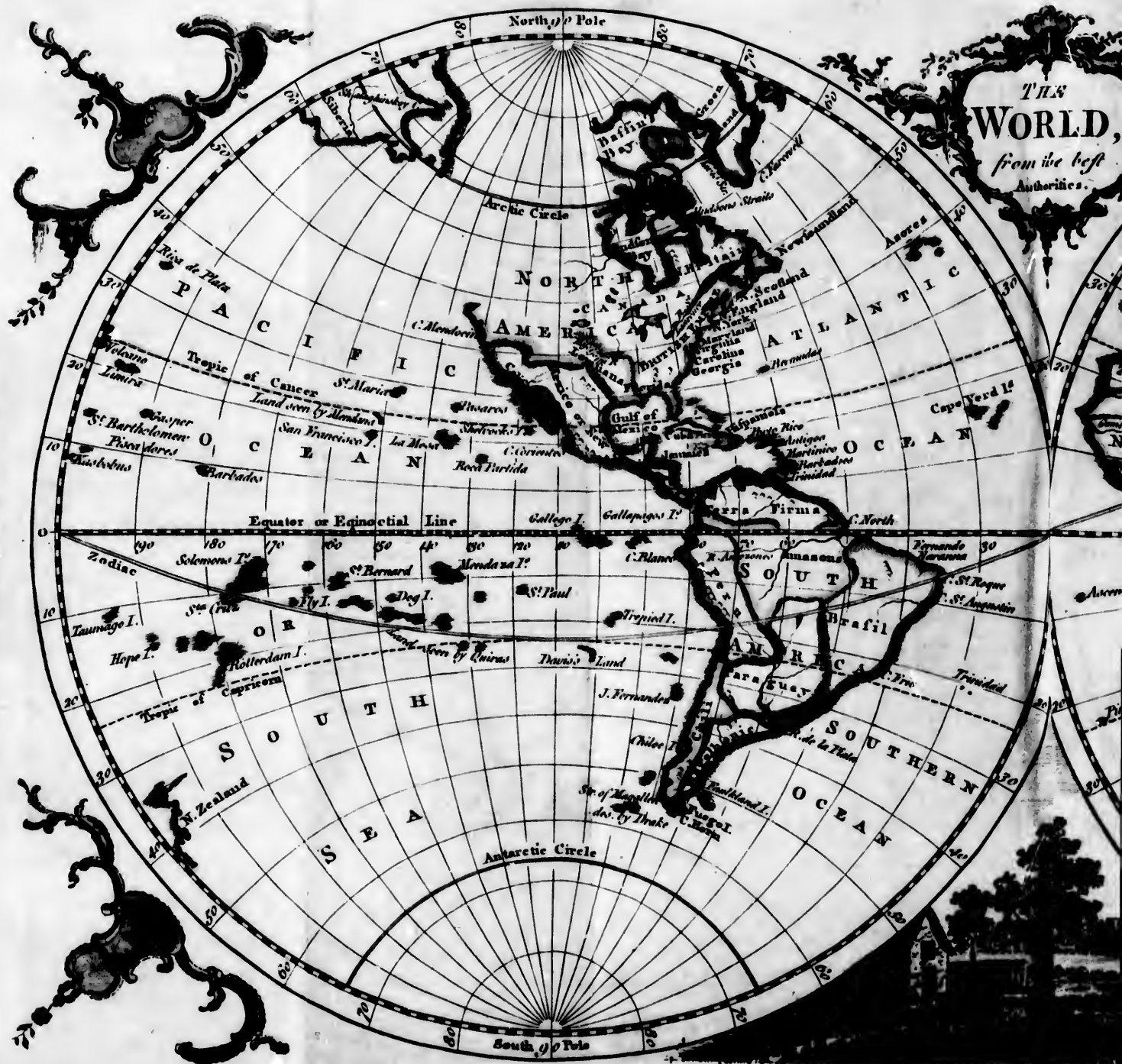
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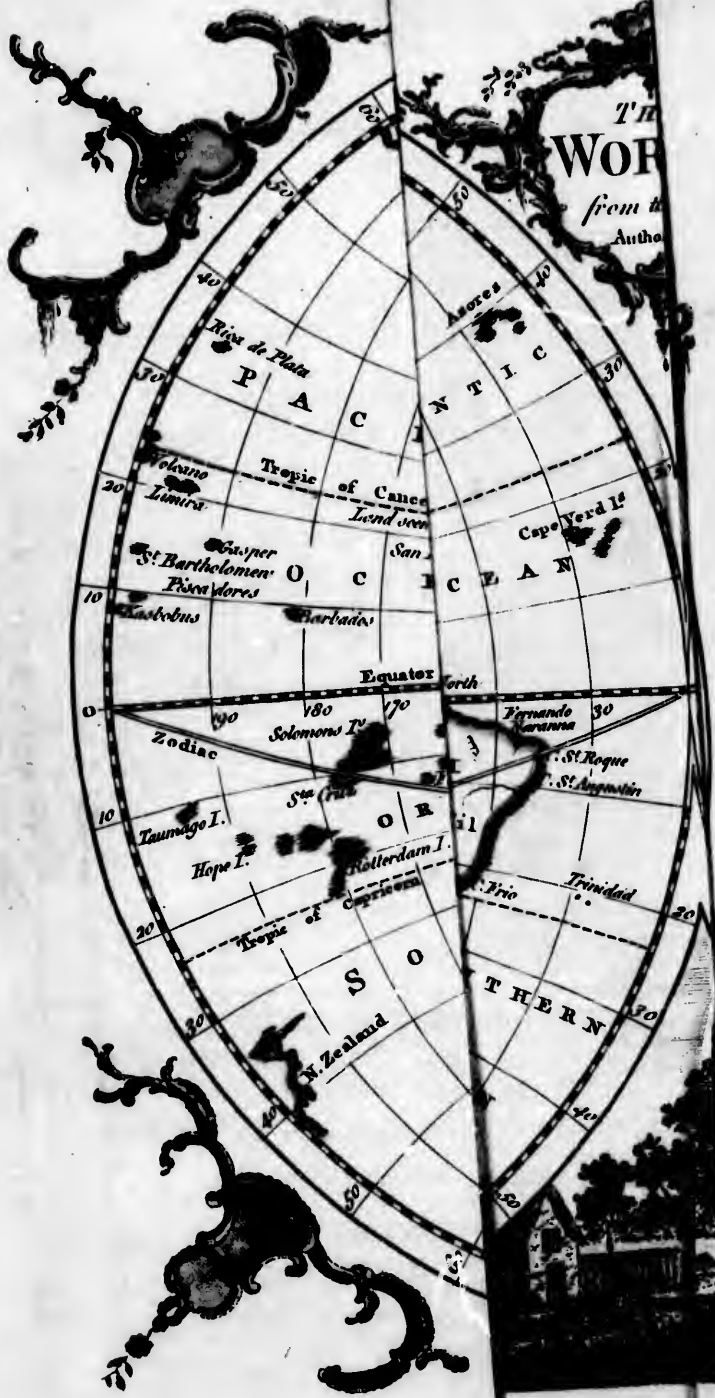


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W I T H

A T A B L E of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in
E N G L I S H M O N E Y .

By W I L L I A M G U T H R I E , E s q .

I L L U S T R A T E D W I T H

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Engraved by M r . K I T C H I N .

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TO a man sincerely interested in the welfare of society and of his country, it must be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progress, and general diffusion of learning and civility, which, within the present age, have taken place in Great Britain. Whatever may be the case in some other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this island, may boast of our superiority to those illiberal prejudices, which not only cramped the genius, but soured the temper of man, and disturbed all the agreeable intercourse of society. Among us learning is no longer confined within the schools of the philosophers, or the courts of the great; but like all the greatest advantages which heaven has bestowed on mankind, it is become as common as it is useful.

This general diffusion of knowledge is one effect of that happy constitution of government, which, towards the close of the last century, was confirmed to us, and which makes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people have little power, and consequently meet with little respect; in Great Britain the people have their due influence, and meet accordingly with a proper share of attention. To their improvement, therefore, some men of letters have lately had an eye; for the great body of the people, no less than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, had a title to be amused, informed, and edified. Books were divested of the terms of the schools, they were reduced from that size which suited them only, to the purses of the rich, and the avocations of the studious; they were adapted to persons of more ordinary fortunes, and whose attachment to

other pursuits, admitted of little leisure for those of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, books adapted to the time, capacity, and other circumstances of the people, more than to the works of our Bacon, our Locke, and our Newton, that the generality of our countrymen owe that superior improvement, which distinguishes them from the common ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and advance this improvement, is the principal design of our present undertaking. No subject appears more interesting than that we have chosen, and none seems capable of being handled in a way that may render it more generally useful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the sublimest pursuit of mankind, is that which most nearly interests them, and to which surely their abilities are best adapted. Books of geography, which describe the situation, extent, soil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, sciences, and arts of all the inhabitants upon earth, promise the best assistance for attaining this knowledge. The Compendium of Geography, we now offer to the public, differs in many particulars from other books on that subject. Besides endeavouring to exhibit an easy, distinct, and systematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, we have attempted to render the following performance, an instructive, though compendious account of the general history and spirit of nations. The character of nations depends on a continuation of a great many circumstances which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a state, than most people seem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural geography, no one of those objects should pass unnoticed. The omission of any one of them would not only deprive us of a piece of knowledge, interesting in itself, but which is absolutely necessary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehensive notion of the subject in general. We have thought it necessary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the history and present state of learning, in the several countries we describe, with the characters of such persons as have been most eminent in the various departments of letters and philosophy. This subject, considered by itself, may be of use, and must appear altogether

P R E F A C E.

ther requisite in this work, when we consider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. These objects, indeed, till of late, seldom occupied any part in geographical performances; and, even where they have been introduced, are far from being handled in the most entertaining or instructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting solely under the influence of avarice, the passion which first induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and indeed were very unqualified to collect such materials as are proper for gratifying our curiosity, with regard to these particulars. The geographer then, who could only employ the materials put into his hand, was in no situation to give us very important information upon such subjects. In the course of the present century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirst for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led several into distant lands. These they have explored with a philosophic attention; the internal springs of action, by which the inhabitants are directed, their external behaviour in public and private life, these have been laid open, and exhibit a natural and striking picture of human manners, under the various stages of barbarity or refinement. Without manifest impropriety, we could not but avail ourselves of these accounts, by means of which, we have been enabled to give a more copious, and a more perfect account of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In considering the present state of nations, few circumstances are of more importance than the mutual intercourse between them. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the oeconomy of modern states, and of which therefore we have never lost sight in the present undertaking.

We were sensible that a reader could not examine the present state of nations with much entertainment or instruction, unless he was also made acquainted with their former condition, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have assumed their present form and appearance. This has given rise to the historical part of this Work, a part which we have endeavoured to execute in a very different manner from what

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is usual. Instead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of news-paper occurrences, occurrences no way connected with one another, or with a general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only such facts as are interesting, either on their own account, or by their relation to objects of importance. Instead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the history of each country, such an epitome as may both be read by itself with advantage, and when considered as an introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the antient names of countries, and in treating of their particular history have sometimes carried our researches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it necessary, for the satisfaction of such readers as are unacquainted with classical learning, to begin our historical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inserting an account of the antient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader, of comparing together not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they subsist at present, but as they subsisted in antient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the history of mankind, renders our work more complete than any thing hitherto published in our language in a geographical treatise.

In the execution of our design, we endeavour to observe order and perspicuity. Elegance we have sacrificed to brevity. Happy if we can catch the leading features which distinguish the characters of nations, and by a few strokes hit off, though not completely finish the picture of mankind in antient and modern times.

What has enabled us to comprise so many subjects within the narrow bounds of this small work, is (besides giving several sheets more than any other geographical treatise of the same price) the omission of many immaterial circumstances, which are recorded in other performances of the same kind, and of all those fabulous accounts or descriptions which, to the disgrace of the human understanding, swell the works of geographers; though the falsity of them, both from their own nature and the concurring testimony of the most enlightened and best-informed travellers and historians, be long since proved.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or less diffuse, according to their importance to us as men, and as subjects of Great-Britain; our own country, in both respects deserved the greatest share of our attention. Great-Britain, though she cannot boast of a more luxuriant soil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and superior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the mistress of the world: these are the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political constitution, and the gentle moderation of her religious system. With regard to those objects therefore, this work is more copious than any other of an equal size.

Next to Great-Britain, we have been most particular upon the other states of Europe; and always in proportion as they present us with the largest field of useful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, an important system of practical knowledge may be raised, and a thousand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, an impartial government, and an extended, unrestrained commerce.

Europe having occupied so large a part of our volume, we next turn our attention to Asia, which, though in some respects the most famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or instruction. In Asia, a strong attachment to antient customs, and the weight of tyrannical power, bears down the active genius of man, and prevents that variety in manners and character, which distinguishes the European nations. But the immense country of China, famous for the wisdom of its laws and political constitution, equally famous for the singularity of its language, literature, and philosophy, deserves to be considered at great length.

In Africa, the human mind seems degraded below its natural state. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country so immersed in rudeness and barbarity, would be disgusting to every humane man, and could afford little instruction to any man. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and sciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, discover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy sameness almost every where prevails; and the little difference

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ference which takes place among them, seems rather to arise from an excess of brutality on the one hand, than from any near approaches towards refinement on the other. But though these quarters of the globe are treated less extensively than Europe, there is no part of them, however barren or savage, intirely omitted.

America, whether considered as an immense continent, inhabited by an endless variety of different people, or as intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deserves very particular attention. The bold discovery, and barbarous conquest of this new world; the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects too, which, together with the national description of the country, deservedly occupy no small share of this performance.

In treating of such a variety of subjects, mistakes, no doubt, must escape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures sketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuse the imperfections of an original draught, which, with all its defects, may be found very generally useful.

We cannot, without transgressing the bounds of a Preface, insist upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are new, and corrected with care, will, we hope, afford satisfaction. The science of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from those who are alone capable of giving it, still remains in a very imperfect state; the exact divisions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical surveys, is far from being well ascertained. This consideration has induced us to adopt the most unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables; which, if they give not the exactest account, afford at least a general idea upon this subject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical science arrives at greater perfection. They are, besides, recommended by their brevity; and the making use of them has enabled us to introduce some subjects more necessary in this undertaking than the minute divisions of countries, whose boundaries and situations we are hardly acquainted with.

INTRODUCTION.

INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

THE science of Geography cannot be compleatly understood without considering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a considerable distance from it. But the science which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called Astronomy. Hence the necessity of beginning this work with an account of astronomy, or of the heavenly bodies. Of these, the most conspicuous is that glorious luminary the sun, the fountain of light and heat to the several planets which move round it, and which, together with the sun, compose what astronomers have called the Solar System. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the sun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by astronomers, that there are six planets which move round the sun, each in its own orbit. The names of these, according to their nearness to the center, or middle point of the sun, are as follow: Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The two first, because they move within the orbit of the earth, (being nearer the sun) are called inferior planets, or, perhaps more properly, interior or inner planets; the three last, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called superior, or, perhaps more properly, exterior or outer planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of these planets, suppose our earth, moves round the sun, we can easily conceive the manner in which all the rest do it. We shall only therefore particularly consider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we shall set down with such explanations as may render it intelligible to the meanest capacity.

The earth, upon which we live, was long considered as one large extensive plane. The heavens, above it, in which the sun, moon, and stars appeared to move daily from east to west, were conceived to be at no great distance from it, and to be only designed for the use or ornament of our earth: several reasons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needless to mention them, because we have now a sufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have actually sailed round it: as from that of Magellan's ship, which was the first that surrounded the globe, sailing east from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the same, after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving around a ball of wax. The roundness of the earth being thoroughly established, proves the way for the discovery of its motion. For while it was considered as a plane, mankind had an obscure notion of its being supported, like a scaffolding on pillars, though they could not tell what supported these. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by considering, that if the earth did not move round the sun, not only

the sun, but all the stars and planets must move round the earth. Now, as philosophers, by reckonings founded on the surest observations, have been able to guess pretty nearly at the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, just as every body that knows the first elements of mathematics can measure the height of a steeple, or any object placed on it; it appeared, that if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we must suppose them endowed with a motion or velocity so immense as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the sun in the space of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in the twenty-four hours. To form a conception of these two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by sliding along like a plane upon wood, or a slate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its surface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way, and that the earth, in the space of twenty-four hours, moves from west to east, the inhabitants on the surface of it, like men on the deck of a ship, who are insensible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the sun and stars move from east to west in the same time of twenty-four hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from west to east. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us easily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the sun. For as that luminary seems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occasioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, so in the course of a year, he seems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to rise and set in different points of them, which is really occasioned by the motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the sun, which it compleats in the time of a year. Now as to the first of these motions we owe the difference of day and night, so to the second we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the seasons of the year. This much being said with regard to the motion of the earth, which the smallest reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, we must observe, before exhibiting our table, that beside the six planets already mentioned, which move round the sun, there are other ten planets which move round three of these, in the same manner as they do round the sun; and of these our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, and Saturn has five: these are all called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was first attended to; and sometimes they are called secondary planets, because they seem to be attendants of the earth, Jupiter, and Saturn, about which they move, and which are called primary. There are but two observations more necessary for understanding the following table. They are these: we have already said that the annual motion of the earth occasioned the diversity of seasons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the plane of its orbit; because then the same parts of the earth would be turned towards the sun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitude of the seasons, arising from the difference in length of the days and nights. This therefore is not the case—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by supposing a spindle put through

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a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the spindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards some quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the spindle to the ground. The same observation applies to some of the other planets, as may be seen from the table. The only thing that now remains, is to consider what is meant by the mean distances of the planets from the sun. In order to understand which, we must learn that the orbit, or path which a planet describes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the shape of a figure called an ellipse, which, though resembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the same planet is not always at the same distance from the sun, and the mean distance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greatest and least distance. Here follows the table.

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the several Planets in the Solar System.

Names of the planets.	Diameters.	Mean distances from the sun, as determined from observations of the transit of Venus, in 1761.	Annual periods round the sun.		Diurnal rotations.	Inclination of Axis to orbit.	Jupiter's moons.		Saturn's moons.	
			Periods round their primary.				Periods round their primary.		Periods round their primary.	
			Miles.	E. miles.			d. h.	d. h.	Moons.	Time.
Sun	763000									
Mercury	2600	36,668,373	87 23	25 6	unkn.					
Venus	7906	68,518,044	224 17		75°					
Earth	7970	94,725,840	365 6	1	23° 29'	1	1 18 36	1	1 21 19	
Moon	2180	ditto	ditto	29 12 2	2° 10'	2	3 13 15	2	2 17 40	
Mars	4444	144,588,575	686 23	24 40	0	3	7 3 59	3	4 12 45	
Jupiter	81000	492,065,307	4332 12	9 56	0	4	16 18 3c		15 22 41	
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The reader having obtained an idea of the solar system from this table, and the previous observations necessary for understanding it, must next turn his reflection to what are called the first stars, which comprehend the luminaries above our heads that have not been explained. The fixed stars are distinguished by the naked eye from the planets, by being less bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the stars. This arises from their being so extremely small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the sight of them; when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star, and this succession being perpetual, occasions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their situation with regard to each other, as the planets, from what we have already said, must evidently be always changing theirs. The stars which are nearest to us seem largest, and are therefore called of the first magnitude. Those of the second magnitude appear less, being at a greater distance; and so proceeding on to the sixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed stars which are visible without a telescope. As to their number, though in a

clear winter's night without moonshine they seem to be innumerable, which is owing to their strong sparkling, and our looking at them in a confused manner, yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the antients, into signs and constellations, the number that can be seen at a time by the bare eye, is not above a thousand. Since the introduction of telescopes indeed, the number of the fixed stars has been justly considered as immense; because the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. Mr. Flamsteed, royal astronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about three thousand stars, which is the most compleat that has hitherto appeared. The immense distance of the fixed stars from our earth, and one another, is of all considerations the most proper for raising our ideas of the works of God. For notwithstanding the great extent of the earth's orbit round the sun, the distance of a fixed star is not sensibly affected by it; so that the star does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest the star, than it seemed to be when the earth was at the most distant part of its orbit from the same star. The star nearest us, and consequently the biggest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable that each of these fixed stars is a sun, having worlds revolving round it, as our sun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-star appears 27,000 times less than the sun, and as the distance of the stars must be greater in proportion as they seem less, mathematicians have computed the distance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thousand millions of miles. The motion of light therefore, which though so quick as to be commonly thought instantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the stars to us, than we do in making a West-India voyage. A sound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is commonly considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with.

The first people who paid much attention to the fixed stars, were the shepherds in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly from amusement, and partly with a view to direct them in their travelling during the night, observed the situation of these celestial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the stars into different companies or constellations, each of which they supposed to represent the image of some animal, or other terrestrial object. The peasants in our own country do the same thing, for they distinguish that great northern constellation which philosophers call the Ursa Major, by the name of the Plough, the figure of which it certainly may represent with a very little help from the fancy. But the constellations in general have preserved the names which were given them by the antients; and they are reckoned twenty-one northern, and twelve southern: but the moderns have increased the number of the northern to thirty-four, and of the southern to thirty-one. Beside these there are the twelve signs or constellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word signifying an animal, because each of these twelve represent some animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we shall speak hereafter. In the mean time, we shall conclude this section with an account of the rise, progress, and revolutions in astronomy.

Mankind must have made a very considerable improvement in observing the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could so far disengage themselves from the prejudices of sense and popular opinion, as to believe

believe that the earth upon which we live was not fixed and immoveable. We find accordingly, that Thales, the Milesian, who, about six hundred years before Christ, first taught astronomy in Europe, had gone so far in this subject as to calculate eclipses, or interpositions of the moon betwixt the earth and the sun, or of the earth between the sun and the moon (the nature of which may be easily understood, from what we have already observed.) Pythagoras, a Greek philosopher, flourished about fifty years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reason to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itself was in motion, and that the sun was at rest. He found that it was impossible, in any other way, to give a consistent account of the heavenly motions. This system, however, was so extremely opposite to all the prejudices of sense and opinion, that it never made great progress, or was widely diffused in the ancient world. The philosophers of antiquity despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, set themselves to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the case with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philosopher, who flourished a hundred thirty-eight years before Christ. He supposed, with the vulgar, who measure every thing by themselves, that the earth was fixed immovably in the center of the universe, and that the seven planets, considering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed stars, then the chrystalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, last of all, the cœlum empyrium, or heaven of heavens. All these vast orbs are supposed to move round the earth once in twenty-four hours; and besides that, in certain stated or periodical times. To account for these motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called excentrics and epicycles, crossing and interfering with one another. This system was universally maintained by the Peripatetic philosophers, who were the most considerable sect in Europe, from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, though a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean, or true system of the universe; and published it to the world in 1530. This doctrine had been so long in obscurity, that the restorer of it was considered as the inventor; and the system obtained the name of the Copernican philosophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe, however, was still immersed in sense and ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with those of a refined philosophy. This occasioned Copernicus to have few abettors, but many opponents. Tycho Brache, in particular, a noble Dane, sensible of the defects of the Ptolemaic system, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured to establish a new system of his own, which was still more perplexed and embarrassed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the center of its orbit; and it makes the sun to be the center of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The sun, however, with all the planets, is supposed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This system however, absurd as it was, met with its advocates. Longemontanus, and others, so far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they insisted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkness of a great many ages, the first dawn of learning and taste began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate astronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the use of telescopes, which discovered new arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy indeed had almost checked this flourishing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system, as a damnable heresy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed the one half of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the scriptures were not given for explaining systems of natural philosophy, but for a much nobler purpose, to make us just, virtuous, and humane: that instead of opposing the word of God, which in speaking of natural things suits itself to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God himself, in tracing the nature of his works, which the more they are considered, afford us the greater reason to admire his glorious attributes of power, wisdom, and goodness. From this time, therefore, noble discoveries were made in all the branches of astronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was discovered and illustrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called Gravity, or attraction, and is the same by which any body falls to the ground, when disengaged from what supported it. It has been demonstrated, that this same law which keeps the sea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the surface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the universe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preserves the whole fabric of nature from confusion and disorder.

S E C T . II.

Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the universe in general, in which the earth has been considered as a planet, we now proceed to the Doctrine of the Sphere, which ought always to be premised before that of the globe or earth, as we shall see in the next Section. In handling this subject, we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any mistake, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe, from which it appears that it is the *real* motion of the earth, which occasions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is besides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our senses, which always lead us to conceive the matter in this way. The imagination therefore is not put on the stretch; the idea is easy and familiar, and in delivering the elements of science, this object cannot be too much attended to. N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occasionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial sphere, on the opposite page.

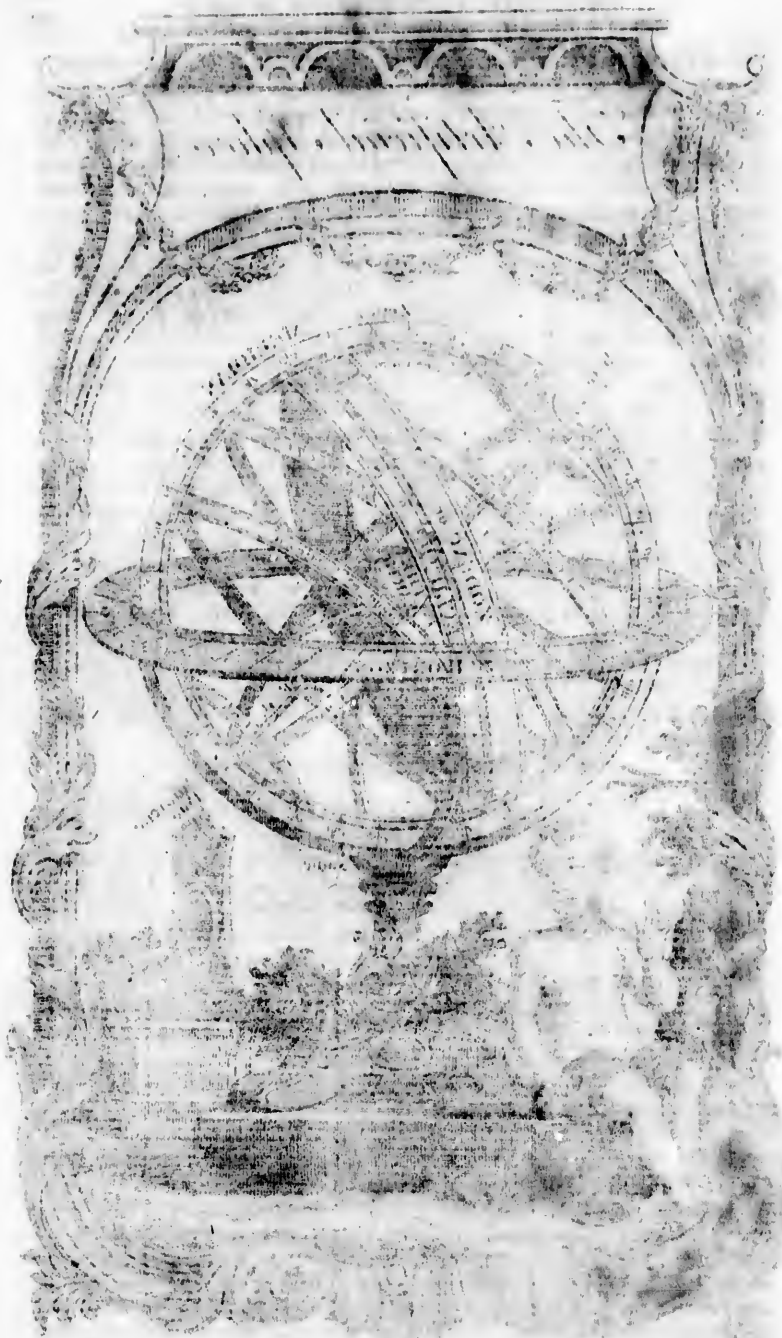
The ancients observed that all the stars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from east to west, in twenty-four hours: that the circles, which they described in those revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the same magnitude; those passing over the middle of the earth, being the largest of all, while the rest diminished in proportion

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tion to their distance from it. They also observed that there were two points in the heavens, which always preserved the same situation. These points they termed celestial poles, because the heavens seemed to turn round them. In order to imitate these motions, they invented what is called the Artificial Sphere, through the center of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an Axis, whose extremities were fixed to the immovable points called Poles. They farther observed, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle described by the sun, was at an equal distance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, must divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the Equator or Equaller. It was also called the Equinoctial Line, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed that from the $\frac{17}{11}$ of June, to the $\frac{11}{12}$ of December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned toward that from whence he set out from $\frac{11}{12}$ of December, to the $\frac{17}{11}$ of June; they fixed these points which they called Solstices, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them; and represented the bounds of the sun's motion, by two circles, which they named Tropicks, because the sun no sooner arrived there than he turned back. The astronomers observing more nearly the motion of the sun, observed that the quantity by which he acceded or receded from the equator, in a day's time, was nearly a degree in the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in the heavens, which passing through certain constellations, which had been distinguished by the name of animals, they called the Zodiac. This circle touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely. To express this motion they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from, and parallel to this circle, which they called the Poles of the Zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the two polar circles. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called Colures, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed that, when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a Meridian, and which is immoveable in the artificial sphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half spheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

S E C T. III.

The Doctrine of the GLOBE naturally follows that of the SPHERE.

BY the Doctrine of the Globe is meant the representation of the different places and countries, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Now the manner in which geographers have represented the situation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the sphere to the artificial globe: and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an ex-

ample. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, there was nothing more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined, according as they lay on one side of the equator or another. The same may be observed of the other circles of the sphere above-mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded, may proceed to consider this doctrine itself, or in other words, the description of our earth, as represented by the artificial globe.

Figure of the EARTH.

Though in speaking of the earth, along with the other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body; yet it has been discovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a sphere or ball, is not perfectly so. This matter occasioned great dispute between the philosophers of the last age, among whom Sir Isaac Newton and Cassini, a French astronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Isaac demonstrated from mechanical principles, that the earth was an oblate sphere, or that it was flattened at the poles or north and south points, and juttred out towards the equator; so that a line drawn through the center of the earth, and passing thro' the poles, which is called a Diameter, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same center, and passing through the east and west points. The French philosopher asserted quite the contrary. But the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who sent out a company of philosophers towards the north pole, and likewise towards the equator, in order to measure a degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in these different parts; and from their report, the opinion of Sir Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles, than towards the equator. The reason of this figure may be easily understood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly observed, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of clay, on a spindle, and whirl it round, we shall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Now this is exactly the case, with regard to our earth, only that its axis, represented by the spindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly spherical, the difference from that figure is so small, that it may be represented by a globe or ball, without any sensible error.

Circumference and Diameter of the EARTH.

In the general table we have exhibited, page 3, the diameter of the globe is given, according to the best observations: so that, three times this diameter, or twenty-four thousand eight hundred and forty English miles, will be its circumference nearly. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of measuring, to be divided into three hundred and sixty parts or degrees, each degree containing sixty geographic miles, or sixty-nine English miles. These degrees are in the same manner conceived to be divided each into sixty minutes.

Axis and Poles of the EARTH.

The Axis of the Earth is that imaginary line passing through its center, on which it is supposed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the Earth; one in
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the north, and the other in the south, which are exactly in the same direction with two stars in the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of these poles is of great use to the geographer, in determining the distance and situation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; so that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator, and contrariwise, in removing from the poles you approach the equator.

Circles of the GLOBE.

These are commonly divided into the greater and lesser. A great circle is that whose plane passes through the center of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemispheres. A lesser circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot pass through the center of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are six in number, the lesser only four.

EQUATOR.

The first great circle we shall speak of is the Equator, which we have had occasion to hint at already. It is called sometimes the Equinoctial, the reason of which we have explained; and by navigators it is also called the Line, because, according to their rude notions, they believed it to be a great line drawn upon the sea from east to west, dividing the earth into the northern and southern hemispheres, and which they were actually to pass in sailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It passes through the east and west points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and southern hemispheres. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, the use of which will soon appear.

HORIZON.

This great circle is represented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers very properly distinguish the horizon into the sensible and rational. The first may be conceived to be made by any great plane on the surface of the sea, which seems to divide the heavens into two hemispheres, the one above, the other below the level of the earth. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place, for when they begin to appear above the eastern edge, we say they rise, and when they go beneath the western, we say they are set. It appears then that each place has its own sensible horizon. The other horizon, called the Rational, encompasses the globe, exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane, as those of all circles are) are called the Zenith and Nadir; the first exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it: of these the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the Zodiac (of which hereafter) viz. thirty to each sign. Next to this you have the names of these signs. Next to this the days of the month according to the old stile, and then according to the new stile. Beside these there is a circle, representing the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compass. The use of all these will be explained afterwards.

MERIDIAN.

MERIDIAN.

This circle is represented by the brazen frame, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; so that counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eastern and western hemispheres. This circle is called the meridian, because when the sun comes to the south part of it, it is then midday or midday, and then the sun has its greatest altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the sun is never in its meridian altitude, at two places east or west of one another, at the same time, each of these places must have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.

The Zodiac is a broad circle, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve signs above-mentioned are represented. In the middle of this circle is supposed another called the Ecliptic, from which the sun never deviates in his annual course, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve signs are,

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|-------------|---|--------|------------------|---|-----------|
| 1. Aries ♈ | — | March | 7. Libra ♎ | — | September |
| 2. Taurus ♉ | — | April | 8. Scorpio ♏ | — | October |
| 3. Gemini ♊ | — | May | 9. Sagittarius ♐ | — | November |
| 4. Cancer ♋ | — | June | 10. Capricorn ♑ | — | December |
| 5. Leo ♌ | — | July | 11. Aquarius ♒ | — | January |
| 6. Virgo ♍ | — | August | 12. Pisces ♓ | — | February. |

COLURES.

If you imagine two great circles passing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points Cancer and Capricorn, these are called the Colures, the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solstitial Colure. These divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are denominated according to the points which these pass through, viz. the four cardinal points, and are the first points of Aries, Liber, Cancer and Capricorn, and these are all the great circles.

TROPICS.

If you suppose two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes distance from it, measured on the brazen meridian, and one towards the north, the other towards the south, these are called Tropics, because the sun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former course. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, because they pass through these points.

POLAR CIRCLES.

If two other circles are supposed to be drawn at the distance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, these are called the Polar Circles. The northern is called the Arctic, because the north pole is near the constellation of the Bear, the southern, the Antarctic, because opposite to the former. And these are the four lesser circles. Beside these ten circles now described, which are always drawn on the globe, there are several others, which are only

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supposed to be drawn on it. These will be explained as they become necessary, lest the reader should be disgusted with too many definitions at the same time, without seeing the purpose for which they serve. The main design then of all these circles being to exhibit the respective situation of places on the earth, we shall proceed to consider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found easier to distinguish places by the quarters of the earth, in which they lay, than by their distance from any one point. Thus after it was discovered, that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemispheres, it was easy to see that all places on the globe might be distinguished according as they lay on the north, or south side of the equator. Besides, after the four lesser circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and consequently that the places on its surface might be distinguished according as they lay in one or other of these portions, which are called Zones or Belts, from their partaking of breadth. That part of the earth between the Tropics, was called by the ancients the Torrid or Burnt Zone, because they conceived, that, being continually exposed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the sun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and sandy desarts. This notion, however, has long since been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almost throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but so fruitful, that in many places they have two harvests in a year; all sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes more perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls, than all the rest of the earth together. In short, the countries of Africa, Asia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all respects the most fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two temperate zones are comprised between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, because meeting the rays of the sun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat. The two frigid zones, lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are inclosed within the polar circles. They are called Frigid or Frozen, because most part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen so long as the sun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However these zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much less fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all these zones is thoroughly discovered by the Europeans. Little is known to us of the southern temperate zone, and though some islands and sea coasts in the northern frigid zone have come to our knowledge, we have none at all of the southern frigid zone. The northern temperate, and torrid zones, are those we are best acquainted with.

But the divisions of the earth into hemispheres and zones, tho' it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not sufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the distances between one place and another. This however is still more necessary; because it is of more importance to mankind, to know the situation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itself. The first step taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what is called Climates. It was observed that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longest day increased in proportion as we advanced north or south on either side of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or south of

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the equator, or what is called the Latitude of the place, from the greatest length of the day from that place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different distances from the equator. And as they called the space contained between these circles, Climates, because they declined from the equator towards the pole, so the circles themselves may be called Climatical Parallels. This therefore was a new division of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and still continues in use, though, as we shall shew, the design which first introduced it, may be better answered in another way. There are thirty climates between the equator and either pole. In the first twenty-four, the days encrease by half hours, but in the remaining six, between the polar circle and the poles, the days encrease by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the use of the globe; in the mean time we shall insert a table, which will serve to shew in what climate any country lies, supposing the length of the day, and the distance of the place from the equator to be known.

CLIMATES between the EQUATOR and POLAR CIRCLES.

Climates.	Hours.	Latitude.		Climates.	Hours.	Latitude.	
		D.	M.			D.	M.
1	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	25	13	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	59	58
2	13	16	25	14	19	61	18
3	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	50	15	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	62	25
4	14	30	25	16	20	63	22
5	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	28	17	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	64	06
6	15	41	22	18	21	64	49
7	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	45	29	19	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	65	21
8	16	49	01	20	22	65	47
9	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	52	00	21	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	06
10	17	54	27	22	23	66	20
11	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	56	37	23	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	28
12	18	58	29	24	24	66	31

CLIMATES between the POLAR CIRCLES and the POLES.

Length of Days.		Latitude.		Length of Days.		Latitude.	
Months.	D.	M.		Months.	D.	M.	
1	67	21		4	78	30	
2	69	48		5	84	05	
3	73	37		6	90	00	

The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their Latitude, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian circle above described. For we have only to bring the place, whose latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and will be exactly over the place. Now this is the manner alluded to, by which the distance of places from the equator, is most properly distinguished; but it could not be adopted, until the figure and circumference of the earth were known, after which it was easy to determine the number of miles in each three hundred and sixtieth part or degree of this circumference, and consequently know the latitude of places. As latitude is reckoned from the equator, towards the poles; it is either northern or southern, and the nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than ninety degrees of latitude, because the poles where they terminate, are at that distance from the equator.

Parallels of LATITUDE.

Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers suppose a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The intersection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, shews the true situation of that place.

LONGITUDE.

The longitude of a place is its situation with regard to its meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the east or west; in reckoning the longitude there is no particular spot from which we ought to set out preferably to another, but for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary Islands, was considered as the first meridian in most of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. These degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than a hundred and eighty degrees of longitude, because the circumference of the globe being three hundred and sixty degrees, no place can be removed from another, above half that distance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the equator. Hence in sixty degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are set down in the following table.

A TABLE

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R. CIRCLES.

e.	Breadth.	
	D.	M.
8	1	29
8	1	20
5	1	07
2	0	57
6	0	44
9	0	43
1	0	32
7	0	22
6	0	19
0	0	14
8	0	08
1	0	03

the POLES.

Latitude.	
D.	M.
8	30
4	05
0	00

The

A T A B L E

S H E W I N G

The Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	62	52	37	00	82	08	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	79	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	51	96	60	30	00	90	00	00

LONGITUDE

LONGITUDE and LATITUDE found.

To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we shall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of these degrees into miles, according to the table above given, and remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to sixty geographic miles, or sixty-nine English, we shall be able exactly to determine the distance between any places on the globe.

Distance of PLACES measured.

The Distance of Places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly south, north, east, or west, from one another, may be measured in a readier way, by extending the compasses from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For instance, extend the compasses from Guinea in Africa, to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the distance to be twenty-five degrees, which at sixty miles to a degree, makes the distance one thousand five hundred miles.

QUADRANT of ALTITUDE.

In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of brass, screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains ninety degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the distances and bearings of places, are measured without the trouble of first extending the compasses between them, and then applying the same to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.

This is a small brazen circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

PROBLEMS performed by the GLOBE.

To rectify the GLOBE.

This is to render it fit for resolving any question, and consequently is always supposed to be the first thing that is done. When the globe is rectified, it has the same situation with regard to the heavens, which the earth itself has. Now in order to give it this, as suppose on the 17th of December at Holt, in Norfolk, whose latitude is $52^{\circ} 45'$, we first set the globe upon a true plane, then elevate or raise the pole, according to the given latitude, by moving the brazen meridian through the notches of the horizon; then to find the place of the sun in the ecliptic, we look for December 17, in the circle of months on the wooden horizon, and right against it in the circle of signs we find the sun in $6^{\circ} 56'$ of Capricorn. Then we bring the degree of the ecliptic, the sun is in for that day, to the meridian, and turn the index of the hour circle to twelve on the south side of the hour circle. And now is the globe rectified for December 17 at noon in Holt.

A general.

gitude, in

Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
29	04
28	17
27	24
26	30
25	36
24	41
23	45
22	48
21	51
20	52
19	54
18	55
17	54
16	53
15	52
14	51
13	50
12	48
11	45
10	42
09	38
08	35
07	32
06	28
05	23
04	18
03	14
02	09
01	05
00	00

LONGITUDE

A general Problem containing what is most difficult in all the rest.

The day and hour being given, to find all those places of the earth where the sun is then rising, setting, or on the meridian; also where it is day-light, twilight, or dark night. Suppose the day and hour to be July 22, a quarter before seven in the morning, at London. First rectify the globe for the latitude of London, which is $51^{\circ} 32'$ north. Then find the sun's place in the ecliptic, for the 22d of July, which is twenty-one degrees of Leo, which bring to the brass meridian, and it will cut the meridian in thirteen degrees north latitude. Then bring London to the meridian, and point the hour index to a quarter before seven in the morning. Then turn the globe about till the index comes to twelve at noon; look for thirteen degrees north latitude on the brass meridian, and you will find under it fort St. George in the East Indies, at which place therefore the sun is then vertical, i. e. directly over their heads. Afterwards rectify the globe for the latitude of fort St. George, which is thirteen degrees north, and bring fort St. George to the meridian, and the problem will be performed. For in all places above the horizon it is day-light, which happens to be almost all Europe, Asia, and Africa, having the sun above the horizon so many degrees, as the places themselves are. And in all places under the horizon, which happen to be all America, it is dark night; except within eighteen degrees of the horizon, where it is twilight. And further, all the places in the west half circle of the horizon, have the sun rising, and all in the east have the sun setting. It is noon in all the places under the upper part of the meridian, and midnight with those under the lower part of the meridian.

To find what Hour it is in any Part of the World.

Keeping the globe in the same situation, we may find what is o'clock in any part of the world, by means of the hour circle, and by bringing the place to the brass meridian. Thus when it is twelve o'clock at fort St. George, it wants a quarter from seven at London, and so of the rest; it is easy to observe from this, that those places which lie fifteen degrees to the east of us, have the sun an hour before us; and, on the contrary, that those which lie the same number of degrees to the west of us, have the sun an hour after us. So that when it is twelve o'clock at London, it is one at Naples, and eleven at the Madeira islands, every fifteen degrees of longitude answer to one hour of time. Hence were it possible to make a clock so perfect as to keep time, without gaining or losing, or being at all affected by the motion of a ship, it would be easy to determine the longitude at sea. For whatever contrivance will shew the hours of the day, at two different places in the same absolute point of time, will shew the difference of longitude between those places, by the easy operation of reducing every hour of time into fifteen degrees of longitude. There are a variety of other problems, some of which called Paradoxes, are more curious than useful, which may be performed on the globe. These however can occasion no difficulty to such as understand what has been already advanced; and seem to have been introduced into works of this kind, rather from a desire to amuse, than to instruct.

Of the Natural Divisions of the EARTH.

The constituent parts of the Earth are two, the land and water. The parts of the land are continents, islands, peninsulas, isthmus's, promontories, capes, coasts, mountains, &c.

A continent is a large portion of land, containing several countries or kingdoms, without any entire separation of its parts by water, as Europe. An island is a smaller part of land, quite surrounded by water, as Great-Britain. A peninsula is a tract of land every where surrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent: and that neck of land which so joins it, is called an Isthmus. A promontory is a hill, or point of land, stretching itself into the sea, the end of which is called a Cape. A coast or shore is that part of a country which borders on the sea side. Mountains, valleys, woods, desarts, plains, &c. need no description. The most remarkable are taken notice of, and described in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, seas, lakes, straits, gulphs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c.

The ocean is a great and spacious collection of water, without any entire separation of its parts by land, as the Atlantic ocean. The sea is a smaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land, as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A lake is a large collection of water, entirely surrounded by land, as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A strait is a narrow part of the sea, restrained or lying between two shores, and opening a passage out of one sea into another, as the strait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. A gulph is a part of the sea running up into the land, and surrounded by it, except at the passage whereby it communicated with the sea or ocean. If a gulph be very large, it is called an inland sea, as the Mediterranean; if it do not go far into the land, it is called a bay, as the Bay of Biscay; if it be very small, a creek, haven, station, or road for ships, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no description, for these lesser divisions of water, like those of land, are to be met with in most countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to strengthen the remembrance of the great parts of land and water we have described, it may be proper to observe, that there is a strong analogy or resemblance between them. The description of a continent resembles that of an ocean, an island encompassed with water resembles a lake encompassed with land. A peninsula of land is like a bay or creek of sea: and an isthmus, whereby two lands are joined, resembles a strait, which unites one sea to another. To this description of the divisions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correspond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we shall subjoin a table, exhibiting the superficial content of the whole globe in square miles, sixty to a degree, and also of the seas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewise of the great empires and principal islands, which shall be placed as they are subordinate to one another in magnitude.

	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.	
The Globe	148,510,627	Hispaniola	36,000	Skye	900	
Seas and unknown Parts	117,843,821	Newfoundland	35,500	Lewis	880	
The Habitable World	30,666,806	Ceylon	27,730	Funen	768	
Europe	2,749,349	Ireland	27,457	Yvica	625	
Asia	10,257,487	Formosa	17,000	Minorca	520	
Africa	8,506,208	Anian	11,900	Rhodes	480	
N. America	3,699,087	Gilolo	10,400	Cephalonia	420	
S. America	5,454,675	Sicily	9400	Amboyna	400	
Persian Empire under Darius	1,650,000	Timor	7800	Orkney Pomona	324	
Roman Emp. in its utmost height	1,610,000	Sardinia	6600	Scio	300	
Russian	3,303,485	Cyprus	6300	Martinico	260	
Chinese	1,749,000	Jamaica	6000	Lemnos	220	
Great Mogul	7,116,000	Flores	6000	Corfu	194	
Turkish	960,057	Ceram	5400	Providence	168	
Present Persian	800,000	Briton	4000	Man	160	
Islands.	Borneo	228,000	Socatora	3600	Bornholm	160
	Madagascar	168,000	Candia	3200	Wight	150
	Sumatra	120,000	Porto Rico	3200	Malta	150
	Japan	118,000	Corfica	2520	Barbadoes	140
	Great Britain	72,926	Zeland	1935	Zant	120
	Celebes	68,400	Majorca	1400	Antigua	100
	Manila	58,500	St. Jago	1400	St. Christopher's	80
	Iceland	46,000	Negropont	1300	St. Helena	80
	Terra del Fuego	42,075	Teneriff	1272	Guernsey	50
	Mindinao	39,200	Gotland	1000	Jersey	45
	Cuba	38,400	Madeira	950	Bermudas	40
	Java	38,250	St. Michael	920	Rhode	36

WINDS and TIDES.

We cannot finish the doctrine of the earth, without considering Winds and Tides, from which the changes that happen on its surface principally arise.

WINDS.

The earth on which we live is every where surrounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends to several miles above its surface, and is called Air. It is found by experiments, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded, so as to fill a very large space, or to be compressed into a much smaller compass than it occupied before. The general cause of the expansion of air is heat, the general cause of its compression is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmosphere, receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compressed. But when air is put in motion, we call it wind in general; and a breeze, gale, and storm, according to the quickness or velocity of that motion. Winds therefore, which are commonly considered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cause, and act with more or less uniformity in proportion as the action of this cause is more or less constant. It is found by observations made at sea, that from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees south, there is a constant east-wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the Trade Wind. This is occasioned by the action of the sun, which in moving from east to west heats, and consequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a stream, or tide of air, always accompanies him in his course,

Islands.	Squ. Mls.
Keye	900
Lewis	880
Lucien	768
Vtica	625
Minorca	520
Rhodes	480
Cephalonia	420
Amboyna	400
Orkney Pomona	324
Scio	300
Martinico	260
Lemnos	220
Corfu	194
Providence	168
Man	160
Bornholm	160
Wight	150
Malta	150
Barbadoes	140
Zant	120
Antigua	100
St. Christopher's	80
St. Helena	80
Guernsey	50
Jersey	45
Bermudas	40
Rhode	36

course, and occasions a perpetual east-wind within these limits. This general cause however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious, and complicated for our present plan; which is to mention facts rather than theories. It is likewise found then, that in some parts of the Indian ocean, which are not more than two hundred leagues from land, there are periodical winds, called Monsoons, which blow half the year one way, and half the year another way. At the changing of these monsoons, which always happen at the equinoxes, there are terrible storms of thunder, lightning, wind and rain. It is discovered also, that in the same latitudes, there is another kind of periodical winds, which blow from the land in the night, and good part of the morning, and from the sea about noon, till midnight; these however do not extend above two or three leagues from shore. Near the coast of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru in South America, the winds blow constantly from the south-west. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and south, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great-Britain, are more variable, tho' they blow oftener from the west than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd, and the easternmost of the Cape Verd Islands, there is a tract of sea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and such rains, that this sea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

TIDES.

By the tides is meant that regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The Doctrine of the Tides remained in obscurity till the immortal Sir Isaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonstrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the solar system, by which they mutually draw or attract one another, in proportion to their distance, it follows, that those parts of the sea, which are immediately below the moon, must be drawn towards it, and consequently wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the sea will be raised, which occasions the flowing of the tide there. A similar reason occasions the flowing of the tide likewise in those places where the moon is in the Nadir, and which must be diametrically opposite to the former; for in the hemisphere farthest from the moon, the parts in the Nadir being less attracted by her, than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate less towards the earth's center, and consequently must be higher than the rest. Those parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees distant from the Zenith or Nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the Zenith and Nadir rise at the same time, the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards those places, to maintain the equilibrium; to supply the places of these others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the Zenith and Nadir, where the water will be lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow, twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe. The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is about the times of new and full moon, and are called Spring Tides; for at these times the actions of both the sun and moon are united, and draw in the same straight line, and consequently the sea must be more elevated: at the con-

Considering Winds
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junction, or when the sun and moon are on the same side of the earth, they both conspire to raise the waters in the Zenith, and consequently in the Nadir; and at the opposition, or when the earth is between the sun and moon, while one occasions high water in the Zenith and Nadir, the other does the same. The tides are less than ordinary twice every month, about the first and last quarters of the moon, and are called Neap Tides; for in the quarters the sun raises the waters where the moon depresses them, and depresses where the moon raises them; so that the tides are only occasioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is nearest us, prevails over that of the sun. These things would happen uniformly, were the whole surface of the earth covered with water; but since there are a multitude of islands, and continents, which interrupt the natural course of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the situation of shores, straits, and other objects, which have a share in producing them.

M A P S.

A map is the representation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane surface. Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth, but a map no more than a plane surface can represent one that is spherical. But altho' the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of several of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall very much short of the globe for exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe itself.

C A R D I N A L P O I N T S.

The north is considered as the upper part of the map; the south is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the east is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the west on the left hand, opposite to the east. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or lines of longitude; and from side to side, parallels of latitude. The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distances, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the distance of two places, suppose London and Paris, by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses or a bit of thread, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows that London is two hundred and ten miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west from one another, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning these into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shades; sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures representing fathoms.

PART II.

Of the Origin of NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT,
and COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even sometimes, in speaking of these countries, carried our historical researches beyond modern times; it was thought necessary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular history of each country we describe, to place before his eye a general view of the history of mankind, from the first ages of the world, to the reformation in religion during the sixteenth century. By a history of the world, we do not mean a mere list of dates, which, when taken by itself, is a thing extremely insignificant; but an account of the most interesting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the causes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itself, and indispensibly requisite to the understanding of the present state of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, constitutes the most useful branch of that science.

It appears in general, from the first chapters of Genesis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous, that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and were become highly licentious in their morals and behaviour. Their irregularity gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were swept from off the face of the earth. The deluge produced a very considerable change on the soil and atmosphere of this globe, and gave them a form less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which hath ever since made such havock in the world. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge, the re-peopling of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, was long preserved among their several descendants. Japhet continued famous among the western nations under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter-Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation some centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beasts, and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity universally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow creatures, and to found at Babylon the first monarchy, whose origin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Assur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surprize it may have occasioned to the learned some centuries ago, need not in the smallest degree excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen, from many instances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how speedily mankind increase

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3044.

2640.

when the generative faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extensive than those of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during this early age; and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God, was obliterated or obscured. This occasioned the calling of 2026. Abraham to be the father of a chosen people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins a little to expand itself; and we learn several particulars of very considerable importance.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they set themselves to oppress and destroy one another. Chaderlaomer, king of the Elamites or Persians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, must not have been very considerable, since, in one of these expeditions, Abraham, assisted only by his household, set upon him in his retreat, and after a fierce engagement, recovered all the spoil that had been taken. Abraham was soon after obliged, by a famine, to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to settle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occasion to Moses to mention some particulars with regard to the Egyptians, and every stroke discovers the characters of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is described in the most brilliant colours. He is surrounded with a crowd of courtiers, solely occupied in gratifying his passions. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been so justly admired for their wisdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes who laboured for their establishment and perfection.

1833. But in the time of Jacob, the first principles of civil order and regular governments seem to have been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into several districts or separate departments; councils, composed of experienced and select persons, were established for the management of public affairs; granaries for preserving corn, were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age enjoyed a commerce far from inconsiderable. These facts, though of an ancient date, deserve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the present inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, till the time of Ninus, king of Nineveh, who, by the splendor of his actions, reflects light on this dark history. Fired by the spirit of conquest, he extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominion, and lays the foundation of that monarchy which, under the name of the Assyrian empire, kept Asia under the yoke for many ages.

The history of Europe now begins to dawn. Javan, son of Japhet, and grandson of Noah, is the stock from whom all the people known by the

the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands in the western coast of Asia Minor, from whence it was impossible that some wanderers should not pass over into Europe. To these first inhabitants succeeded a colony from Egypt, who, about the time of Abraham, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans soon fell asunder; and the ancient Greeks, who were at this time the most rude and barbarous people in the world, again fell back into their lawless and savage manner of life. Several colonies, however, soon after passed over from Asia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more considerable alteration on the manners of its inhabitants. The most ancient of these were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former settled in Argos, and the later in Attica. We know extremely little of Ogyges or his successors. Those of Inachus endeavoured to unite the dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful. But the history of God's chosen people, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during those ages. The train of curious events which occasioned the settling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are universally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint version, 1794 years before Christ. This is a pretty remarkable era with respect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks considered as altogether unknown, and which they have hardly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us view this period then in another point of view, and consider what we can learn from the sacred writings, with respect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations. It is a common error among writers on this subject, to consider all the nations of antiquity as being on the same footing with regard to those matters. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in that situation. They discover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wisdom of the first ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in points of arts and refinement, as between the civilised kingdoms of modern Europe and the Indians in America or Negroes on the coast of Africa. Noah was, undoubtedly, acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world; these he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their posterity. Those nations therefore who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, and who had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor was possessed of, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made considerable improvements in the arts which are most subservient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the first ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is hardly to be supposed that the ancient cities, both in Asia and Egypt, whose foundation, as we have already mentioned, ascends to the remotest antiquity, could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations who live by hunting or pasturage only, lead a wandering life,

and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and though we cannot trace the steps by which it was introduced among the antient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, ascertain the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be pretty considerable, before the metals come to be considered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of an antient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness: and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abram gave silver, the metal is weighed in presence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice went into disuse, and the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the second from Abram. The resilah, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a precise and stated value. It appears, from the history of Joseph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Ismaelites and Medianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, resembling the modern caravans, who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The same observations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the best chronology, was a native of Arabia Felix, and cotemporary with Jacob. He speaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans who set out from those cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we shall have reason to conclude, that the countries into which they were sent for sale, and particularly Egypt, were considerably improved in arts and refinement; for few people think of luxuries until the useful arts have made high advancements among them. In speaking of commerce, we ought carefully to distinguish between the species of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by sea; which last kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and slower in its progress. Had the descendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wise ancestors, it is improbable they should have ventured on navigating the open seas so soon as we find they did. That branch of his posterity who settled on the coasts of Palestine, were the first people of the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce; they were distinguished by a word which in the Hebrew tongue signifies merchants, and are the same nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phenicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they set themselves to better their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object; and with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they pass for the inventors of whatever is subservient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his last words to his children: and if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of such remote antiquity, the Phenicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

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The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, supposes the know-
 ledge of several others ; astronomy, for instance, or a knowledge of the
 situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is necessary both to agri-
 culture and navigation ; that of working metals, to commerce ; and so
 of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, several
 nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to
 measure by them the duration of their year. It had been an universal
 custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide
 time into the portion of a week, or seven days : this undoubtedly arose
 from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural
 for those nations who led a pastoral life, or who lived under a serene sky,
 to observe that the various appearances of the moon were compleated
 nearly in four weeks : hence the division of a month. Those people
 again who lived by agriculture, and who had got among them the divi-
 sion of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of these brought
 back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons : hence the
 origin of what is called the lunar year, which has every where taken
 place in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of
 the fixed stars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, must have been
 very antient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the solar year,
 which at that time would be thought an immense improvement in astro-
 nomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have
 mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyp-
 tians and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a frightful spectacle during
 this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages be-
 came the patterns of politeness and every elegant art, were descended
 from a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting
 the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes
 to one another. This, however, is no more than what was to be ex-
 pected. The descendants of Noah, who removed at a great distance from
 the plains of Sennaar, lost all connection with the civilised part of man-
 kind. Their posterity became still more ignorant ; and the human mind
 was at length sunk into an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect that, from the death of Jacob, and as we
 advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and
 Assyria would emerge from their obscurity : this, however, is far from
 being the case ; we only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear in-
 tirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninus, who succeeded
 Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the ^{2120.}
 history of this empire for no less than eight hundred years. The si-
 lence of antient history on this subject is commonly attributed to the
 softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afford-
 ed no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the
 great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns
 of a wise prince pass unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a
 prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed about the time to have ^{2341.}
 mounted the throne of Egypt. By his assiduity and attention, the civil
 and military establishments of the Egyptians received very considerable
 improvements. Egypt, in the time of Sesostris and his immediate suc-
 cessors, was in all probability the most powerful kingdom upon earth,
 and according to the best calculation is supposed to have contained
 twenty-seven millions of inhabitants. But antient history often excites,
 without gratifying our curiosity ; for from the reign of Sesostris to that

760. of Boccharis, we know not even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumstances, the country must still have continued in a very flourishing condition, for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, that school for all who aspire after wisdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece, 1582. with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilise the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the institutions which Cecrops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer in what situations they must have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are so barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beasts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and without all knowledge of those to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who succeeded 1532. Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, pursued the same beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wise institutions, to bridle the keen passions of a rude people.

Whilst these princes used their endeavours for civilising this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphiction, one of those uncommon geniusses who appear in the 1522. world for the benefit of the age in which they live and the admiration of posterity, to think of some expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politicks the several independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from those intestine divisions which must render them a prey to one another, or to the first enemy who might think proper to invade them. These reflections he communicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preservation. Two deputies from each of these cities assembled twice a year at Thermopylae, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictionic Council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy was discussed and finally determined. Amphiction likewise, sensible that those political connections are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictions the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of those who consulted the oracle, had been amassed in it. This assembly, constituted on such solid foundations, was the great spring of action in Greece, while that country preserved its independence; and by the union which it inspired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties against all the force of the Persian empire.

Considering the circumstances of the age in which it was instituted, the Amphictionic council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment which ever took place among mankind. The Greek states, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the community. The first of these 720. was the obscure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine Sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ship Argo, which was the admiral of the

the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that several sail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, long tossed about upon different coasts. The rocks, at some distance from the mouth of the Euxine sea, occasioned great labour: they sent forward a light vessel, which passed through, but returned with the loss of her rudder. This is expressed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their sending out a bird which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at *Æon*, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not less considerable than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition, to that against Troy, the motive to which is known to all the world, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in power and opulence: no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. These vessels, however, were but half decked: and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus considered the state of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumstances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our present undertaking, because it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progress of government, arts, and manners, which compose so great a part of our present work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable resemblance between the political situation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans or tribes was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with one another, and sometimes with their sovereign. Such a situation was in all respects extremely unfavourable: each particular state was in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphiction. They required the hand of another delicate painter to shade the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, which, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus, king of Attica, had acquired a flourishing reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He saw the inconveniencies to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed, and he conceived that by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain, and even to increase his popularity among the peasants and artificers; he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes

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from the leaders who commanded them: he abolished the courts which had been established in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theseus, however, did not trust solely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by establishing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither strangers from all quarters, by the prospect of protection and privileges, he raised this city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendor of Athens and Theseus now totally eclipsed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the state was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occasioned so much confusion, by being divested of all influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude sketch of the origin of the first monarchy, of which we have a distinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other states of Greece. This country, however, was not destined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence arose, which in a short time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes; the nobles, the artificers, and the husbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had bestowed many privileges on the two other ranks of persons. This plan of politics was followed by his successors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their sovereign, and partly from the progress of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became considerable and independent. These circumstances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of ¹⁰⁹⁵ great merit, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter should be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was so much the more remarkable, as it happened almost at the same time that the ¹⁰⁷⁹ Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and desired a mortal sovereign, that they might be like unto other nations.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian states, much about the same time, assumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phenicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the last sovereign being overcome in single combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans abolished the regal power. Till the days, however, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of seven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican spirit. Other cities of Greece, after the example of Thebes and Athens, erected themselves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival states, which by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve our principal attention. We have seen a tender shoot of liberty spring up in the city of Athens, upon the decease of Codrus, its last sovereign. This shoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleasant to observe its progress. The Athenians, by abolishing the name of king,

did

did not intirely subvert the regal authority : they established a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same rights which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians, however, in time, became sensible that the archontic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free state. After it had continued therefore three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same hands, was three years. But the desire of the Athenians for a more perfect system of freedom than had hitherto been established, increased in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a fresh reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magistrates should be appointed for this office. These magistrates were not only chosen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. These alterations were too violent not to be attended with some dangerous consequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the most unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens, and it was impossible that the ancient customs of the realm, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished, by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuary spirits of the Athenians, in the first flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiser part of the state, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy and confusion, to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, but executed it with so much rigour, that in the words of an ancient historian, " His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again returned into confusion and disorder, and remained so till the time of Solon. The gentle manners, disinterested virtue and wisdom more than human, by which this sage was distinguished, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, tho' this employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, however, the motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation, and determined him to enter on an ocean pregnant with a thousand dangers. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, except those relating to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual, by means of its severity. Solon next proceeded to new model the political law; and his establishments on this head, remained among the Athenians, while they preserved their liberties. He seems to have set out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible into practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office.

fice. They had a voice however in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, which was composed of all the citizens, should in the words of Plutarch, like a ship with too many sails, be exposed to the gust of folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though but a court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendant in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen, but after the strictest scrutiny, and most serious deliberation. Such was the system of government established by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the same plan most of the other antient republics were established. To insist on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor instructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had something in it so peculiar, that the great lines of it at least ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this sort. Sparta, like the other states of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. At length, the two brothers Euristhenes and Procles, getting possession of this country, became conjunct

1072. in the royalty, and what is extremely singular, their posterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years. The Spartan government, however, did not take that singular form which renders it so remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legislator. The plan of policy devised by Lycurgus, agreed with that already described, in comprehending a senate and assembly of the people, and in general in all those establishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently circumscribed by proper checks and restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution, arose from this, that in all his laws Lycurgus had at least as much respect to war, as to political liberty. With this view all sorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing in short, which had the smallest tendency to soften the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbid the use of money, they lived at publick tables on the coarsest fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks capable to bear arms, were daily accustomed to the most painful exercises. To the Spartans alone war was a relaxation, rather than a hardship, and they behaved in it with a spirit of which none but a Spartan could even form a conception. In order to see the effect of these principles, and to connect under one point of view the history of the different quarters of the globe, we must cast our eye on Asia, and observe the events which happened in those great empires, of which we have so long lost sight. We have already mentioned in what obscurity the history of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Baccharis.

762. From this period to the dissolution of their government, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wisdom of their laws, and political institutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of these seem to have been dictated by the true spirit of civil wisdom, and were admirably

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tably calculated for preserving order and good government in an extensive kingdom. The great empire of Assyria likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell asunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapulus, the last emperor of Assyria, neglecting the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, governor of Babylon, conspire against their sovereign, set fire to his capitol, and divide between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, maintained the chief sway in Asia, till Cyrus the Great reduced this quarter of the world under the Persian yoke. 536. The manners of this people as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly described by Xenophon, a Grecian philosopher and historian. It is not necessary, however, that we should enter on the same detail upon this subject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, sufficient examples of monarchical government; but how few are our republics? But the era of Cyrus is in one respect extremely remarkable, because with it the history of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be supposed to finish. Let us consider then the genius of the Assyrians, Babylonians and Egyptians, in arts and sciences, and if possible discover what progress they had made in those acquirements, which are most subservient to the interests of society. The taste for the great and magnificent, seems to have been the prevailing character of these nations; and they principally displayed it in their works of architecture. There are no vestiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the testimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works, which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finished. There are three pyramids still remaining in Egypt, at some leagues distance from Cairo, which are supposed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largest is five hundred feet in height, and two thousand six hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. It was a superstition among this people, derived from the earliest times, that even after death, the soul continued in the body, as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the custom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body, such vegetables as experience had discovered to be the greatest preservatives against putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the same view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as these superstitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably secure a safe, and comfortable retreat for their souls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the east, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that indeed they were superb and magnificent structures, but totally devoid of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the constructing of vaults. The arts, in which these nations, next to architecture,

tecture, principally excelled, were sculpture and embroidery. As to the sciences, they had all along continued to bestow their principal attention on astronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progress in explaining the causes of the phenomena of the universe, or indeed in any species of rational and sound philosophy. To demonstrate this to an intelligent reader, it is sufficient to observe, that according to the testimony of sacred and profane writers, the absurd reveries of magic and astrology, which always decrease in proportion to the advancement of true science, were in high esteem among them, during the latest periods of their government. The countries which they occupied, were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the necessaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accustomed to a civilized and polished life in great cities. These circumstances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an easy prey to the Persians, a nation just emerging from barbarity, and of consequence, brave and warlike. This was still more easy in the infancy of the military art: when strength and courage were the only circumstances which gave the advantage to one nation over another, when properly speaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times, have been discovered to be so useful in stopping the progress of a victorious enemy, and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we must now turn our attention to other objects. The history of Persia, after the reign of Cyrus, offers little, when considered in itself, that merits our regard: but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly interesting. The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks, to exercise these virtues, which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's institutions: Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidae, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, when the lust of universal empire, which never fails to torment the breast of tyrants, led Darius to send forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Persians were no longer those invincible soldiers, who under Cyrus had conquered Asia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and servitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whose minds were nobly animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame an army of a hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. His countrymen Themistocles, and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not, however, fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the noblest monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over servitude, deserve to be read at length in ancient writers. Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with two million one hundred thousand men; and being every where defeated by sea and land, escaped to Asia in a fishing boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks, so well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe, that wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around for happiness in vain." Tho' the Persian war concluded gloriously for the Greeks, it is, in a great measure, to this war, that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they suffered the loss of

so many brave men, but those in which they acquired an immensity of Persian gold, it was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connection with the Persians, after the conclusion of it, which subverted the Grecian establishments, and ruined the most virtuous confederacy that ever existed upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another: their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedemonians acted as principals, and drew 43¹. after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip, king of Macedon, a country till his time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful, rendered himself the absolute master of Greece, by the battle of Cheronæa. But this conquest is one of the first we meet in history, which did not de- 33⁸. pend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his schemes so deep, and by bribery, promises and intrigues, gained over such a number of considerable persons in the several states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue, which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal orators, in most of their states, were bribed into the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more seductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of winning their affections.

Philip had proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire, beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long survive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians and Thebans. These made a feeble effort for expiring liberty. But they were obliged to yield to superior force. Secure on the side of Greece, Alexander set out on his Persian expedition, at the head of thirty 33⁰. thousand foot, and five thousand horse. The success of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in overrunning and subduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been described by many authors both ancient and modern, and constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their 32³. ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives rise to a number of æras and events, too complicated for our present purpose, and even too uninteresting. After considering therefore the state of arts and sciences in Greece, we shall pass over to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple, and also more important.

The bare names of illustrious men, who flourished in Greece, from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period all the arts were carried to the highest pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawning of this glorious day. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people

in the world, who in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Ephesian Diana, are the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who settled in Asia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias the Athenian, is the first sculptor, whose 448. works have been immortal. Zeuxis Parrhasius and Timantheus, during the same age, first discovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Homer, the tragic poets Æschylus, Sophocles and Euripides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to prosaic writing. Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes, to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not however in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine Socrates, whose character has had the honour to be compared with that of the great founder of our religion; his three disciples Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which these philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expression. But the Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors, and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced into an art by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effect of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians: the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphiction, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established in Greece.

But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important, as their territory was inconsiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are still more interesting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they stand to those of modern Europe. The character of Romulus, the founder 733. of the Roman state, when we view him as the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme insignificance. But when we consider him as the founder of an empire as extensive as the world, and whose progress and decline have occasioned the two greatest revolutions, that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being interested in his conduct. His disposition was extremely martial; and the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small, but independent districts, afforded a noble field for the display of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours, and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandize themselves, but even to subsist. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe the

same maxims by which the Romans afterwards became the masters of the world. Instead of destroying the nations he had subjected, he united them to the Roman state, whereby Rome acquired a new accession of strength from every war she undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumstance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any considerable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the use of that weapon, and improved the military system of the Romans, by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both these maxims, by means of which the Roman state arrived at such a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, instantly threw aside the latter, and made use of the Sabine buckler in fighting against other states. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He instituted what was called the Senate, a court originally composed of a hundred persons, distinguished for their wisdom and experience. He enacted laws for the administration of justice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly passions of his followers: and after a long reign spent in promoting the civil or military interests of his country, was, according to the best conjecture, treacherously put to death by the members of that senate, which he himself had instituted. 715.

The successors of Romulus were all very extraordinary personages. Numa, who came next to him, established the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inspired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the soul of their military discipline. Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign, for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the seventh and last king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to support it by the most cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the insolence of his son Sextus Tarquinius, who, by dishonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occasioned the expulsion of the Tarquin family, and with it the dissolution of the regal government. As the Romans however were continually engaged in war, they found it necessary to have some officer invested with supreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprises. In the room of the kings therefore they appointed two annual magistrates called Consuls, who, without creating the same jealousy, succeeded to all the power of their sovereigns. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The consuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were desirous of signalizing their reign by some great action: each vied with those who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out against some new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inspired to deeds of valour by every consideration which could excite them: that the citizens of Rome were all soldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be surprized, that they should, in the course of some centuries, extend their power all over Italy. 264.

The Romans, now secure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians.

thaginians. This state had been founded on the coast of the Mediterranean in Africa, some time before Rome, by a colony of Phenicians, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatness.

Carthage, in this design, had proved wonderfully successful. She now commanded both sides of the Mediterranean. Besides that of Africa, which she almost entirely possessed, she had extended herself on the Spanish side, through the streights. Thus mistress of the sea, and of commerce, she had seized on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itself; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not to take up arms. Hence a succession of hostilities²⁶⁴ between these rival states, known in history by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was a truckling state; but she was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a model, in three months²⁶⁰ fitted out a fleet; and the consul Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpose to mention all the transactions of these wars. The behaviour of Regulus, a Roman general, may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being taken prisoner in Africa, he is sent back on his parole to negotiate a change of prisoners. He maintains in the senate, the propriety of that law, which cut off from those who suffered themselves to²⁵⁵ be taken, all hopes of being saved, and returns to a certain death.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies, the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal the Carthaginian, was the most inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred against the Romans, and having settled the intestine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inspire his son, though but nine years old, with his own sentiments. For this purpose he ordered a solemn sacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his son to the altar, asked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition against the Romans; the courageous boy, not only consented to go, but conjured his father by the gods present, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will swear upon the altars, to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied, and the solemnity of the ceremony, and the sacredness of the oath, made such an impression upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface.²²⁰

Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he crosses the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and in a moment falls down upon Italy. The loss of four battles threaten the fall of Rome.

Sicily sides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declares against the Romans, and almost all Italy abandons them.²¹² In this extremity Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour, and the military

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tary ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The strength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raises the siege of Nola, takes Syracuse, and revives the drooping spirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of these great men, but saw something more divine in the young Scipio. The success of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converse with the gods. At the age of four and twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings submit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and sees her armies defeated. Hannibal, sixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hostages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the consent of the Roman people. After the conquest of Carthage, Rome had inconsiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconsiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great. Their scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The states of Greece had once more engaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Achæans, and Bœotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. Of them all the Etolians were the most considerable. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally possessed over his less powerful neighbours. Philip, the present monarch, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps; the Etolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory however chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the states of Greece became their dependants. The Etolians, discovering their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another still more dangerous to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them against Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourse to the same prince, and who was at this time the most powerful monarch in the east, and the successor to the dominions of Alexander in Asia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice so much, as that of the Etolians; for instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be most vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a small body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. In this war the Romans made use of Philip, for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now pursue Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and having vanquished him by sea and land, compel him to submit to an infamous treaty. In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to possess their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which however, under a specious name,

concealed the most servile of all conditions, and inferred, that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on these easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from a barbarous prince, Mithridates king of Pontus. This monarch however had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men, whose minds were not enervated by pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous.

The different states of Greece and Asia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince, who dared to shew himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was compelled to yield to the superior star of the Romans. Vanquished

65. successively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and of his life. In Africa the Roman arms met with equal success. Marius, in conquering Ju-

105. gurtha, made all secure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps, began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonensis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teu-

121. tones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The same Marius, whose name was so terrible in

102. Africa, made the north of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians retired to their wilds and deserts, less formidable than the Roman legions.

But while Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an internal war within her walls. This war had subsisted from the first periods of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed but a nominal liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were distinguished by the name of Patricians, were invested with so many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependance, and became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes on this subject arose betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

These disputes, however, while the Romans preserved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous consequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with some of their privileges to satisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the first offices of the state, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conquest of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eastern courts, and sported with every thing just and honourable, in order to obtain them, the state, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either side, to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody seditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguishable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it easy for any turbulent demagogue, to put them in action against each other. The love of their country was now no more than a specious name; the better sort were too wealthy and effeminate to submit to the rigours of military discipline, and the soldiers, composed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They knew none but their commander; under his banner they fought and conquered and plundered, and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embroil their hands in the blood of their country.

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They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conquests, however, which required their keeping on foot several armies at the same time, retarded the subversion of the republic. These armies were so many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the soldiers of Sylla, Rome would have surrendered its liberty to the army of Marius. Julius Cæsar at length appears. By subduing the Gauls, he gained his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharsalia. Cæsar victorious appears in a moment all over the world, in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain; conqueror on all sides, he is acknowledged master at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius think to give Rome her liberty, by stabbing him in the senate house. But they only subject her to tyrants, who, without his clemency or abilities, were not inferior in ambition. The republic falls into the hands of Mark Anthony; young Cæsar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæsar, pulls it from him by the sea fight at Actium; there is no Brutus nor Cassius, so put an end to his life. The friends of liberty have killed themselves in despair, and Octavius, under the name of Augustus, and title of emperor, remains the undisturbed master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations, and while it was unknown who should be master at Rome, the Romans were without dispute the masters of the world; their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Persian, the Greek, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory, and they were now only a name. No sooner therefore was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors from all quarters of the globe, crowd to make their submissions. Æthiopia sues for peace, the Parthians, who had been a most formidable enemy, court his friendship, the Indies seek his alliance, Pannonia acknowledges him, Germany dreads him, and the Weser receives his laws. Victorious by sea and land, he shuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jesus Christ comes into the world.

Having thus traced the progress of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to say a few words with regard to the arts, sciences, and manners of that people. During the first ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politicks, and agriculture were the only arts they studied, because they were the only arts they esteemed. But upon the downfall of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taste the sweets of security, and to cultivate the arts. Their progress however was not gradual as in the other countries we have described. The conquest of Greece at once put them in possession of every thing most rare, curious, or elegant. Asia, which was the next victim, offered all its stores, and the Romans, from the most simple people, speedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are only inferior to those of Demosthenes; which, according to all our ideas, are perfect productions. In poetry Virgil yields only to Homer, whose verse, like the prose of Demosthenes, is perfect and inimitable. Horace however, in his satires and epistles, had no model among the Greeks, and stands to this day univalled

in that species of writing. In history the Romans can boast of Livy, who possesses all the natural ease of Herodotus, and is more descriptive, more eloquent, and sentimental. Tacitus indeed did not flourish in the Augustan age, but his works do himself the greatest honour, while they disgrace his country and human nature, whose corruption and vices he paints in the most striking colours. In philosophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the system of the Greek philosopher Epicurus, described in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the least attempt. In tragedy, they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of style, wants that comica vis, or lively vein of humour, which distinguished the Greek comedians, and which distinguishes our Shakespeare.

We now return to our history, and are arrived at an æra, which presents us with a set of monsters, under the name of emperors, whose histories, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. They did not indeed abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguished its liberties, and while they were practising the most unwarrantable cruelties upon their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. They made the world to tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recal to our mind the situation of Turkey at present. It is of no importance therefore to consider the character of the emperors, since they had no power but what arose from a mercenary standing army, nor to enter into a detail with regard to the transactions of the court, which were directed by that caprice, and cruelty and corruption, which universally prevail under a despotic government. When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained, for the emperors to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though these countries had been discovered, they were not effectually subdued by the Roman generals. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars, with the Germans, are described by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is easy to discover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they submitted to a foreign yoke. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were on both sides bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste, the inhabitants perished in the field, many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners, of their new masters. These however were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of their arms, for being overawed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumstance which could support them under these complicated calamities, was the hope of seeing better days.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths and Vandals, and other Barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various provinces of Germany, which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the north of Europe, and north-west of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country, by that restlessness which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in quest of plunder, or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only roused them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, of the friends they had lost, and warm them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men, says an elegant historian, in describing this scene of desolation, with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth, like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted were occupied by more remote tribes of Barbarians. These, in their turn, pushed forward into more fertile countries, and like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the Barbarians marched, their rout was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred, and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period, in the history of the world, during which, the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, labour, and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horror of it. *The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor about the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Christianity, changed the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. This occasioned a prodigious alteration. The western and eastern provinces were separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the east, threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome (now known by the name of the Western Empire, in contradistinction to Constantinople, which from its situation, was called the Eastern Empire) weakened by this division, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Adoaces, a Barbarian chieftain, sits down on the throne of the Cæsars. These irruptions into the empire, were gradual and successive. The immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. The ancient discipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was so efficacious, that the remains of it descended to their successors, and must have proved an over-

match for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite dish. The tyranny, and the universal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or as they are called Cæsars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations, who overcame them.

Towards the close of the sixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were masters of the southern, and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarce any vestige of the Roman policy, jurisprudence, arts or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dresses, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period till the sixteenth century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste were words scarce in use during these ages. Persons of the highest rank, and in the most eminent stations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not understand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; some of them could scarce read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior genius of Charlemagne, who, about the beginning of the ninth century, governed France, Germany, with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and gave their subjects a short glimpse of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and institutions. The darkness returned, and settled over Europe more thick and heavy than formerly.

A new division of property gradually introduced a new species of government formerly unknown; which singular institution is now distinguished by the name of the feudal system. The king or general, who led the Barbarians to conquest, parcelled out the lands of the vanquished among his chief officers, binding those on whom they were bestowed, to follow his standard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the sovereign, and in distributing portions of their lands among their dependants, annexed the same condition to the grant. But though this system seemed to be admirably calculated for defence against a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a system of oppression.

The usurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude. They were deprived of the natural and most unalienable rights of humanity. They were slaves fixed to the soil, which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by sale, or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and sought redress at the head of his vassals. His adversary met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependants of the aggressor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter*.

* This Gothic system still prevails in Poland; and a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland so late as the year 1748. See page 70—381.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. They declared, that as all men were by nature free born, they determined it should be so in reality as well as in name. In order to create some power, that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controuled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude, and formed them into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.

The acquisition of liberty made such a happy change in the condition of mankind, as roused them from that stupidity and inaction into which they had been sunk by the wretchedness of their former state. A spirit of industry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flourish.

Various causes contributed to revive this spirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourse between different nations. Constantinople, the capital of the eastern, or Greek empire, had escaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the west. In this city, some faint glimmerings of light, literature, and science were preserved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where some relish for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was preserved. They communicated some knowledge of these to their neighbours in Italy; and the crusades, which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Turks from Jerusalem, opened a communication between Europe and the East. Constantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Christian armies, in their way to Palestine or on their return from thence. Though the object of these expeditions was conquest and not commerce, and though the issue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the close of the holy war, the mariners compass was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian states, particularly those of Venice and Genoa, began to establish a regular commerce with the East, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. These commodities they disposed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire some taste of elegance, unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the commerce of Europe was almost in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in these ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or societies of Lombard merchants settled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of these companies settled in London; hence the name of Lombard Street.

While the Italians in the south of Europe cultivated trade with such industry and success, the commercial spirit awakened in the North towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburgh, soon after they had begun to open some trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived such advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable

cities,

cities, scattered through those vast countries of Germany and Flanders which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the Hanseatic League; which became so formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greatest monarchs. The members of this powerful association formed the first systematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general assemblies. They supplied the rest of Europe with naval stores; and pitched on different towns, the most eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they established staples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the center of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to such extent as well as advantage, as spirited among them a general habit of industry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the most opulent, the most populous, and best cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flourishing state of these provinces, of which he discovered the true cause, Edward III. of England, endeavoured to excite a spirit of industry among his own subjects, who, blind to the advantages of their situation, and ignorant of the source from which opulence was destined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt those manufactures, the materials of which they furnished to foreigners. By alluring Flemish artisans to settle in his dominions, as well as by many wise laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and first turned the active and enterprising genius of his people towards those arts which have raised the English to the first rank among commercial nations.

The Christian princes, after their great losses in the crusades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendship of the great khans of Tartary, whose fame in arms had reached the most remote corners of Europe and Asia, that they might be some check upon the Turks, who had been such enemies to the Christian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, serving occasionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the finest countries of Asia.

The Christian embassies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering profession of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of these infidels. The English philosopher, Roger Bacon, was so industrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrims, and other books of travels. The first regular traveller of the monkish kind, who committed his discoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with some of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Christian subjects in that prince's extensive dominions. Soon after this, a spirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greatest princes of Tartary, whose conquests

conquests reached to the most remote corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the use of gunpowder and artillery; the discovery made by a German chymist being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the rising power of the Turks, had checked their progress, the Christian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vast riches of the East Indies, inspired their countrymen with a spirit of adventure and discovery, and were the first that rendered a passage thither by sea probable and practicable. The Portuguese had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their discovery of the Cape of Good-Hope, Great-Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

At first they contented themselves with short voyages, creeping along the coast of Africa, discovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progress southward, they, in the year 1497, were so fortunate as to sail beyond the Cape, which opened a passage by sea to the eastern ocean, and all those countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the east, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the west. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen, as chimerical and absurd, he laid his scheme successively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he succeeded, through the interest of queen Isabella, who raised money upon her jewels to defray the expences of his expedition, and to do honour to her sex.

Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested.

In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with, and his sailors, always discontented, began to insist upon his return, threatening, in case of refusal, to throw him overboard; but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of land, after a passage of thirty-three days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found, to his surprize, that this could not be the Indies he was in quest of, and which he soon discovered to be a new world: of which the reader will find a more circumstantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness into which she had been sunk since the subversion of the Roman empire. These discoveries, from which such wealth was destined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were succeeded by others of unspeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and sciences; and, lastly, the happy reformation in religion, all distinguish the 15th and 16th century as the first æra of modern history. "It was in these ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected, after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions, and so many foreign wars, of which we have given some account in the history of each particular state in the following

following sheets. The great events which happened then have not hitherto spent their force. The political principles and maxims then established, still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, still influence the councils of European nations."

We shall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with Europe.

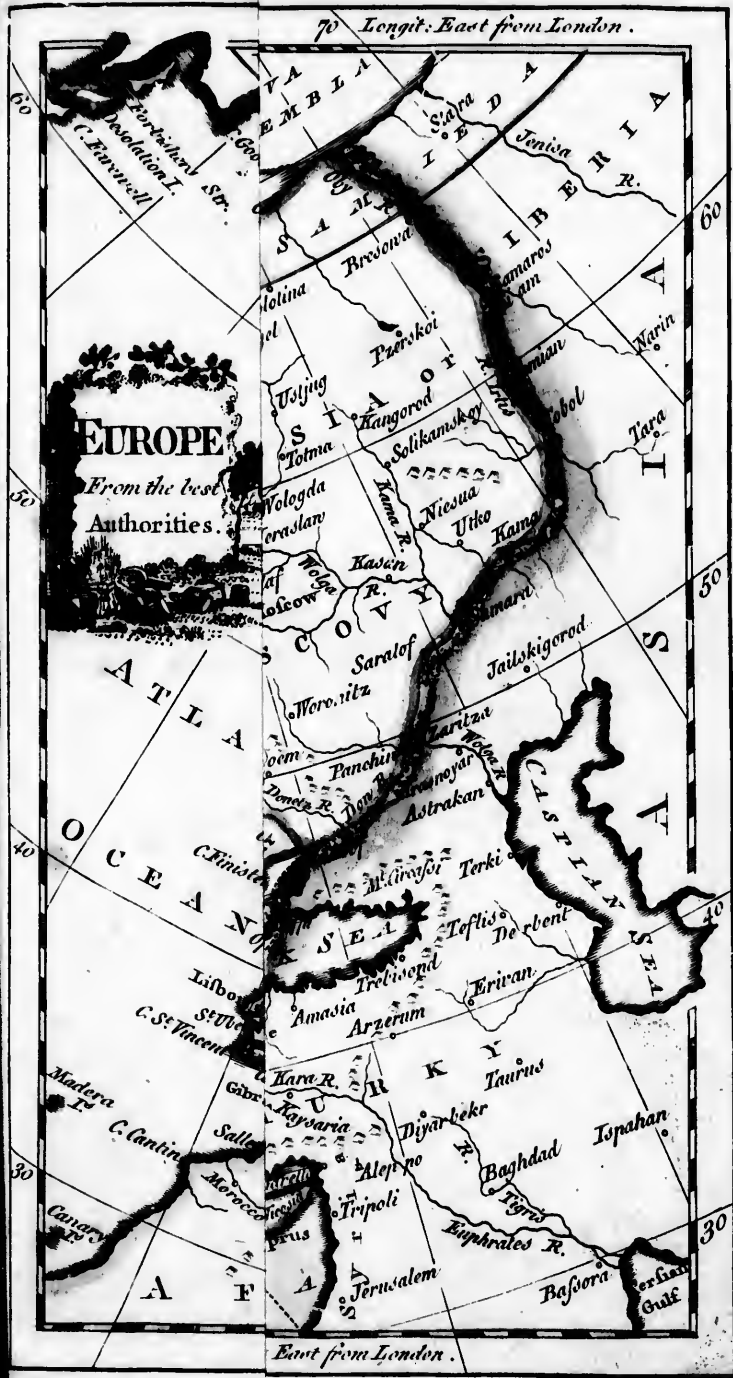
Grand Divisions of EUROPE.

THIS grand division of the earth is situated between the 10th deg. west and the 65th degree east lon. from London; and between the 36th and 72d deg. of north lat. 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, and 2500 broad. It contains the following kingdoms and states.

Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief City.	Dist. & Bearing from London.	Diff. of Time from London.	Religions.	
British Empire.	England	360	London	Miles. * * *	H. M. * * *	Lutherans	
	Scotland	300	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Calvinists	
	Ireland	285	Dublin	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	Luth. and Pap.	
	Norway	1000	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans	
	Denmark	240	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans	
	Sweden	800	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans	
	Russia	1500	Peterburg	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek Church	
	Poland	700	Warsaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.	
	K. of Pru. } Domin. }	uncertain		Berlin	540 E.	0 59 bef.	Luth. & Calv.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.
Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	Papists	
Nether-lands.	Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calvinists
	Flanders	200	200	Brussels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	Papists
France	600	500	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Papists	
Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Papists	
Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	850 S. W.	0 38 aft.	Papists	
Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvin. & Papists	
Italy.	Several small states	Piedmont, Montserrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuscany, &c.		Turin, Casal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.			
	Papedom	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	Papists
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	Papists
Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	Papists	
Turkey in Europe.	Danubian } Provinces }	600	420	{ Constantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mahometans, with some
	Lit. Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	Jews and
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 37 bef.	Christians.

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Religions.

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Calvinists
Luth. and Pap.
Lutherans
Lutherans
Greek Church
Pap. Luth. & Cal.
Luth. & Calv.
Pap. Luth & Cal.
Papists
Calvinists
Papists
Papists
Papists
Calvin. & Papists
Genoa, Tuscany, &
Genoa, Florence.
Papists
Papists
Papists
Mahometans,
with some
Jews and
Christians.

T. Kitchen Sculp :



T. Kitchen Sculp.







Meridian of London

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Hoy Thorgon
Cable Mount
The 7 Isles

Amsterdam I.
Kars Sound
Foreland I.
T. Sound
Bell Bay
Horn Sound
Hookout

Thorsens Bay
Ryk loes I?
Blaxmens I.
Hjeppe I.

Cherry Island

North Cape
Sury I.
North Kin
Hardhus

Saruen I.

Maelstrom

SWEDEN RUSSIA

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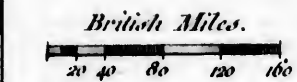
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SCAGGERA

SWEDEN

NORWAY

DENMARK

RUSSIA

SWEDEN

15

20

25

30

35 Deg. E. fr. London

SWEDEN.
DENMARK.
NORWAY.
and
FINLAND.



T. Kitchin Sculp.

Hours East from London



E U R O P E.

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. Denmark proper; 3d. Norway; and 4th. his German territories.

The dimensions of this country may be seen in the following table.

	Denmark.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	London.	Dift. fr. Copenh.	Dift. fr. Copenh.
Lutherans.	Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg,	475	117	
	Sleswick,	2,115	70	63	Sleswick,	274	114	
	Zealand I.	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN,	238		
	Funen I.	768	38	32	Odenfee,	437	73	
	Falster and Laland I.	} 220	27	12	Nikoping,	248	46	
	Femeren I.		50	13	8	Borge,	285	73
	Alfen I.	54	15	6	Sonderborge,	260	95	
	Mona I.	39	14	5	Stege,	490	32	
	Bornholm I.	160	20	12	Rottomby,	265	74	
	Iceland I.	46,000	435	185	Skalholt,	374	1050	
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen,	205	345	
	Wardhuys,	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys,	547	1000	
	Oldenburg,	1260	62	32	Oldenburg,	305	220	
Lower Saxony, Stromar,	1000	52	32	Gluckstat,	127	152		
	Total—	163,001						

The reader may perceive, that in the above 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, however, 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.

EAST GREENLAND,

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. lon. 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 raggedness of its rocks. There is a whale-fishery, chiefly prosecuted by the Dutch and some British vessels, on its coasts. 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. lon. and between 60 and 73 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: Mr. 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 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 dextrous.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of whales in the seas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increasing for ages, is one of the greatest curiosities in nature. These fields, or pieces of ice, are more than a mile in length frequently, and upwards of a hundred feet in thickness; and when they are put in motion by a storm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had thirteen ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

There are several kinds of whales in Greenland; some white, and others black. One of the black sort, the grand bay whales, 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 eighteen feet long, inclosed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse-hair; and on each side of his tongue are two hundred and fifty pieces of this whalebone. 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

men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats usually belong to one ship.

When they come near the whale, the harpooneer 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. So soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooneers 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 up streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins, till the sea is all 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 by 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 sixty and a hundred barrels of oil, of the value of 3*l.* or 4*l.* a barrel. Though the Danes claim this country of East Greenland, where these whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolized this fishery.

I C E L A N D,

LIES between 63 and 68 deg. N. lat. and between 10 and 26 deg. W. lon. from the meridian of London; extending from east to west about 720 miles.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants are supposed to be about 80,000; though it is thought that they were formerly far more numerous, till the country was depopulated by the small-pox and pestilential diseases. They are subject to the crown of Denmark, and conform to the religion and laws of Norway. His Danish majesty names their governor, called Staffs-amptmaud; but he appoints a deputy-governor, called Amptmaud, who resides in Iceland, at the king's palace of Resstedt, on a salary of 400 rixdollars; and he has magistrates under him, both in civil and spiritual cases. The people are naturally hardy, honest, and industrious. They amuse themselves with chess and singing. In some things they differ little from the Danes and Norwegians; though they have many customs peculiar to themselves.

TRADE.] The commerce of this island is monopolized by a Danish company. Its exports consist of dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen cloth, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-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 necessaries 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 ISLANDS.

SO called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about twenty-four in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. lon. from London. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, 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.

D E N M A R K P R O P E R.

DENMARK Proper is divided into two parts; Jutland, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic sea: its situation and extent are as follow.

Between	}	8 and	}	E. Lon.	}	Being	}	240 miles in length.
		13 and						180 miles in breadth.
Between	}	54 and	}	N. Lat.	}			
		58						

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.

PROVINCES.] Jutland is the first province, subdivided into Alburg, Wyburg, Aarhusen, Rypen, and Sleswick; the chief towns of which are Alburg, E. lon. 10, N. lat. 57; Wyburg, Aarhusen, Rypen, Sleswick, E. lon. 9 45, N. lat. 54 45. The second province of Denmark is considered as its most valuable half; and contains the islands which lie at the entrance of the Baltic. They consist of Zealand, Funen, Bornholm, Laland, Falster, Mona, Femeren, and Alsen. Their chief towns are Copenhagen, E. lon. 13, N. lat. 55 30, Elfenore, Odensee, Rottomby, Naxkaw, Nicoping, Stege, Borge, and Sonderborge.

MOUNTAINS, FORESTS, LAKES, } Jutland consists chiefly of barren
RIVERS, CLIMATE, AND SOIL. } mountains, but some corn grows
in the vallies. The face of the country presents a number of large forests; but there is scarcely in Denmark a river navigable to a ship of burden. Some lakes, which contain delicious fishes, are found in the inland parts of the country. The climate is more temperate here, 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, where winter, and sultry heats during June, July, and August, possess the air. The soil is more recommendable for its pasturage, than for its common vegetable productions. The vallies are in general fruitful; but the soil is sandy in the islands, and requires plentiful showers to raise even a crop of hay.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horses, both for the saddle and carriage; and numbers of black cattle, sheep, and hogs, besides game; and its sea coasts are generally well supplied with fish.

LANGUAGE,

LANGUAGE, RELIGION, } AND LEARNING. } The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court. The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland: these dioceses are governed by bishops, whose profession is entirely to superintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a distinction of their ecclesiastical dress, for they have neither cathedrals nor ecclesiastical courts, nor the smallest concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are so good, that they are revered by the people. The university of Copenhagen is said now to be encouraged by the government; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines; not to mention that the Danes begin now to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama.

MANNERS.] The noble disposition of his Danish majesty for improving his country, renders it very difficult to speak with any certainty concerning the manners and customs, the police and manufactures of his dominions. Commerce, undoubtedly, is on the reviving hand in Denmark; and since the kings there have been rendered absolute, particular titles of honour, such as those of count and baron, have been introduced into the kingdom; but the adventuring, warlike spirit, seems to be lost among their nobility, whose civil powers are indeed annihilated; but they are tyrants over their inferiors and tenants, who, as to property, are still in a state of vassalage. It is more than probable, however, that his present Danish majesty will, in that and all other respects, give a new face to the police of his country; and he has already taken some effectual measures for that purpose, by meliorating the state of the peasants; the only spur to industry.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of their people in martial affairs, were very respectable princes, by the number and discipline of their troops, which they have kept up with vast care. The present army of Denmark consists of 40,000 men, cavalry and infantry; most of whom are officered by foreigners. Though this army is burdensome to the nation, yet it costs little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark, the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money. His present majesty seems determined to re-establish the naval force of his kingdom, and to rank himself as a maritime power. It must be acknowledged that he has great invitation to such a conduct; his subjects in general are excellent seamen; Copenhagen has a noble capacious sea-port; and the present naval force of Denmark is said to consist of thirty ships of the line.

FORTIFICATIONS.] The chief fortifications are those of Copenhagen, Cronenburg, New Elsenore, Altena, Reudsborg (which is reckoned the strongest in Denmark) Fredericia, in Jutland; not to mention several other places now fortifying by his Danish majesty's order.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION.] The civil constitution of Denmark, in its present despotic state, arises out of the ruins of the aristocratic powers which the nobility exercised over their inferiors with most intolerable tyranny. Formerly their kings were elective, and might be deposed by the convention of estates, which included the representatives of the peasants.

fants. The king's royalty gave him pre-eminence in the field and the courts of justice, but no revenues were attached to it; and unless he had a great estate of his own, he was obliged to live like a private nobleman. In process of time, however, the regal dignity became hereditary; or rather, the states tacitly acquiesced in that mode of government, to prevent the horrible ravages which they had experienced from civil wars and disputed successions. Their kings of the race of Oldenburg, the present royal family, though some of them were brave and spirited princes, did not chuse to abridge the nobility of their powers; and a series of unsuccessful wars rendered the nation in general so miserable, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The dispute came to a short question, which was, that the nobles should submit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people then, as usual, threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppressions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the states, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share in the common burden. Upon this, one Otto Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than slaves to the lords.

This was the watch-word, which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itself. Naufon, the speaker of the commons, caught hold of the term Slavery, the assembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a house of their own, where they resolved to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services; and formally to establish in his family the hereditary succession to their crown. This resolution was executed the next day. The bishop of Copenhagen officiated as speaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promising them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were shut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, submitted with the best grace they could, to confirm what had been done.

It is happy for the Danes, that ever since the year 1660, when this great revolution took place, few or no instances have happened, of abusing the despotic powers thus vested in the king, which are at present perhaps more extensive than those of any crowned head in Europe. On the contrary, the administration of civil justice in Denmark is considered by many as a model for other nations; and some princes, his Prussian majesty particularly, have actually adopted great part of it. The code of the Danish laws, is a quarto volume, drawn up in the language of the country, in so plain and perspicuous a manner, and upon such simple principles of justice, that the most ignorant may learn it; and every man may plead his own cause: and no suit is to hang in suspense beyond one year and a month. But *the king hath privilege to explain, nay, to alter and change the same as he shall think good.* In Denmark there are two inferior courts, from which appeals lie to a High Right court in Copenhagen, where the king presides, assisted by his chief nobility. Judges are punished in cases of misbehaviour or corruption. Other tribunals are instituted for the affairs of the revenue, army, commerce, admiralty, and criminal matters. In short, it is allowed on all hands, that the civil policy of Denmark, and its executive powers, produce wonderful effects for the safety of the people as well as of the government.

NATURAL CHARACTER AND CON- } The court of Denmark is very
STITUTION OF THE DANES. } regular; and his present majesty,
like

like his father, admits his nobility to his councils, and to that decent share of familiarity that belongs to their rank. As the higher classes of people are daily visiting the other courts of Europe, they are refining themselves from their provincial habits and vices, particularly intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments. As they become more polite, they are more frugal likewise; and there is nothing in their habit and constitution different from the English or French nobility. The common people are naturally indolent, and subject to apoplexies from hard drinking; they in general, however, enjoy a happy state of health, as they experience few consumptive diseases; owing perhaps to the purity of their fuel, which consists chiefly of beech wood.

POPULATION.] By an actual numeration, made in 1759, of his Danish majesty's subjects, in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, in Westphalia; they amounted to 2,444,000 souls, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. However disproportioned this number may seem, to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions, yet, every thing considered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possessions; and it is more than sufficient for all the purposes of commerce. As population generally keeps pace with plenty, especially in northern countries, there can be no doubt that the number of his Danish majesty's subjects, in a few years, will be vastly increased, by the improvements introduced among them in agriculture, and other arts. In proof of this, the general fecundity of the Danish women is naturally such, that their parents are not very fond of giving their children away in matrimony; and the courtships among the lower ranks are tedious.

COMMERCE.] I shall, under this head, include the commodities and manufactures imported to and exported from the country. Fir, and other timber, black cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, are the natural product of the Danish dominions; and consequently are ranked under the head of exports. To these we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbid. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy; silk from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourse with England, from whence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England. But nothing shews the commercial spirit of the Danes in a stronger light, than their establishments in the East and West-Indies.

In 1612. Christiern IV. of Denmark, established an East-India company at Copenhagen; and, soon after, four ships sailed from thence to the East-Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Danish majesty by James I. of England, who married a princess of Denmark; and in 1617 they built and fortified a castle and town at Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel. The security which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort, invited numbers of them to settle here; so that the Danish East-India company were soon rich enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a sudden, in 1620, endeavoured to possess themselves of the spice-trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portuguese. The truth is, they soon embroiled themselves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous assistance given them by Mr. Pit, an English East-India governor, their settlement

at Tranquebar must have been taken by the rajah of Tanjour. Upon the close of the wars of Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Danish East-India company found themselves so much in debt, that they published proposals for a new subscription, for enlarging their ancient capital stock, and for fitting out ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Danish majesty granted a new charter to his East-India company, with vast privileges; and for some time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I shall just mention, that the Danes likewise possess the island of St. Thomas, in the West-Indies; which is a free port, and celebrated for smuggling; also the fort of Christianburg, on the coast of Guinea; and carry on a considerable commerce with the Mediterranean.

REVENUES.] His Danish majesty's revenues have three sources: the impositions he lays upon his own subjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demesne lands, including confiscations; wine, salt, tobacco, and provisions of all kinds, are moderately taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll-money, raise a considerable sum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000*l.* towards her portion. The reader is to observe, that the internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, because they may be abated or raised at the king's will. Customs, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by strangers, arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow strait between Schonen and the island of Zealand. These tolls are in proportion to the size of the ship and value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Danish majesty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often disputed by the English and the Dutch; and the Swedes, for some time, refused to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majesty, George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as are paid by the subjects of Great-Britain and the Netherlands. The toll is paid at Elsenore, a town seated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic sea, and about eighteen miles distant from Copenhagen. No estimate can be made of its produce, nor of the gross revenue of Denmark; though it is generally thought to amount at present to about 700,000*l.* a year; a sum which, in that country, goes far, and maintains a splendid court, and powerful armaments both by sea and land.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL } Since the accession of his present Da-
INTERESTS OF DENMARK. } nish majesty, his court seems to have
altered its maxims. His father, it is true, observed a most respectable
neutrality during the late war; but never could get rid of French in-
fluence, notwithstanding his connections with Great-Britain. The sub-
sidies he received maintained his army; but his family-disputes with
Russia, concerning Holstein, and the ascendancy which the French had
obtained over the Swedes, not to mention many other matters, did not
suffer him to act that decisive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he
was invited by his situation; especially about the time the treaty of Clo-
ster-seven was concluded. His present Danish majesty's plan, seems to be
that of forming his dominions into a state of independency, by availing
himself of their natural advantages. His friendship with Great-Britain,
and the present divided despicable condition of the Swedes, together

with the pacific dispositions of the princes of the empire, leave him at full leisure to prosecute the great plans he has formed. The improvements his subjects have made since the reign of Frederic IV. who died in 1730, in manufactures and the mechanical arts, are astonishing; and the wise sumptuary laws, especially those against imports of foreign manufactures, keep immense sums in the kingdom. During the three last reigns, the government of Denmark spared no cost in bringing foreign manufacturers into their kingdom. This gave great umbrage to the English; who often defeated their attempts, and prosecuted their agents, if found to be British subjects, with vast severity. In short, the Danes can be furnished at home now, not only with all the necessaries, but the elegancies and luxuries of life; and his present Danish majesty is daily labouring to introduce the like improvements into the most distant parts of his dominions.

With regard to the external interests of Denmark, they are certainly best secured by cultivating a friendship with the maritime powers. The present condition of her navy, renders her secure by sea from Sweden and Russia, whose marine, when united, falls short of that of Denmark; for though the Russians maintain a large number of ships, yet they are so poorly navigated, that Russia cannot be considered as a maritime power. The exports of Denmark enables her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and she is particularly courted by the Mahammedan states, on account of her ship-building stores. His present majesty, like his father and grandfather, makes strong efforts for drawing the trade of Hamburg towards the favourite town of Altona; but hitherto with little apparent success. This rivalry, however, never can embroil her with any other European power, provided his Danish majesty is so wise as to make no attempt upon the city of Hamburg itself. The political state of Germany, especially while the elector of Hanover is upon good terms with the Danes, secures his Danish majesty's possessions in the empire; because no prince there would willingly see them the acquisition of any German potentate; nor can the possession of them ever be formidable to the empire, while in the hands of Denmark. The Danish government employs, in time of peace, all the seamen it can spare, for the purposes of commerce; but upon any emergency, they can command 24,000 seamen, who are registered, for manning its fleet. From this short view of the Danish interest, we can almost venture to pronounce, that the great schemes pursued by the prince now on that throne, are intended to render him one of the greatest maritime powers in the North: nor do we perceive how he can be prevented, so long as a strong well-disciplined army secures him from all invasions by land. At the same time, from the situation of his country, and its scarcity of spacious harbours, he never can be formidable to Great-Britain, who naturally will endeavour to preserve the ballance of power in the North. The present imperial family of Russia has indeed many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holstein; but as her possessions were guaranteed by his Britannic majesty, there is but small appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by so enterprising and despotic a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repossess themselves, by arms, of the fine province torn from them by Denmark; but of this there is at present a very small likelihood; and, whatever the arts of France may attempt, the Danes will always

always look with a jealous eye upon every measure taken for abolishing the present forms of the Swedish constitution. The greatest danger that can arise to Denmark from a foreign power is, when the Baltic sea (as has happened more than once) is so frozen over, as to bear not only men, but heavy artillery; in which case the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conquest of the kingdom.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is situated on the fine island of Zealand, makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four royal castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others, belonging to Calvinists and other persuasions, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by some public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in their lanes chiefly of timber. Its university has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, which admits indeed of only one ship to enter it at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals, and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and its naval arsenal is said far to exceed that of Venice.

The finest palace belonging to his Danish majesty, lies about twenty English miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericzburg. It is a most magnificent house, and built in the modern taste; but ill contrived, and worse situated; being in a moist unhealthy soil. While the kings of Denmark reside, as they often do, at this palace, they lay aside great part of their state, and mingle with their subjects in the diversions both of the court and the field. Those of the latter have in them somewhat very whimsical. Any one who has offended against the laws of hunting, is obliged to kneel between the horns of the stag that has been run down; and raising his posteriors, the king inflicts upon him, in presence of the queen and the ladies of the court (for whose merriment this exercise seems to have been invented) a certain number of stripes. After this, the offender is obliged to make a certain number of reverences for the royal chastisement. By the best accounts, Fredericzburg, in magnificence, paintings, and furniture of every kind, scarcely yields to any palace in Europe. It stands in the midst of a lake of fresh water; and is divided into three courts, each joined to the other by a bridge.

Jageriburg, is a park which contains a royal country seat, called the Hermitage; which is remarkable for the disposition of its apartments, and the quaintness of its furniture; particularly a machine, which conveys the dishes to and from the king's table in the second story. The chief ecclesiastical building in Denmark, is the cathedral of Roschild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments still remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered passage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

**CURIOSITIES, NATURAL } Denmark Proper, affords fewer of these
AND ARTIFICIAL. } 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. Besides artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Danish artist who was stone 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**

figures on its outside, it probably was made use of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 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. Some, however, are of opinion, that this vessel was made by order of Christiern I. king of Denmark, the first of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. I shall just mention in this place, that several vessels of different metals, and the same form, have been found in the north of England, and are probably of Danish original. This museum is likewise furnished with a prodigious number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments; some Indian curiosities, and a set of medals antient 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 Flenburg and Sleswic, 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 antient 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. Among the natural curiosities of Denmark, we may reckon swan-hunting, for the amusement of the king, queen, and courtiers of both sexes; who surround the swans nests in pleasure-boats: the number of cygnets, or young swans, killed on those occasions, merely for the sake of the feathers and down, is inconceivable. The sledge-processions upon the snow, when it is frozen so as to bear a carriage, are very magnificent. The horses belonging to the king and the court are dressed out with great gaiety, and adorned with silver bells, to give warning of their approach, that the procession (which consists of two or three tours round the city, attended with kettle-drums and trumpets) may not be interrupted. The king and his train being retired, are succeeded in the procession by the burghers, who trot about all night in their sledges, each with a female; and all of them wrapped up in warm furs. The Danish court are excessively fond of appearing in a kind of boorish masquerade every Shrove-Tuesday: the habits of both sexes, the music, the entertainments, the dancing, the manner of travelling, and the accommodations, are the most perfect imitations of the antient Dutch peasantry; and the island of Amak, about three English miles from Copenhagen, is the scene of their diversion.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD } These are two; that of the Elephant,
IN DENMARK. } and that of Daneburg: the former was
instituted by Christiern I. and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured watered ribbon; worn like the George in England; the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is said to be of the highest antiquity, consist

consist of a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, *Pietate & justitia.*

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, } (See Norway.)
 FOWLS, AND FISHES. }

REVOLUTIONS AND MEMORABLE EVENTS. } We owe the chief history of Denmark, to a very extraordinary phenomenon; I mean, the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the person of Saxo Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was lost over all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other historians of his age, has adopted, and at the same time ennobled by his style, the most ridiculous absurdities of remote antiquity. We can, however, collect enough from him to conclude, that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Irish, and other northern countries, had their bards; who recounted the military achievements of their heroes; and that their first histories were written in verse. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the first Christian Danish king is uncertain; and those of the people whom they commanded were so blended together, that it is impossible for the reader to conceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian customs, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of several nations or sects joining together in expeditions by sea or land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiscuously used long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the short revival of literature under that prince, throws very little light upon the Danish history. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers; that so far back as the year of Christ 500, they insulted all the sea coasts of Europe; that they settled in Ireland, where they built stone houses; and that they became masters of England, and great part of Scotland; both which kingdoms still retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the history of Denmark and that of England, under the Danish princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint resemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themselves the superiority over the English.

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; by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly stiled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar fell to nothing; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christiern, count of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended.

In 1513, Christiern II. king of Denmark, one of the most complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark;

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mark; and having married the sister of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full loose to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden, for the bloody massacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled against him likewise; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. About the year 1536, the protestant religion was established in Denmark, by that wise and politic prince Christiern III.

Christiern IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was chosen for the head of the protestant league, formed against the house of Austria; but, though brave in his own person, he was in danger of losing his dominions; when he was succeeded in that command by Gustavus Adolphus. The Dutch having obliged Christiern, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his son, Frederic III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortress of Fredericksstadt; and in the succeeding winter, he marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surpris'd the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburg; and marched over the Great Belt, to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, the English usurper, interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity, till the peace of Roschild; by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the island of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim, in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic sought to elude those severe terms; but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederic under those misfortunes, endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence, till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swedish fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic; who shewed on every occasion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raise the siege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the English fleet, under Montague, appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to besiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the island of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the island of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, yet, the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the most imminent dangers, and his attention to the safety of his subjects, even preferably to his own, endeared him so much in their eyes, that they rendered him absolute, in the manner and for the reasons I have already mentioned. Frederic was succeeded, in 1670, by his son, Christiern V. who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lundon, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Christiern obstinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landferoon; and he had almost exhausted his dominions in his military operations, till he was in a manner abandoned by all his allies, and forced to sign a treaty on the terms prescribed by France, in 1679. Christiern, however, did not desist from his military attempts; and at last he became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. Christiern, after a vast variety of

treating

treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was succeeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein; and probably must have become master of that dutchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Tonningen; while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was no more than sixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist his brother-in-law, the duke of Holstein. Charles, probably, would have made himself master of Copenhagen, had not his Danish Majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and who afterwards did great service against the French.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles was an exile at Bender, he made a descent upon the Swedish Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadelbusch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in ashes. Frederic revenged himself, by seizing great part of the ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinhock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederic were so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar, in Pomerania, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war against Denmark, with a most embittered spirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the siege of Friedriehsal, Frederic durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in consequence of which, a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in possession of the dutchy of Sleswic. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, seen his capital reduced to ashes, by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christiern Frederic, 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 guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction, Christiern 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. He had, two years after, viz. 1738, a dispute with his Britannic majesty, about the little lordship of Steinhort, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holstein Lawenburg, and which Christiern said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest; in which Christiern, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himself of his Britannic majesty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Christiern a subsidy of 70,000l. sterling a year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after, he seized some Dutch ships, for trading, without his leave, to Iceland; but the

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difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christiern had so great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his son to be declared successor to his then Swedish majesty. Some steps for that purpose were certainly taken: but whatever Christiern's views might have been, the design was frustrated by the jealousy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of seeing all Scandinavia subject to one family. Christiern 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. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention, that the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded between his royal highness the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswic-Wolfenbittel; and died in 1766. His son, Christiern VI. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his Britannic majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina-Matilda. I have already mentioned the many fair prospects which this prince's reign has already opened for the good of his people; and can only add, from the specimens he has given the public of his virtues, that he bids fair to be the greatest king that ever filled the throne of Denmark.

N O R W A Y.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, } THE natural signification of Norway is,
AND EXTENT. } the Northern-way. It is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Cate-gate; 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 Willefeld, 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.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world; for 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. Dofrefield is counted the highest mountain, perhaps, in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect these dreadful precipices, and are passable only by slight, tottering, wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence 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 mountain, 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

caverns that are to be met with in those 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.

The rivers and fresh-water lakes in this country, are well stocked with fish; and navigable for vessels of a considerable burden. The most extraordinary circumstance attending the lakes is, that some of them contain floating islands, formed by the cohesion of the 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 Fredericstادت, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyss a hundred fathom in depth; and its site was instantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which fourteen people and 200 head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests, which furnish foreigners with masts, beams, planks, and boards; and serve besides 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 come^l, or floc-tree, hasel, elder, and even ebony; (under the mountains of Kolen) lyme 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 affords 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.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its exposition towards the sea. At Bergen, the winter is moderate, and the sea is practicable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, with intense severity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that while 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 consists of about nineteen 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, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon, for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has
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been so kind to the Norwegians, that in the midst of their darkness, the sky is so 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.

As the winter is cold, the summer, in Norway, is proportionably hot; so that vegetation is incredibly quick; for in six weeks, or two months at most, barley is sown, grows, ripens, and is cut down. The air of Norway is salubrious, excepting on some parts of the sea coast, where it is moistened by vapours and exhalations. It is so pure in some of the inland parts, that the inhabitants live so long as to be tired of life; and cause themselves to be transported to a less salubrious air. Sudden thaws, and snow-falls, have, however, sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

STONES, METALS, } Norway contains quarries of excellent marble,
AND MINERALS. } as well as many other kinds of stones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or asbestos, which when its delicate fibres are wove into cloth, are cleaned by the fire, is likewise found here; as are chrystals, 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 Koningberg; other silver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be seen in the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper-mines at Roraa, is thought to be the richest in Europe. Norway likewise produces quicksilver, sulphur, salt, and coal mines; vitriol, allum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, } All the animals that are natives of Den-
FOWLS AND FISHES. } mark, are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beasts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hares, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the mart'n, 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 their flesh tastes like venison. The rein-deer is a species of stag; but we shall have occasion to mention him more particularly afterwards. Rabbits in this country are scarce. 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 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 shy even of a cow or a goat, unless impelled by hunger: the natives are dextrous 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 tygers; they dig underground, and often undermine sheep-folds, where they make dreadful havoc. 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 *viclfras*, resembles a turn-spit 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 swiftness and cleanliness; and few of our readers need to be told, that 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 is now a well known amphibious animal, resembling in its shape a dog, with short legs and head, small round eyes and ears, and a large thick scaly tail: the castoreum, so useful in medicine, is found on this creature in a bag; his skin is valuable: but I shall have occasion to mention him more at large in treating of North America. Besides the abovementioned quadrupeds, Norway contains almost all the other animals known in Europe.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. I shall mention those that are peculiar to itself. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noise of their wings resembles a storm; their size is the bigness of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their flesh is much esteemed. The *berg-ugle* is a small bird, about the largeness of a thrush. No fewer than thirty different kinds of thrushes reside in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and several sorts of beautiful wild ducks. The plumage of the *he-dorn-paps*, or *cocthras*, is variegated with red, black, and white; but the hen is of a blue-grey: some that are green, with red tufts of feathers on the head, are the most valuable. Besides the above, are the *jo-fugl*, the *krage*, the *krykkie*, the *lax-tite*, the *lom*, the *gull*, or *maage*, the *favoren*, the *skaw*, the *coon*, the *skue*, and the *tiest*: but a description of each would exceed our bounds. 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. Norway produces 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. The *tunen* resembles an eagle, but is more harmless; he is reckoned good food, and burrows himself in snow in winter. The variety of hawks is greater in Norway than in any other country; and we meet there with all other kinds of domestic fowls that are common in Europe.

Nature seems to have adapted these aerial inhabitants for the craft of Norway; and industry has produced a species of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them serviceable to the human race: these are the bird-men, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the steepest rocks, and bringing away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are sometimes pickled in vinegar; 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,

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The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in all fish that are found on the sea-coasts of Europe, which need not here be enumerated. Some fishes in those seas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-mœren, is a species of shark ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train-oil. The tuello-flynder is an excessive 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 marbled skin, and white belly: they spout out the water, which they take in by inspiration, 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 such an incredible number of small fish, that his belly is often ready to burst; in which case he makes a most tremendous noise from pain. The smaller fish 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 supply 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 torck-fishes, follow them, and feed upon their spawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in fifty or sixty fathoms 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 most seemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning sea-monsters, 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 matter 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 recounted of this animal would be incredible, were they not attested upon oath. Egedé (a very creditable 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 hog's head; 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 seamen if they handle it.

I should be under great difficulty in mentioning the kraken, or kornen, were not its existence proved so strongly, as to put it out of all doubt. 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 disport themselves, and seaweeds grow: upon a farther emergence, a number of pellucid antennae, 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 Alitahong; 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 those 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 mermen and mer-women, hold their residence in the Norwegian seas; but I cannot give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The merman is about eight spans long, and, undoubtedly, has as much resemblance as an ape has 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; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like those of fishes. The females have breasts, at which they suckle their young ones. It would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different descriptions which they have given us of their fishes; but they are so well authenticated, that I make no doubt, a new and very surprizing theory of aquatic animals may in time be formed.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, } The Norwegians are a middling
AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. } kind of people, between the simplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute; but we may easily conceive that he makes no barbarous use of his power, because we know of few or no representations or insurrections of the people against it.

The Norwegians in general, are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous;

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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 artizan, and supplies his family in all its necessaries with his own manufacture; so that in Norway, there are few, by profession, who are hatters, shoe-makers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, and joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist and a gentleman, and even a poet. They decide their quarrels by duels: but it is to be regretted, that however frugal they are in their ordinary way of living, they have particular times and seasons when they indulge themselves even to intoxication; and those sometimes produce fatal effects. They often mix with oatmeal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flower; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians, form a proper subject of contemplation even to a philosopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor dreading penury: this middle state prolongs their ages surprizingly. Though their dress is accommodated to their climate, yet, by custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; so: they expose themselves to cold, without any coverture upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age, is not accounted past his labour: and in 1733, four couples were married, and danted before his Danish majesty at Frederichshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 300 years. Notwithstanding this, the inhabitants are subject to the scurvy (which breaks out in various manners) the catarrh, rheumatism, gout, and epilepsy. The Norwegian soldiers march with amazing expedition, especially in winter, by the assistance of their snow shoes and scates. The women wear close jackets, and girdles adorned with silver; with chains of the same round their necks, and gilt medals fixed to the ends: those silver trinkets form the ornaments of a Norwegian bride or belle.

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.

CURIOSITIES.] Those of Norway are only natural. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some Malestrom, or Moskoestrom. The island Moskoe, 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 Moskoe and Lofoden, it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moskoe 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 Moskoe 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, scarcely to be known for the parts of a ship. 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 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 is 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 gulph 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 flood, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

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, without hurting either trade or agriculture. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to about 200,000*l.* and till his present majesty's accession, the army, instead of being expensive, added considerably to his majesty's income, by the subsidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what we have already observed as to Denmark. The duties on their exports, most of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rixdollars a year.

HISTORY.] We must refer to Denmark likewise for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardiest 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, their history, as well as interests, are the same with that of Denmark.

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HIS DANISH MAJESTY'S GERMAN DOMINIONS.

THOSE dominions are mentioned in a separate article chiefly for the sake of order, as the inhabitants differ little or nothing from other Germans; we shall therefore be more general in describing them. The duchy of Sleswic, which some say properly belongs to Denmark, is bounded by Jutland, the Baltic, the duchy of Holstein, and the German ocean. It is well watered, and produces plenty of corn; but the capital city of Sleswic, which stands upon a small arm of the sea, called the Sley, is much decayed both in trade and population. Gottorp stands likewise upon the Sley; and was once famous for the magnificent palace of its dukes, and for being the residence of the celebrated astronomer Tycho Brahe; some of his planetary machines and globes still remaining in one of the summer-houses of the palace.

Holstein belongs partly to Denmark and partly to Russia. The capital of the Danish Holstein is Gluckstadt, a well-built town and fortress, in a marshy situation, on the right of the Elbe; in which is a Lutheran, a Calvinist, a Romish church, and a Jews synagogue; and has some foreign commerce. Keyl is the capital of the Ducal Holstein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, in a geographical sense, in Holstein, but is now an imperial, free, and Hanseatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holstein called Stormar: it has the sovereignty of a small district round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark still lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be considered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants are said to amount to 180,000; and it is furnished with a vast variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two spacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great-Britain, with whom it still carries on a great trade. The Hamburgers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, besides an artillery company,

In Westphalia, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst; they lie near the south side of the Weser; their capitals, of the same name, are both regularly fortified: and Oldenburg gave a title to the first royal ancestor of his present Danish majesty.

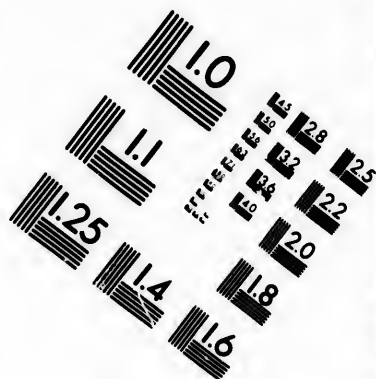
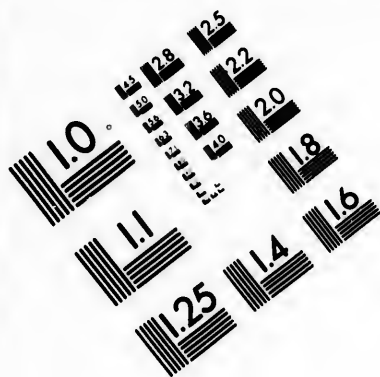
L A P L A N D.

THE northern situation of Lapland, and the division of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that I treat of it under a distinct head, and in the same method that I observe in other countries.

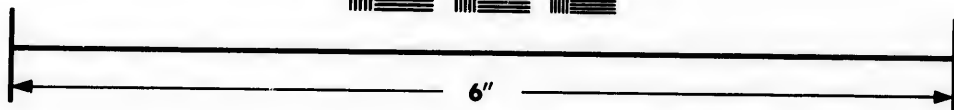
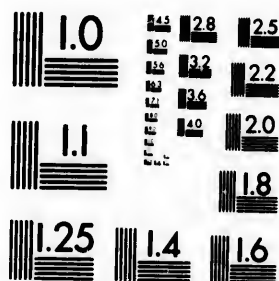
SITUATION, EXTENT, } The whole country of Lapland extends, so
DIVISION AND NAME. } far as it is known, from the North Cape in
71 30 N. lat. to the White-Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuy; part to the Swedes, which is by far the most valuable; and some

parts,





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parts, in the east, to the Muscovites. It would be little better than wasting the reader's time, to pretend to point out the supposed 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 in 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 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 *Lappes*, which signifies exiles. The reader, from what I have said of other northern countries, 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 discontinue their work through darkness.

**MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, } The reader must form in his mind, a vast
LAKES, AND FORESTS. }** 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 flowers grow wild on their borders in the summer; but this is but a short gleam of temperature; for the climate in general is excessively severe. Dusky forests, and noisome, unhealthy morasses, cover great part of the flat country; so that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the state of the inhabitants.

CLIMATE.] In winter, it is no unusual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in some thermometers, spirits of wine are congealed into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of snow 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 in his sledge with inconceivable swiftness. The heats of summer are excessive for a short time; and the cataclysms which dash from the mountains, often present to the eye the most picturesque appearances.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as those of copper and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland: beautiful crystals are found here, as are some amethysts and topazes; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprizingly polished by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have been sometimes found in rivers, but never in the seas.

**ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, } We must refer to our accounts
FISHES, AND INSECTS. }** 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.

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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. In summer, the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in the winter they live upon the moss already described: they have a wonderful sagacity at finding it out, and when found, they scrape away the snow, that covers it, with their feet. 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 chusing 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 cloathing both for the bed and the body: their milk and cheese are nutritive 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. Were I to recount every circumstance, related by the credulous, of this animal, the whole would appear fabulous. It is sufficient to observe further, that the number of tame rein-deers possessed by a Laplander, forms the chief part of his riches. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

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. His surprizing speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) seems to be owing to his impatience to get rid of his incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture, when he is confined in one of those carriages or pulkhas; or believe that by whispering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their destination. But after all those abatements, the natives would have difficulty to subsist without their rein-deer, which serves them for more purposes than I have room to mention.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is barbarous, but it seems radically to have come from Finland. Learning has made no progress among them; and they practise such arts only as supply them with the means of living. Missionaries from the christianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Christian religion; but they cannot be said even yet to be Christians, though they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries, as are to be found among the most un-

instructed

instructed pagans; and so absurd, that they scarcely deserve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their superstitions; have induced the northern traders to believe that they are skilful in magic and divination. For this purpose, their magicians, who are a peculiar set of men, make use of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed 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 forcerer prognosticates. Those frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ship-makers are such dupes to the arts of the 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 direction, they gain what wind they want. This is a very common traffic on the banks of the Red-Sea, and is managed with great address on the part of the forcerer, 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 Juhles, 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.

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 shorter by the head than more southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman, who was suckling her own child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make, however, a more human appearance than the men, who are ill-shaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, 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 the 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. These marriages are seldom prolific; but it is surprizing to see how quickly the women recover from the pains of childbirth, and how hardly the children of both sexes are brought up. In religious matters, the Laplanders have different priests; those under the Russians, and their ceremonies, being of the Greek church.

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, rixdollars, 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 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 squirrels skins, or one fox-skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one rixdollar; 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, never employed in any army. The above is the latest and best account that has been received of his extraordinary people. As to the other particulars relating to them, they are in common with their neighbours the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Russians.

S W E D E N.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT. } **T**HIS country is bounded by the Baltic sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scagerac, 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. The situation and extent of Sweden are as follow.

Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 10 \\ \text{and} \\ 30 \end{array} \right\}$ E. Lon. } Being $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 800 \text{ miles in length.} \\ \\ 500 \text{ miles in breadth.} \end{array} \right.$
 Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 56 \\ \text{and} \\ 69 \end{array} \right\}$ N. Lat. }

It is divided into seven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (those two provinces belong now, however, to the Russians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by posterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swedish Lapland; and 7. The Swedish islands. Great abatements must be made for the lakes, and unimproved parts of Sweden; which are so extensive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimensions given us of this kingdom.

Sweden.		Square miles.	Sum total.	Length.	Breadth.	Capital Cities.
Sweden		76,835	228,715			
Gothland		47,900		342	194	STOCKHOLM
Schonen		25,975		253	160	Calmar
		2960		77	56	Lunden
			76,835			
Provinces.	Lapland, and W. Bothnia	76,000		420	340	Torne
	Finland, and E. Bothnia	73,000		395	225	Uma
	Gothland I.	1000		80	23	Alu
	Oeland I.	560		85	10	Cajenburg
			150,560			Wisby
Upper Pomerania, P.	960		47	24	Barkholm	
Saxony Rügen I.	310		24	21	Stralsund	
			120			Bergen

The face of Sweden is pretty similar to those of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, } The same may be said with regard to
SOIL AND PRODUCTION. } this article. Summer bursts from winter; and vegetation is more 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. The Swedes, since the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenness of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in some places with excellent success. The soil is much the same with that of Denmark and some parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in some vallies surprizingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not industry sufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and some late accounts say, that they rear almost as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas and beans; and in case of deficiency, the people are supplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In summer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce strawberries, raisberries, currants, and other small fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to perfection in dry seasons.

SEAS.] Their seas are the Baltic, and the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the west of Sweden are the Categate sea, and the Sound, a streight 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 a current sits always out of the Baltic sea into the ocean.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, } These differ little from those already
BIRDS, AND FISHES. } described in Norway and Denmark, to which I must refer; only the Swedish horses are known to be more serviceable in war than the German. The sydenswan is said to be peculiar to Sweden: it is about the size of a fieldfare, but of a finer flavour, and beautifully feathered. The Swedish hawks, when carried to France, have been known to revisit their native country; as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inscription on a small gold plate, signifying that he belonged to the French king. The fishes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the same with those in other northern countries, and taken in such quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are salted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the seals, taken in the gulph of Finland, is a considerable article of exportation.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces crystals, amethysts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other fossils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, arises from her mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. The last mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and smelting-houses. A kind of a gold mine has likewise been discovered in Sweden, but so inconsiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,398 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. sterling. The first gallery of one silver mine is

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100 fathoms below the surface of the earth; the roof is supported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners descend about forty fathoms to the lowest vein. This mine is said to produce 20,000 crows a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vast taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other resources for the exigencies of state. Those subterraneous mansions are astonishingly spacious, and at the same time commodious for their inhabitants, so that they seem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for some years, the exports of Sweden for iron, brought in 300,000 l. sterling. Dr. Busching thinks that they constituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It must, however, be observed, that the extortions of the Swedish government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and some other causes, have greatly diminished this manufacture in Sweden; so that the Swedes very soon must apply themselves to other branches of trade and improvements, especially in agriculture.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Swedish commonalty subsist by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic, are the bulky and useful commodities of masts, beams, deal-boards, and other sorts of timber for shipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-ash, wooden utensils, hides, flax, hamp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fish. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the sixteenth century; for till that time they sold their own crude ore to the hanse towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the seventeenth century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk, soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills. Book-selling was in that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have since had sugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of sail-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; of linen, allum, brimstone, paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills; vast quantities of copper, brass, steel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have also founderies for cannon, forgeries for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flattening-mills; mills also for fulling, and for boring, and stamping; and of late they have built many ships for sale.

Certain towns in Sweden, being twenty-four in number, are called Staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships. Those towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the sea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to mine districts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increased their exports, and diminished their imports, most part of which arrive, or are sent off in Swedish ships; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation-act, like that of the English. Those promising appearances were, however, blasted, by the madness and jealousies of the Swedish government; the form of which shall be hereafter described; and the people are now so oppressed with taxes, that some important revolution is daily expected in that kingdom.

Stockholm is a staple-town, and the capital of the kingdom; it stands about 790 miles north-east from London, upon about six contiguous islands, and built upon piles. The castle, though commodious, and covered with copper, has neither strength nor beauty; but accommodates the royal court, and the national courts and colleges. The number of house-keepers who pay taxes, are 60,000; so that Stockholm is sup-
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posed to contain 100,000 inhabitants. The harbour is spacious and convenient, though difficult of access, and is furnished with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce (particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* sterling) that are common to other great European cities.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, } There is a great diversity of characters
AND RELIGION. } among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they have been known to have different characters in different ages. At present, their peasants seem to be a heavy plodding race of men, strong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. One could 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 the most distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The intrigues of their senators dragged them to take part in the late war against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless, and their courage contemptible. 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 French modes and fashions. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have little to spare in their own life-time. The women go to plough, thresh out the corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burthens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry.

The Swedish language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and resembles that of Denmark. Christianity was introduced here in the ninth century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated among them by Gustavus Vasa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are surprizingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and have such an aversion to popery, that castration is the fate of every Roman-catholic priest discovered in their country. The archbishop of Upsal has a revenue of about 400*l.* a year; and has under him thirteen suffragans, besides superintendents, with moderate stipends. 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 œconomy. A conversion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot pass without the king's permission, is punished by imprisonment and exile.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden, by which I mean its political constitutions, is of itself a study, occasioned by the checks which each order has upon another. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became despotic. He was succeeded by his sister, Ulrica; who consented to the abolition of despotism, and restored the states to their former liberties; and they, in return, associated her husband, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with her in the government. A new model of the constitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king

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of Sweden can scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exercise of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the states appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all employments of any value, ecclesiastical, civil, or military, are conferred by the king only with the approbation of the senate. The estates are formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants. The representatives of the nobility, which includes the gentry, amount to above a thousand, those of the clergy to two hundred, the burghers about a hundred and fifty, and the peasants two hundred and fifty. Each order sits in its own house, and has its own speaker; and each chuses a secret committee for the dispatch of business. The estates are to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body have greater powers than the parliament of Great-Britain; because, as it has been observed, the king's prerogative is far more bounded.

When the estates are not sitting, the affairs of the public are managed by the king and the senate, which are no other than a committee of the estates, but chosen in a particular manner: the nobility, or upper-house, appoint twenty-four deputies, the clergy twelve, and the burghers twelve; these chuse three persons, who are to be presented to the king, that he may nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peasants have no vote in electing a senator. Almost all the executive power is lodged in the senate, which consists of fourteen members, besides the chief governors of the provinces, the president of the chancery, and the grand marshal. Those senators, during the recess of the estates, form the king's privy-council; but he has no more than a casting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lie to them from different courts of judicature; but each senator is accountable for his conduct to the estates. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden may be called republican, for the king's power is not so great as a stadtholder. The senate has even a power of imposing upon the king a sub-committee of their number, who is to attend upon his person, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endless to recount the numerous subordinate courts, boards, commissions, and tribunals, which the jealousy of the Swedes have introduced into the administration of civil, military, commercial, and other departments; it is sufficient to say, that though nothing can be more plausible, yet nothing is less practicable than the whole plan of their distributive powers. Their officers and ministers, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, are multiplied to an inconvenient degree; many of their courts have little or nothing to do; and every operation of government is retarded or rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which it must pass. This is seen in the present deplorable state of Sweden, where its whole system of government was lately in danger of annihilation; which must still be the consequence, if some material alterations are not introduced into it by the estates; for the king and people equally complain of the senate.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] 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 expence of private persons, that excellent and candid natural philosopher Hæselquist, into the eastern countries for discoveries, where he died. This noble spirit is eminently encouraged by
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the royal family; and her Swedish majesty purchased, at no inconsiderable expence for that country, all Hæselquist's collection of curiosities. That able civilian, statesman, and historian, Puffendorf, was a native of Sweden; and so is the present Linnæus, who has carried natural philosophy, in some branches at least, 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 present distractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, sculpture, and architecture, are encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is carried to a great 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.

CURIOSITIES.] Two admirable clocks are the chief artificial curiosities to be seen in Sweden; one in Upsal, and the other in Lunden: the latter shews not only the day, hour, and minute, but also the remarkable motions of the celestial bodies; with all festivals, both fixed and moveable; and several other pleasant operations. A few leagues from Gottenburg, there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water rushes with such impetuosity, from the height into so deep a bed 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 bed has never been found, though sounded by lines of several hundred fathoms. A remarkable slimy lake, which singes things put into it, has been found in the southern part of Gothland: and several parts of Sweden contains a stone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with several streaks of white, as if composed of gold and silver, affords both sulphur, vitriol, allum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuscript copy of a translation of the Gospels into Gothic; done by a bishop 1300 years ago.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] I have already hinted, that no country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be said to maintain a standing army, as their forces consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of soldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of sixty or seventy pounds per ann. is charged with a foot soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary cloths, and about twenty shillings a year in money; or else a little wooden house is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, they are subject to military law, but otherwise to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be said, that every Swedish soldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out forty ships of the line.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, since the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. has been greatly reduced. Her gold and silver specie, in the late reign, arose chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown-lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other

other articles, are said to have produced a million sterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient; some of those pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate sum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of silver, valued each at 5 s. 2 d. and the subsidies paid them by France helps to encrease their currency.

POLITICAL INTERESTS } The Swedes of late have been little better
OF SWEDEN. } than pensioners to France. Through a strange medley of affairs, and views of interest, that crown has vast influence in all the deliberations of their senate; though it is evident, that the great scheme of the French is, to enlarge the royal powers so as that the king, who must depend upon them for support, may have it in his power to controul the resolutions of the senate. The imprudence of the majority of that body, by reducing the royal power into too narrow a compass, and, at the same time, oppressing the people, afford them a fair prospect of success. It is, however, to be hoped, that his Swedish majesty, the moment he is extricated from the present difficulties of his government, will apply himself to the true interests of his country, and be contented, under the guaranty of Great-Britain, to observe a strict neutrality with regard both to Denmark and Russia. The interest of Sweden even reaches as far as Turkey; for that empire found its account in balancing the power of Russia by that of Charles XII. At present, Sweden is crippled in every operation; and such are the public distractions, that her subjects are even disabled from availing themselves of the natural produce of their country, in manufactures and exports.

ROYAL STILE.] The king's stile is, King of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomeran, &c.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The reader is not here to expect, that I am to follow the wild romances of Swedish historians through the early ages. It is sufficient to say, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor shall I dispute her being the paramount state of Scandinavia; and that she borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Christianity, however, by Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, in 829, seems to present the first certain period of the Swedish history.

The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, and Vandals, have had the reputation of subduing the Roman empire, and all the southern nations of Europe.

It appears that the countries of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway) were sometimes under the dominion of one prince, and at other times had each of them their respective sovereigns.

The history of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, during the dark ages of Christianity, is confused and uninteresting, and often doubtful; but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till the death of Eric, the son of Margaret, whom I have already mentioned to be the Semiramis of the North; he was succeeded by Canutson, who reigned by the name of Charles I. and was acknowledged likewise by the Norwegians for their king; but he grew so unpopular, that he was besieged in Stockholm, and forced to fly to Dantzic; while Christiern, invited by the Swedish nobility to renew the union of Calmar, was crowned king of Sweden: but the archbishop of Upsal declaring himself protector of the Swedish

liberties, forced Christiern to accept of a capitulation; to which, however, he paid no regard. Christiern and his archbishop then fell into variance with each other; and both concurred in augmenting the miseries of the unhappy Swedes. At last the archbishop was sent prisoner to Denmark: but Katil, the bishop of Lincoping, defeated Christiern, and drove him into Denmark. Christiern endeavoured to regain his crown of Sweden, the garrison he had left in the castle of Stockholm making a vigorous resistance; but he was once more defeated by Katil, and a senator, one Nelson; and Charles, who had lived all this time at Dantzic, was replaced upon the throne. Katil and Charles soon fell at variance; and the archbishop of Upsal being discharged from his confinement by Christiern, Canutson was besieged in Stockholm, where a battle, almost unparalleled in history for fury and bloodshed, was fought upon the ice. The prelates were victorious; and Canutson was obliged to renounce the crown of Sweden, and retire upon a small stipend. The archbishop, after this, acted as lord paramount of Sweden; but was opposed by two of Canutson's relations, Nils Sture and Eric Axelson. The archbishop was overpowered in the contest, and Charles was recalled; though his son-in-law, Eric Axelson, had been declared regent. Various skirmishes and abundance of bloodshed followed; but in the year 1470, Charles died at Stockholm, after recommending his nephew, Steen Sture, to be administrator. He was opposed by Christiern, who was beaten in 1481; and Sture perceiving a strong bias among the Swedes for renewing the union of Calmar, seemed to give way to the election of John, the son of the late Christiern: but Sture still retained the administration, which occasioned a powerful confederacy of John's party, and the clergy, against him. The event was, that Sture was forced to resign the administration, upon his being declared governor of Dalecarlia, with a large revenue; and John was raised to the throne with more unlimited power than any king of Sweden had ever enjoyed.

John's army, though very strong, was shamefully beaten by a handful of Dittmarfians, for which he fell into contempt; and Sture was again made regent. This rekindled the war with Denmark; and Sweden was, for some time, in little better than a state of anarchy, under the government of administrators.

John dying in 1513, his son Christiern was proclaimed king of Denmark and Norway. His unparalleled cruelties upon the Swedes, who chose him for their king, and crowned him in 1520 at Upsal, have been mentioned in the history of Denmark; as has been the famous Gustavus Vasa, who emerged from the mines of Dalecarlia, where he had secreted himself to avoid the fury of the tyrant. Ericson, the father of Gustavus, had been murdered by Christiern, who intended to have thrown Vasa's mother and sisters into the sea, but suffered them to perish in prison. Christiern was so much detested, that Gustavus, who had been declared protector of the kingdom, was every where victorious; and the tyrant, being forced by the Swedes and Danes to retire to the Low Countries, Gustavus was declared king of Sweden. He then reduced Stockholm, and made peace with Denmark; whose king, Frederic, had an interest in opposing the return of Christiern. Vasa, however, possessed the crown without a revenue; for the clergy not only engrossed all the gold and silver of his kingdom, but all its commerce. This increased their wealth and their luxury at the same time; while their enormities, and the cruelties they committed in their cups, gave the Swedes such a detestation of their

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order, that Vasa ventured to introduce protestantism into the kingdom. Olaus Petri, and some students from Wirtemberg, were upon this occasion the protestant apostles of Sweden. The trading cities embraced the reformation with great avidity; but the internal parts of the provinces were so tinctured with popery, that Vasa threatened to abdicate the crown, unless the clergy was obliged to submit to such a reformation as had been established in Germany. The nobility made some difficulty in agreeing to this proposition; because it tended to add the wealth of the church to that of the crown, which might thereby become despotic. Many altercations happened upon this point; but Gustavus, at last, triumphed over all opposition; and the exercise of the Roman-catholic religion was prohibited, under the severest penalties, in the year 1544; which have never yet been relaxed. Gustavus, after a glorious reign, died in 1559; while his eldest son, Eric, was preparing to embark for England, to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who succeeded his father, Gustavus Vasa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miserable and causeless jealousy of his brothers, forced them to take up arms; and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. 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, was chosen administrator of Sweden; and being a strenuous protestant, his nephew, Sigismund, endeavoured to drive him from the administratorship, but without effect; till at last, he and his family were excluded from the succession to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigismund, who was himself a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Russia, 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 narrowly missed being 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 themselves. 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; and in 1627, he tormented the siege of Danzig, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vislula, 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 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 1630, 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, after gaining a battle; which had he survived, it 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. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torstenson, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what course Gustavus would have pursued, had his life been prolonged, and his successes continued; but there is the strongest reason to believe that he had in his eye somewhat more than the relief of the protestants, and the restoration of the Palatine family. 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, 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; to whom she was not, however, extremely liberal. She expressed a value for Grotius; and she was an excellent judge of the polite arts; but illiberal, and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the same time discharged all the duties of her high station; and though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown to her cousin, Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great success against the Poles: he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their usual inconstancy, they broke. His progress upon the ice against Denmark, has been already mentioned; and 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.

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When Charles came to be of age, he received a subsidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland against him. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being beaten in Germany at Felembellin, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of the Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster overran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, which followed that of Nimueguen, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's sister: but made a very bad use of the tranquillity he had regained; for he enslaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power despotic, and his army formidable. The states lost all their power; and Sweden was reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to lose his head and his right hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his countrymen, but he saved himself by flight; and Charles became so considerable a power, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryfwic were opened under his mediation.

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. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was set aside for an earlier date by the management of count Piper; who became thereby his first minister. 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 he 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; and his name carried with it such terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and 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, was such, that he can be considered in a little better light than that of an illustrious madman; for he lost, in the battle of Pultowa, 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, at the siege of Frederichsal, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-six years of age.

Charles XII. was succeeded, as I have already mentioned, by his sister, the princess Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. We have already seen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given the substance of the capitulation signed by the queen and her husband, when they entered upon the exercise of government. Their first care was to make a peace with Great-Britain; which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed a dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the Hats; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia. Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was, at the same time, the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp; prince Frederic of Hesse-Cassel, nephew to the king; the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, the bishop of Lubec, as their hereditary prince, and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to drop all the effects of his resentment, and the indignity done his son. The prince successor married the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia; and entered into the possession of his new dignity, which has proved to him a crown of thorns, in 1751. The reader, from what has been already premised, can be at no loss to know the sequel of the Swedish history to this present time.

GREAT RUSSIA, OR MUSCOVY, IN EUROPE.

SITUATION, EXTENT, } According to the most authentic accounts
AND NAME. } of this mighty empire, it consists of
fifteen (Mr. Voltaire says sixteen) provinces, or governments; besides
part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, and Livonia, which were conquered
from Sweden. It is generally agreed, however, that it lies

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The following are the dimensions of it, given us by Templeman.

	Russia.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	Dist. fr. London	Dist. fr. Petersburg.
Greek Church	Ref. or Musc.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow,	1386	360
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Woronetz,	1480	567
	Don Cossacks	57,000	400	280	Panchina,	1800	900
	Uk. Cossacks,	45,000	330	205	Kiow,	1150	570
Conquered from Sweden since 1700.	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola,	503	515
	Finland,	41,310	320	180	PETERSBURG,	471	
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga,	385	280
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	Notteburg,	1170	22
	Total—	1103,485					

But according to Monf. Robert's map, published at Paris in 1751, Russia in Europe consists of the following provinces and governments: in the government of Archangel, are the provinces of Bielozerskoi, Olo-neckoi, Usting, Solseamskoi, Wiatka, Vologockoi; the governments of Novogorod, Moscow, Bielogorod, Kiowir, and Voroneikoi; the provinces of Alatirskoi, Galiczskoi, and Solksamskoi. Conquered from Sweden, part of Carelia, the provinces of Esthonia, Ingria, and Livonia.

The reader, however, is to observe, that the knowledge the public has of this empire, is but lately acquired; and is still so doubtful, that it is very difficult to fix even the limits between the European and Asiatic Russia. As to the names of Russia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the antient inhabitants, the Russi, or Borussi, and the river Mosca, upon which the antient capital Moscow was built: but of this we know nothing certain.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, }
 AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } The Zimnopoias mountains, which lie in this empire, are thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the antients. The most considerable rivers are the Wolga, which, after traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and winding a course of above 2000 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 with the richest trees, fruits, and vegetables: it rises at the lake of Urano, at a small distance from the city of Rzeva Ullodimeriski, near the frontiers of Lithuania, about 56 15 latitude, and begins to be navigable about six miles below its spring. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia: its spring is in the province of Rezan, on the north-east of the lake Iwan-Osero; 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 400 miles from its rise. The Boristhenes, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, rises in the Walchonki forest, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacks, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black-sea, near Ocza-kow: it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance.

As to forests, they abound in this extensive country; and the northern and north-eastern provinces, are in a manner desart; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Christians rather than Pagans. Upon the whole, Muscovy is in general a flat level country.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, } In the southern parts of Russia,
VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MI- } or Muscovy, the longest day does
NERALS. } 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 soil as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be seen and felt in this vast empire. The quickness of vegetation here, is pretty much the same as has been described in Scandinavia. The snow is the natural manure of Russia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miserably fed: the soil produces a vast number of muthrooms for their subsistence; and in some places, besides oaks and firs, Russia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink: they likewise extract a spirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Russia was poplous in former days, is not to be disputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture; and supplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of saw-dust and a preparation of fish-bones. Peter the Great, and his successors, down to the present empress, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the soil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vast fertility in some provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Russia as it is in the southern countries of Europe. The vast communications, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, serve to supply one province with those products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Russia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, } These do not differ greatly from
FISHES, AND INSECTS. } those described in the Scandinavia-
vian provinces; to which we must refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; and makes prey of every creature it can master: they are said to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree forests. The hyenas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already described, afford their furs for cloathing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes, and ermine, are more valuable in Russia than elsewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almost the only beast of burden known in many parts of Russia. Czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horses for war and carriages; but those employed in the ordinary purposes of life are but small; as are their cows and sheep, which they salt for their winter provisions.

We know of few or no birds in Russia, that have not been already described. The same may be said of fishes; only the Russians are better provided than their neighbours are with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and belugas: the latter resemble a sturgeon, and is from twelve to fifteen feet in length; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the sturgeon and
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the belaga, the Russians make the famous caviar; so much esteemed for its richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads. A fish called *mosa*, in the northern part of Europe, has teeth of which the inhabitants make handles for knives and scymetars. Several species of shell-fish, as oysters, scallops, cockles, and muscles, are found here in fresh-water lakes and rivers.

As to insects, Russia, like other uncultivated countries, is pestered with them in the summer time, from their lakes, morasses, swamps, and forests; but in the winter they disappear: some of them are said to retire to hollows in banks and rocks, till they are called forth by the warmth of the succeeding summer.

Before I quit this head, it is proper that I mention the *baranetz*, or lamb-plant, which has been imposed upon some travellers and naturalists, as a vegetative animal, resembling a lamb, with a skin of white curled wool. Many extraordinary properties have been ascribed to this plant, which is now found to be an ingenious fiction of the inhabitants, barbarous as they are esteemed; and is prepared in the following manner: they open a sheep at the very time of yearning, and taking out the lamb, they flay it; they then extend the skin on the grass; and by the help of the dew and sour milk, they render it prodigiously thin, soft, smooth, and white as snow. As the Mohammedan neighbours of those Russians are said to be prohibited from wearing skins of animals, the Russians pretend that those skins are a vegetable production, and dispose of them to vast advantage; and they are highly esteemed likewise by the Russian nobility.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, } As the present Russians are
AND POPULATION. } the descendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, so we find among them a vast variety of the particulars which fall under this article; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the discoveries 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 Zeremisses and Morduars; a peaceable industrious people. The Baskirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Casan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Calmucs occupy the rest of this tract to Astracan and the frontiers of the Usbees; 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 as foes.

As the Cossacs make now a figure in the military history of Europe, some account of them may not be unacceptable. They were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukrain 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 Circaskey, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that

that river, reached from Ribna to Asof. 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 occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the antient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation chuse a chief, whom they call Hetman, and he resides at Circaska; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hetman holds his authority during life. He acts as a 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 Cossacs of the Ukrain 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, Mazepa, 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 Cossacs, who are settled about the falls of the river Nieper, but most of them were cut in pieces.

The Russians, properly so called, were formerly barbarous and ignorant, mean, and addicted to drunkenness and smoking tobacco. No fewer than 4000 brandy-shops have been reckoned in Moscow; but the severity of Peter, and the prudence of succeeding governments, have rendered the court and cities of Russia, as to manners and customs, pretty much the same with those of other European countries. The Russian boyars, or nobles, and the better sort of people in general, live and dress in the English or French manner. In their persons, the Russians of all denominations are hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. 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. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; and on such occasions they appear to be void of the sensations to which other people are subject, especially in the meanness of their repasts, and the hardness of their fare.

It is commonly thought that the Russian ladies are as submissive to their husbands in their families, as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they think themselves ill treated if they are not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they present 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,

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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 left off even by the lowest 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. Little can be added with any certainty with regard to the inhabitants of Russia; and to recur back to former barbarous times, could give a rational reader no entertainment. It is to be lamented, that among the many excellent regulations introduced into the Russian government, inebriation still continues, not only among the lower ranks, but persons of distinction; nor are even priests or ladies ashamed of it on holidays. Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling upon post roads, or in sledges during the winter, is extremely remarkable, and the expence next to nothing. 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 twenty-four post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

Nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors, of the population of this vast empire; the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at most, seven millions. It is surprizing that such a mistake should have continued so long, when we consider the immense armies brought into the field by the sovereigns of Russia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Asia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire is, perhaps, the first author who has attempted to undeceive the public in this respect; and has done it upon very authentic grounds, by producing a list, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amount to six million, six hundred and forty-six thousand, three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, nor boys born between the making of one register of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads subject to be taxed, including women and girls, we shall find near twenty millions of souls. To this account may be added three hundred and fifty thousand soldiers, and two hundred thousand nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewise exempted from the poll-tax; as also (says Mr. Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Cossacs, the Calmucs, and other Tartars; the Samojedes, the Laplanders, the Ostiaks, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this list. Upon the whole, this writer does not exaggerate, when he affirms, that the inhabitants of Russia do not amount to fewer than twenty-four millions.

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 being but a thin population for the immense tracts 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. Perhaps the introduction of the small-pox and the venereal disease, may have assisted in the depopulation; and it is likely, that the prodigious quantity of strong

and spirituous liquors, consumed by the inhabitants of the north, is unfriendly to generation.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES.] Nothing certain can be said concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at present, far superior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vast exertions for promoting industry, made by his successors, especially her present imperial majesty, must have greatly added to their income, which can scarcely be reckoned at less than four millions sterling annually. When the reader considers this sum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great-Britain, he will find it a very considerable revenue. That it is so, appears from the vast armies maintained and paid by the late and present emperors, in Germany, Poland, and elsewhere, when no part of the money returned to Russia; nor do I find that they received any considerable subsidy from the houses of Bourbon and Austria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr. Voltaire says, that in 1735, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the sum total amounted to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to about 4s. 6d. sterling.) This income was at that time sufficient to maintain 339,500, as well sea as land forces. The other expences, besides the payment of the army and navy of her present majesty, is very considerable; the number and discipline of which are at least equal to those of her greatest predecessors. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants splendid; and the encouragement she gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and useful discoveries, costs her vast sums, exclusive of her ordinary expences of state.

The Russian troops, while in their own country, subsist chiefly on provisions furnished them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. Some of the Russian revenues arise from monopolies; which are often necessary in the infancy of commerce. The most hazardous enterprise undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in seizing the revenues of the church: He found, perhaps, that policy and necessity required that the greatest part of them should be restored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his excessive power. The clergy, however, are taxed in Russia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown arise from taxes upon estates, bagnios, bees, mills, fisheries, and other particulars.

COMMERCE AND POLITICAL INTERESTS. } I have joined those two articles under one head, because such is the situation and strength of Russia, that she has nothing either to hope or to fear but from commerce. It is true, her territories are accessible on the side of Poland, and therefore it is her interest to preserve a strong party in that country; but even this policy has commerce chiefly for its object, because the greatest part of the Dissidents of Poland are the only traders in that great country; and three-fourths of them being of the Greek church, consider her imperial majesty as their patroness and protector.

In treating of the Russian commerce, former accounts are of little service at this time, because of its great improvements and variations. By the best and surest information, the annual exports of Russia at present amount to four millions of rubles; and her imports do not exceed three millions; so that the balance of trade is yearly two hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds sterling in her favour. This calculation, however,

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is subject to such uncertainties as time alone can remove, arising from Russia's commercial connections with Great-Britain, from whom, about fourteen years ago, she gained the greatest part of that balance. Great-Britain, however, has, within that time, given such encouragement to her American colonies, and to the Scotch and Irish linen manufactures, that her imports from Russia are greatly diminished. On the other hand, the vast advantages which by later treaties between England and Russia, her imperial majesty has been enabled to acquire upon the Caspian sea, and in the inland parts of Asia, will probably more than counterbalance all the diminution which the Russian exports to Great-Britain may have suffered.

Russia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow,ising-glass, linsced-oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hogs bristles, musk, rhubarb, and other drugs; timber, and also raw-silk from China and Persia.

Her foreign commerce, with the rest of Europe, is much encreased since her conquests from Sweden, especially of Livonia and Ingria; and since the establishing of her new emporium of Petersburgh; whereby her naval intercourse with the rest of Europe is made much more short and easy.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence tea, silks, cotton, gold, &c. To Bochara, near the river Oxus, Russia sends her own merchandize, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; and also from the annual fair at Samarcand: she likewise trades to Persia, by Astracan, cross the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White-Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Russia had with the rest of Europe; but it was subject to a long and tempestuous voyage. This town is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth: built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of the trade of Archangel, by building Petersburgh, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandize.

The late and present empresses of Russia, were so sensible of the benefits arising to commerce through peace, that they seem to have postponed other valuable interests to that consideration; witness the sacrifices made by the empress Elizabeth, to preserve the tranquillity of the north, in settling the Swedish succession; and the moderation which her present majesty observed in her son's claims upon Denmark for the duchy of Holstein when her husband died. This difference, however, if not prudently prevented, may, some time or other, kindle a general flame in the north, if not all over Europe.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, } Petersburgh 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 latitude 59 57; 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 gulph. In the year 1703, this city consisted of two small fishing huts, on a spot so waterish and swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are still divided. Without entering into too minute a description

description of this wonderful 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, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe. It may appear surprizing, that the latest authors who treat of that country, differ widely as to the population of Petersburg. Voltaire tells us, that it is said to contain at present 400,000 souls. This seems to be an over-rate, even admitting the imperial troops, attendants, and officers of state to be included. Busching, whom I am rather inclined to follow, thinks that Petersburg consists of about 8000 houses, and contains about 100,000 inhabitants: a number, however, that would seem to be disproportioned to that of the houses, did we not reflect on the great number of servants maintained by the Russian nobility and merchants. The new summer palace is reckoned one of the finest pieces of architecture in Europe. In the middle of the city (which has neither gates nor walls) is a strong, beautiful fort; and the admiralty and dock-yards are likewise fortified.

As Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer time is surprizing. In winter, 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It contains twenty Russian, and four Lutheran churches, besides those of the Calvinists and Roman-catholics; and is the seat of a university, and several academies. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests.

The city of Moscow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and is still considerable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It stands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from which it takes its name, 1414 miles north-east of London; and though its streets are not regular, it presents a very picturesque appearance, for it contains such a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and streams, that it seems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The antient magnificence of this city would be incredible, was 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 a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Busching gives us any satisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profession. Busching speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on. It is generally agreed, that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three places or squares. Busching makes the merchants exchange to contain about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city can contain a greater contrast than Moscow does, of magnificence and meanness 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 Krimlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world: it lies in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure-house, and stables, a victualling-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 Krimlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or

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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 gault, 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 this city's magnificence. Its sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble structures. The public is no stranger to 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 took its rise from the arbitrary disposition of that great prince. I shall have occasion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moscow; where 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 Kremelin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is seen at the famous Holy House of Loretto in Italy.

Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moscow; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. To these he added a dispensary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of some able German chemists and apothecaries; who furnish medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. Mr. 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; and within these few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empress Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an university in this city.

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 twelve miles in compass, and the number of houses was computed at 40,000. Voltaire says, that Moscow was then twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000, but it is almost impossible to make an estimate of its present population. Busching says, that its inhabitants consist of statesmen, nobility, and their retinue; of merchants, soldiers, priests, monks, nuns, and their servants; mechanics, carriers, sledge-drivers, and labourers. The best judges, notwithstanding, think his number too small. Mr. Voltaire's information is certainly more to be depended upon, than that of any transient traveller.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Russians, hitherto, have made but an inconsiderable appearance in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement given by their sovereigns, in the institution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced sufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; especially those that relate to astronomy, the mathematics, and natural philosophy. The speeches pronounced by the bishop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marshal at the late opening of the commission for a new code of laws, are elegant and classical; and the progress which learning has made in that empire since the beginning of this century, is an evidence, that the Russians

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are as capable as any of their neighbours to shine in the arts and sciences.

TRAVELLING.] Nothing strikes, either a reader or a stranger, more than the facility with which the Russians perform the longest and most uncomfortable journeys. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, already described, they travel in sledges 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 travel night and day; so that they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Petersburg and Moscow, in three days and three nights.

**CONSTITUTION, LAWS, AND } The constitution and laws of Russia,
DISTINCTIONS OF RANK. }** like those of other arbitrary governments, rest in the breast of the sovereign. The subjects, however, had some general rules to guide them, both in criminal and civil matters, which always took place, when no interposition of government happened to set them aside. The czar Alexis, who mounted the throne in 1645, drew up an imperfect code of laws; but he never could sufficiently enforce them, being perpetually engaged in war, either foreign or domestic; so that they became in a manner useless or unknown. Even Peter the Great, never could bring his subjects into that state of civilization as to trust them with any law but his own will. In matters of importance, such as the trying and condemning his son to death, he generally appointed a commission, with some person of distinction at its head, for trying them; but this was only to save the appearance of despotism; for the commissioners always pronounced judgment according to what they knew to be his sentiments. The late empress, Elizabeth, made a law, but it only bound herself, that she would suffer no capital punishments to be inflicted in her reign. Were not the fact undoubted, posterity could not believe, that one of the most extensive governments in the world could subsist in peace and tranquillity within itself, under such an exception of justice. The truth is, the dreadful punishments incurred by delinquents, though not capital, were sufficient to deter them. Upon the whole, the virtues of the Russian sovereigns, since Peter's time, have supplied the deficiency of their laws.

The Russian monarchy is hereditary, but after a particular mode; for the senate and the great lords make themselves judges of the proximity of blood in their sovereigns: as may be seen in their history. The present empress was raised to the throne, by being wife to the emperor, and mother of his son; and she has sufficiently justified the partiality that has been shewn her, by the wisdom, patriotism, and vigour of her government; but in nothing so much as in her care to give her subjects a new code of laws. With this view, in 1768, she assembled deputies from all the districts and provinces of her dominions, so as to form, in effect, a Russian parliament. When they were met, they were presented with instructions, which contained her ideas of distributive justice; and which do the highest honour to her political and personal virtues. The code which has been drawn up, has not yet been made public, at least to the rest of Europe; but there can be no doubt that it is highly worthy of its imperial patroness.

The distinctions of rank, form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. The late empresses took the title of Autocratrix, which implies

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implies, that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes, or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own estates, till they were reduced by the czar; but they still retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Those titles, however, so often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the present and late empresses have introduced among their subjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other distinctions of nobility that are common to the rest of Europe.

A senate, composed of the most respectable members of the empire, still subsists in Russia; but though the empress treats the institution with the highest regard and deference, and submits the greatest concerns of her empire to their deliberation, yet they are no better than her privy council; and they seldom or never give her any advice, but such as is conformable to her pleasure.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be discussed here. It is sufficient to say, that they deny the pope's supremacy; and though they disclaim image-worship, they retain many idolatrous and superstitious customs. Their churches are full of pictures of saints, whom they consider as mediators. They observe a number of fasts and lents, so that they live half the year very abstemiously; an institution which is extremely convenient for their soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacraments and Trinity. They oblige their bishops, but not their priests, to celibacy. Peter the Great shewed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more, than the reformation of his church. He broke, as I have already observed, the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himself the head of the church; and preserved the subordinations of metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops. Their priests have no fixed income, but depend for subsistence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after establishing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full possession of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reserved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both sexes were shut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to abolish those societies. The abuses of them, however, are in a great measure removed; for no male can become monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female, or nun, till she is fifty; and even then not without the express permission of their superiors.

The conquered provinces, as I have already observed, retain the exercise of their own religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mohammedans, and more of them no better than pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity.

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

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forrow, 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, 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.

MISCELLANEOUS CUSTOMS.] Before the days of Peter the Great, not only the common people, but many of the boyars, 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 grandes 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 other improvements, in learning and the arts, which he made, have been more than once mentioned. The Russians, before his days, had not a ship upon their coasts. They had no conveniencies 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 make a shift to live as comfortably and sociably in Russia, as in any other part of Europe. Their stoves which they make use of, diffuse a more equal and genial warmth than our grates and chimnies. Their polite assemblies have, since the accession of the present empress, been put under proper regulations; and few of the antient usages remain, but such as are of public utility, and adapted to the nature of their country.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts. This, however, was only the consequence of their pride and ignorance; for Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are to be 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, particularly that of the British fleet. No people have shewn a greater adventuring spirit than the Russians; witness the discovery of Kamtschatka, a people so little known, that it is doubtful to what quarter of the globe it pertains; but it certainly bids the fairest of any country in the world, to lie contiguous to America: and perhaps it may soon appear, that the Kamtschadales and the Americans are the same. In so large an empire as that of Russia, it is impracticable to give any particular account of its different inhabitants. I shall therefore just mention the Kamtschadales. The best account we have of them, is from Mr. Steller and Mr. Krasheninicoff, the latter of whom published their discoveries, under the sanction of the Petersburg academy. The Kamtscha-

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dales, from being a people as wild as their country, are now in a fair way of becoming good Christians. They are now acquainted with the use of iron and linen, which they wear under their furs; and they supply the use of bread flour, by a curious composition of fish-bone powder. They travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness and all, costs in that country 4 l. 10 s. or near twenty rubles. Though suicide is common among them, yet, in war, they are the most rank cowards in nature, making use of a kind of armour, and poisoned arrows. In going through the ceremony of marriage, the bridegroom must fairly ravish his lady, in spite of all the resistance of her female attendance, before he can become a husband; and then he himself grows so indifferent, that he suffers a kind of rape in his turn from the amorous assiduities of his fair one. The Kamtschadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they were Christians. They are superstitious to extravagance; and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments. They seem to be of Tartar original; and before they were humanized, their appearance and manners partook strongly of those of the Esquimaux in North America.

The Siberians are another nation of Russia, whose usages deserve to be mentioned; but we know less of them, than we do of the Kamtschadales. Many of them, as has been already hinted, are still gross pagans; and their manners were 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. The Mohammedan Tartars form a considerable part of the natives: and according to the latest accounts, nature has been so kind to the country, that an exile to Siberia will hereafter be but a very slight punishment.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The Russians are in general a personable people; but their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for so long a time of the year is continually present to their eyes. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scotch; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. The constitutions of the Russians are vigorous; but the inhabitants of the coasts of the Frozen Ocean, who are of Tartar descent, still continue to cloath themselves in deer-skins, with the hairy side inwards. In other respects, the habits of the Russians of every denomination, differ little or nothing from those of the most polite nations in Europe.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Russians are remarkable for the severity and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Volga, 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 knoute were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knoute, 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. The boring and cutting out of the tongue, are likewise practised in Russia; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though the prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the necessity of those tortures. From these particulars, many have concluded that the feelings of the Russians are different from those of mankind in general.

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 sovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. 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 four hundred and forty-three thousand, seven hundred and seventy-two pounds weight; and was cast in the reign of the empress Anne: but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broke out of it; so that it lately lay in a manner useless. 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 Kronstadt, 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 a time when they could not be said to have possessed a ship in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he wrought in person in all those amazing works, with the same assiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

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 they 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.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient history and modern discoveries, that some of the most neglected parts of the Russian empire at present, were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Asia, may see the advantages of their situation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richest provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Asiatic part of Russia (which we have had yet no opportunity of describing) bordered with Samarcand, once the capital, under Jenghiz khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire, than any mentioned by history; and nothing is more certain, than that the conquest of Russia was among the last attempts made by the former of those princes. We cannot, with the smallest degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the history of Russia, higher than the introduction of Christianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princess of this country, called Olha, is said to have been baptized at Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimisces, in marriage. This accounts for the Russians adopting the

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the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptize the Russians, who were for some time subject to the see of Constantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards resigned all their authority over the Russian church; and its bishops erected themselves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that till the year 1450, the princes of Russia were but very little considered, being chiefly subjected by the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Basilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod; from whom he is said to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and silver.

His grandson, the famous John Basilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, subdued the kingdoms of Casan and Astracan Tartary, in Asia, and annexed them to the Russian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of some of his finest provinces, particularly Livonia and Esthonia, to throw themselves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the sovereign of Russia took the title of Welike Knez, i. e. great prince, great lord, or great chief; which the Christian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, czar, was added to that of the Russian sovereigns, but it seems to have been of Persian or Asiatic original; because, at first, it was applied only to Casan, Astracan, and the Asian Siberia. Upon the death of John Basilowitz, the Russian succession was filled up by a set of weak cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, whose information I prefer, as it seems to be the most authentic, assassinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and usurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince, who had escaped from his murderers; and with the assistance of the Poles, and a considerable party (which every tyrant has against him) he drove out the usurper, and seized the crown himself. The imposture was discovered as soon as he came to the sovereignty, because the people were not pleased with him, and he was murdered. Three other false Demetrius's started up one after another.

These impostures prove the despicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were immersed. Their country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good sense of the boyars, impelled by their despair, so late as the year 1613. The independency of Russia was then on the point of being extinguished. Uladislaus, son to Sigisfund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was such, that it produced a general rebellion of the Russians, who drove the Poles out of Moscow, where they had for some time defended themselves with unexampled courage. Philaretus, archbishop of Rostow, whose wife was descended of the antient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Russian tyrants; and there he was detained prisoner, under pretence, that his countrymen had rebelled against Uladislaus. The boyars met in a body; and such was their veneration for Philaretus and his wife, whom the tyrant had shut up in a nunnery, that they elected their son, Michael, a youth of fifteen years of age, to be their sovereign. The father being exchanged for some Polish prisoners, returned to Russia; and being created patriarch by his son, he reigned in the young

man's right with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempt of the Poles to replace Uladislau upon the throne, and likewise the claims of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus, but submitted to young Michael without any terms. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia, occasioned a war between those two people, which gave Michael a kind of a breathing-time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. I find, that soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England sent, at his invitation, Sir John Meyrick, as his ambassador to Russia, upon some commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain sum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predecessors. The English court, however, was so ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Russian company had been then established at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of Great duke and lord of Russia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England; which shews him to have been not only well acquainted with the interests of his own subjects, but the laws and usages of nations. Before we take leave of Michael, who survived his father, I am to mention the modes of the czar's nuptials, which I could not introduce into the miscellaneous customs of their subjects, and which are as follow. His czarish majesty's intention to marry being known, the most celebrated beauties of his dominions were sent for to court, and there entertained. They were visited by the czar, and the most magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by sending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The rest of the candidates were then dismissed to their several homes, with suitable presents. The name of the lady's father who pleased Michael, was Strefchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm, when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexis succeeded his father Michael, and was married in the same manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand signior, Mohammed IV. haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mohammedan dog, and that his scymitar was as good as the grand signior's sabre." He attempted to draw up a code of laws for the civil government of his subjects, which is said to be still in being. He cultivated a polite correspondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambassador not to kiss the pope's toe. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenko Rasin, who endeavoured to make himself king of Astracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and silk manufactures into his dominions: and instead of putting to death or enslaving his Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar prisoners, he sent them to people the banks of the Volga and the Kama. He died suddenly, at the age of forty-six, in the beginning of the year 1675, after shewing himself worthy of being father to Peter the Great.

Alexis left behind him three sons and a daughter, who was a woman of great intrigue and spirit. The names of the sons were Theodore, Iwan or John, and Peter, who was by a second marriage. Theodore mounted the throne, and shewed excellent dispositions for the improvement of his subjects;

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Subjects; but his bodily infirmities prevented him from carrying them into execution. He died without any issue. His brother Iwan, being almost blind and dumb, and otherwise distempered, Theodore, before his death, named his younger brother, Peter, to the sovereignty; though then only ten years of age. This destination was displeasing to the ambitious princess Sophia; and she found means to excite a horrible sedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the standing army of Russia. Their excesses surpassed all description; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright; and exercised the government herself, with the greatest severity and inhumanity; for all the Russian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom she supposed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The instances given by Voltaire, of her inhuman administration, are shocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint sovereigns, and their sister their associate and co-regent. Her administration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durst she venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other insurgents. Finding this debility in her own person, she intended to have married prince Basil Galitzin, who is said to have been a man of sense and spirit, and some learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter was now about seventeen years of age, and asserted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moscow; and upon Peter's publishing aloud, that a conspiracy had been formed by his sister to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or destroyed Sophia's party, and forced herself to retire to a monastery. Galitzin's life was spared, but his great estate was confiscated; and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment, "Thou art commanded by the most clement czar, to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee three pence per day for thy subsistence." Upon the death of Iwan, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone.

It far exceeds the bounds prescribed to this work, to give even a summary detail of this great prince's actions. They may be collected from the histories of the northern nations, Poland, Germany, and other countries; some of which I have already exhibited, as I intend to do the rest. All therefore that is necessary in this place, is to give a general view of his power, and the vast reformation he introduced into his dominions.

Peter, towards the end of the last century, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealousy of his sister, associated himself with Germans and Dutch; the former for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and the latter, for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclinations for the arts were encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmontese; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolencies of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Sardam, he completed

pleted himself in ship-building and navigation : and thro' the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia ; and at last he even exterminated, all but two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land ; and the many defeats which he received, especially at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he lost rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage : and the generous friendship he shewed to Augustus, king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank, distinct from merit : and he at last married, by the name of Catherine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier ; because, after long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his counsels. Catherine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the battle of Pultowa, were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity, as I have already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences : and, upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who was called the czarewicz, and who marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alleged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government ; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, we can say nothing as to the justice of the charge. It was, undoubtedly, his will, that the young prince should be found guilty ; but he died, as is said, of a fever, before his sentence was put into execution, in 1722. Peter then ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognized as his successor ; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the czarewicz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince ; but none was more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter died of the small-pox in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished ; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the late empress, entitled to the crown : but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne, duchess of Courland, second daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldest brother ; though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was prosperous and glorious ; for though she accepted of the crown under limitations that were derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dolgoruki family, who had imposed upon her the limitations,

limitations, that they themselves might govern. She raised her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many severe executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the son of her niece, the princefs of Mecklenburgh, by Antony Ulric, of Brunswic Wolfenbittel, was, by her will, entitled to the succession: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princefs of Mecklenburgh and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princefs of Mecklenburgh to arrest Biron; who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent in exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princefs Anne of Mecklenburgh and her husband, was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of their German connections, disagreeable, not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithstanding a prosperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princefs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed such a party, that in one night's time she was declared and proclaimed empress of the Russias; and the princefs of Mecklenburgh, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished, as has been already hinted, capital punishments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation till her time unknown in Russia: but at the same time she punished the counts Munich and Osterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late administration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and settled, as we have already seen, the succession to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the most equitable foundation. Having gloriously finished a war, which had been stirred up against her, with Sweden, she replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was descended from her elder sister, to be her heir. She gave him the title of Grand duke of Russia; and soon after her accession to the throne, she called him to her court; where he renounced the succession to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princefs of Anhalt-Zerbit, by whom he had a son, who is now heir to the Russian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great-Britain, at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political, and some, as is said, private reasons, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prussia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the success of the war which was in disfavour of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conquests were such, as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was saved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand prince of Russia, and duke of Holstein: a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian Majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities,

liarities, unpopular as they then were in Russia; but it is said, that he aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. His memory has been likewise accused of certain domestic infidelities, which were too provoking for a spirited prince to bear. Whatever there may be in those suggestions, it is certain that an universal conspiracy was formed against him, and that he scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived while under an ignominious confinement. That his conduct with regard to Prussia, was not the sole cause of his deposition, seems pretty evident from the measures of his successor, who was his own wife, and now reigns by the title of Catharine III. That princess, with regard to Prussia, trod in her husband's steps, and now follows the plan he chalked out. The most remarkable domestic occurrence of her reign hitherto, is the death of prince Iwan, son to the prince of Mecklenburgh, and, while he was in his cradle, emperor of Russia. That prince lost his life in an ill-concerted conspiracy, which had been formed by some private officers, to raise him to the throne.

As the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Russia, her present imperial majesty took a great concern in raising that king to the throne, and in securing the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and protestant subjects of the Polish republic. The umbrage which her armies gave to the Roman-catholic Poles, by their residence in Poland, produced first a civil war, and then confederacies against all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a scene of blood and confusion. The Ottoman court, who had been long waiting for such an opportunity, availed itself of the occasion; they imprisoned, against the laws of nations, the Russian minister at Constantinople, declared war against Russia, and marched 500,000 troops to the confines of Poland and Russia. Hostilities are now begun on both sides; but as the war is only in its infancy, we can say nothing as to the event.

SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

I shall, according to the general plan I have laid down, treat of the islands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the description of that antient kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, I shall comprehend under one head, those of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Western isles.

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

The Orcades, or Orkney islands, lie north of Dungsby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by Pentland Frith.

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

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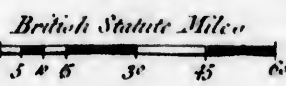
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CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of those islands, the air being keen, piercing, and salubrious; so that many of the natives live to a great age. They see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent: all the rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness, and storms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fisherman was imprisoned in May, for publishing the account of the prince and princess of Orange being raised to the throne of England the preceding November; and, probably, would have been executed, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

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 not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen, and is the seat of episcopacy. On this island the Dutch begin to fish for herring at Midsummer, and their fishing season lasts six months.

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

The isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four 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. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is 40 miles long, and, in some places, 30 broad; fruitful, and well peopled. Barra, which is about 10 miles long, and 3 or 4 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 the shire of Inverness, but they have no towns worthy notice.

North Wilt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fishing.

I shall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides islands, which are at present of small importance, either to the public or the proprietors; though, probably, they may, in future times, be of great consequence to both, by the very improveable fisheries upon their coasts. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous isle of Iona, 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 remains of sanctimonious antiquity, as shall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to describe the island of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reason, that I can discover, but because it is the remotest of all the north-west islands, and very difficult of access; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are protestant, and very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE AND RELIGION. } It is not to be imagined, that the inhabitants of the islands belonging to Scotland, can be so minutely described here, as

they

they have been by some other authors; not so much on account of the importance, as their curiosity. Those of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subjects to the crown of Denmark, who pledged them, and in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland. The isles of Shetland and Orkney form a stewarty, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present, the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland, only, perhaps, they are more honest and religious. Men of fortune there, have improved the estates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families all the luxuries and elegancies that are to be found at the tables of the English and Scotch neighbours. They build their dwelling, and other houses, in the most fashionable taste; and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon fish, 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 virous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their 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. Their people's temperance preserves them from many diseases known to the Lowlanders, and from the excess of luxury. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are frequently subject, with the powder of snail-shells and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is protestant, 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 those the 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, we shall hereafter be described. They are similar in persons, constitution, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that as the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands, perhaps the descendants of the antient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

Those islands alone retain the antient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors; but with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their *Spanachies* supply the place of the antient bards, famous in history; and are the historians, or rather the genealogists, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewise attended when he appears abroad, with his musician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dressed in the manner, but more sumptuously than the English minstrels of former times*. Notwithstanding the contempt into which the music is fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention was cultivated among those islanders, since the beginning of the present century. They had regular colleges and professors, and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rit

* See Percy's Reliques of antient English Poetry, in 3 vols.

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of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, now abolished: The inhabitants, however, still preserve the most profound respect and affection for their several chieftains, notwithstanding all the pains that have been taken by the British legislature to break these connections, which experience has shewn to be so dangerous to the government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders, already described; though they certainly are better, for they have oatmeal, cheese, butter-milk, and whey; and when they chuse it, plenty of mutton, beef, goat, kid, and venison. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical fancy, which is an enemy to industry, and indeed to domestic and personal cleanliness. The agility of both sexes in the exercises of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who in treating of this subject, should omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which distinguishes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of the second-sight. It would be equally absurd to attempt to disprove the reality of the instances of this kind that have been brought by creditable authors, or to admit all that has been said upon the subject. The adepts of the second-sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations, either really or typically, which swim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of twenty-four or forty-eight hours. I do not, however, from the best information, observe that any two of those adepts agree as to the manner and form of those relations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their magical appearances. The truth seems to be, that those islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overstretch their imaginations, till they are presented with those phantasms, which they mistake for fatidical manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that amidst many thousands of predictions, some did not happen to be fulfilled; and these being well attested, gave a sanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides being the most westerly islands where the Celts settled, their language must remain there in its greatest purity. This opinion, though very plausible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as customs, are there found; but a vast intercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whose language is mixed with the Slavonian and Teutonic, which last has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the opposite coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendents of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion professed in the Hebrides, is chiefly presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but popery and ignorance still prevail among many of the islanders, whilst superstitious practices and customs seem to be almost grafted in their nature.

[SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philosophy to account for the reason, yet it is certain that the soil of both of the northern and western islands belonging to Scotland, has undergone an amazing alteration. It is evident to the eye-sight, 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 those islands. They are not destitute of fine fresh water; and 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 are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] These are all in their infancy in those islands. The reader can easily suppose, that their staple commodity consists of fish, especially herrings, which are the best 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 affords them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths; and even the linen manufacture makes no small progress in those 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 those islands at once ornamental and beneficial to their mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be said on this head, that is peculiar to those islands. In the countries already described, mention has been made of most of the birds and fishes that have been discovered here; only it is thought that they contain a species of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elsewhere. The Shetland isles are famous for a small breed of horses, which are incredibly active, strong, and hardy. The coasts of those islands, till within these twenty years, seemed, however, to have been created not for the inhabitants, but for strangers. The latter furnish the former with wines, strong liquors, spice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thousand busses have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring-fishery, besides those fitted out by the Hamburgers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

**RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Those islands exhibit many pre-
ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } tant proofs, in their churches, the
vestiges of old forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil, of what
have 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 a hermitage, cut out of a stone called
dwarf-stone, thirty-six feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick; in
which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone**

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of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance 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. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of the druidical temples remaining in those islands, some of which have required prodigious labour, and are stupendous erections, of the same nature as the famous Stonehenge near Salisbury, which I shall have occasion to describe: others seem to be memorials of particular persons, or actions, consisting of one large stone standing upright; some of them have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in those islands; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications might employ an able antiquary to describe. The gigantic bones found in many burial places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of far 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 those 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, embellished, and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland 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. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated isle of Jona, called St. Columb-Kill. We shall not enter into the history or origin of the religious erections upon this island; it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often lauded here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scotch or Irish kings, with some Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninclosed. The steeple is large, the cupola twenty-one feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies that are discernible upon this island, and give countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was extinct in Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in those islands.

The islands belonging to Scotland contain likewise some natural curiosities peculiar to themselves; the phaseoli, or Mollucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is supposed, from the West-Indies, by the westerly winds, which often force ashore many curious shells and marine productions, highly esteemed by naturalists. In the parish of Harn, a large piece of stag's-horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce surprizing phenomena, which the natives believe to be supernatural.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, } See Scotland.
AND HISTORY.

S C O T L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \\ \text{and} \\ 6 \end{array} \right\}$ W. Lon. $\left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} 1 \\ \text{and} \\ 6 \end{array}} \right\}$ Being $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 300 \text{ miles in length,} \\ \\ 150 \text{ miles in breadth.} \end{array} \right\}$
 Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 54 \\ \text{and} \\ 59 \end{array} \right\}$ N. Lat. $\left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} 54 \\ \text{and} \\ 59 \end{array}} \right\}$

NAME.] THERE can be little doubt that the Scots were not the original inhabitants of this kingdom, which they invaded about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scot, is no other than a corruption of Scyth, or Scythian; being originally from that immense continent, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escocia; by the French, Escosse; by the Scots, Germans, and English, Scotland.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of twenty-seven thousand, seven hundred, ninety-four miles, is bounded on the south by England, and on the north, east, and west, by the Deucalionian, German and Irish seas.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the counties south of the Frith of Forth; the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and those to the north of the same river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national division; but some modern writers, with less geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and customs, of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or provinces, are allotted to the southern division, and twenty-two to the northern; and those counties are subdivided into sheriffdoms, stewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Counties and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh	— { Mid-Lothian — — }	{ Edinburgh, W. Lon. 3. N. Lat. 56.
2. Haddington	— { East Lothian — — }	{ Dunbar and Haddington.
3. Berwick	— { The Mers and Bailiary of Lauderdale — — }	{ Berwick, Duns, and Lauder.
4. Roxborough	— { Tiviotdale, Lidfdale, and Eskdale — — }	{ Jedburgh, Hermitage, and Roxborough.
5. Selkirk	— { Ectorick Forest — — }	{ Selkirk.
6. Peebles	— { Tweeddale — — }	{ Peebles.
7. Lanerk	— { Clydfdale — — }	{ Glasgow, W. Lon. 4. N. Lat. 55-50. Hamilton and Lanerk.
8. Dumfries	— { Nithfdale, Annandale	{ Dumfries, Annand.
9. Wigto.wn	— { Galloway, West Part	{ Wigtown.

Shires.	Counties and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
10. Air	{ Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham	{ Aire, Balgenny, and Irwin.
11. Dumbarton	Lenox	Dumbarton.
12. Bute and	{ Bute, Arran, and	{ Rothfay.
13. Cathness	{ Cathness	{ Wick, W. Lon. 2. N. Lat. 58-4c.
14. Renfrew	Renfrew	Renfrew.
15. Stirling	Stirling	Stirling.
16. Linlithgow	West Lothian	Linlithgow.
17. Perth	{ Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Glenfield, and Raynork	{ Perth, Athol, Scone, Blair, and Dunkeld.
18. Kincardin	Merns	Bervy.
19. Aberdeen	{ Mar, Buchan, and Strathbogie	{ Old Aberdeen, W Lon. 1-45. N. Lat. 57-12. New Aberdeen, Fraserburgh, Peterhead.
20. Inverness	{ Badenoch, Lochabar, Part of Ross, and Murray	{ Inverness, Inverlochy.
21. Nairne and	{ Western Part of Murray and Cromartie	{ Nairne, Cromartie, Tayne, and Tarbat.
22. Cromartie	{ Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with Part of the Western Isles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Wist, Terif, Col., and Lismore	{ Inverary, Dunstafnag, Killonmer, and Campletown.
23. Argyle		
24. Fife	Fife	{ St. Andrew, Couper, Burnt-Island, Dumfermlin, Dysart, and Anstruther.
25. Forfar	Forfar, Angus	Montrose and Forfar.
26. Bamff	{ Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin	{ Bamff.
27. Kirkcudbright	Galloway, East Part	Kirkcudbright.
28. Sutherland	{ Strathnaver Part and Dornock	{ Strathy. Dornock.
29. Clacmanan and	Fife Part	{ Culros and Clacmanan.
30. Kinross		
31. Ross	{ Ross, Isles of Sky, Lewis, Harris, Ardrofs, and Glenelg	{ Ross.
32. Elgin	Murray	Elgin.

Shires.	Counties and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
33. Orkney	{ Isles of Orkney and Shetland — — — }	{ Kirkwall, W. Lon. 3 N. Lat. 59-45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. Lat. 61. }

In all, thirty-three shires, which chuse thirty representatives to fit in the parliament of Great-Britain; Bute and Cathness chusing alternately as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmanan and Kinross.

The royal Boroughs which chuse representatives are,

Edinburgh — — —	1	Innerkerthin, Dumfermlin,
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tayne — — —	1	Queensferry, Culross, and Stirling.
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne, and Forres — — —	1	Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton — —
Elgin, Cullcin, Bamff, Inverury, and Kintore — — —	1	Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwic, Lawder, and Jedburgh — — —
Aberdeen, Bervy, Montrose, Aberbrotho, and Brechin — — —	1	Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk — — —
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews — — —	1	Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kirkcudbright — — —
Craik, Kilrenny, Anstruther East and West, and Pittenweem — — —	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranrawer, and Whitehorn
Dyfert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Island — — —	1	Aire, Irwin, Rothfay, Campbelltown, and Inverary —

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] The climate all over Scotland is, from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes, for the most part, agreeable and healthy, exempted from the inconveniencies that attend the northern countries already described, and even those of a more southerly situation. The air is, in general, moist and temperate; but in the neighbourhood of some high mountains, which are covered with eternal snow, it is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. Day-light, at Midsummer, lasts eighteen hours and five minutes; and the day and night, in winter, are in the same proportion. Late experience has proved, that industry, and skilful agriculture, can render the soil of Scotland as fruitful as that of England; though, perhaps, many of its vegetable and hortulane productions may not come so soon to maturity. The inequality of the soil of Scotland is surprizing; and cannot be accounted for by natural or apparent causes; some of the northern provinces being more fruitful and more early in their products than the southern: but those inequalities seem to be in common to all countries. The water of Scotland is pure, light, and easy to the stomach; and some mineral waters have been discovered.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian-hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland Hills, runs through Lothian and joins those of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides those continued

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chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Teviot 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 describing a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself into that arm of the 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, 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 north-east, falls into the German Ocean; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves near Aberdeen. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. The Tweed serves as a boundary between Scotland and England; and rising on the borders of Lanerkshire, after many beautiful serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick. 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, is now (1769) carrying on at a very considerable expence, by a society of public-spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication will be opened between the east and the west seas, to the immense advantage of the whole kingdom, as must be evident to every person who shall throw his eye upon the map of Scotland.

The lakes of Scotland (there called Lochs) are too many to be particularly described. Those called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, and Loch Au, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are not matched in Europe. Several of those 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 sixty miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings: the Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable by 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 strait stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Lochness is a hill two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about thirty fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and never freezes; whereas, but seventeen miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine descendents of the Celts, were probably enabled to preserve themselves independent upon, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most uncontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-

run with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preservering quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those mosses. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian Forest, the remains of which are now thought to be Etrick Wood, in the south of Scotland, famous in antiquity for its being the harbour of the Caledonian wild boars; but such an animal is not now to be heard of in Scotland. Several woods, however, still remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and founderies; but lying at a great distance from water-carriage, though the work succeeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. 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 twenty or thirty miles in length, and four or five in breadth, but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

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 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 dessert. The civil wars and troubles which follow under his daughter and in the minority of his grandson, drove those miners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which, since that time, have never been recovered. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts washed down by the floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that those beautiful coins struck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are here 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, and 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 the 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: the taste for plantations, however, of all kinds that now prevails, will soon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerkshire; allum-mines have been found in Bamfshire; chrysal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in many parts of Scotland; 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. N

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country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and stones,
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 their founderies and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } I have already observed, that
 DUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } the soil of Scotland may be ren-
 dered as fruitful as that of England. Many parts of the Low Countries at
 present exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because
 they are far less exhausted and worn out than those in the southern parts
 of the island. Even the barren rocks of Scotland now produce grain of
 various kinds; and agriculture is perhaps as well understood, both in
 theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landholders and farmers,
 as it is in any part of Europe. Their grounds produce wheat, rye, bar-
 ley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasturage, and are generally well in-
 closed and kept warm. In the southern counties the finest garden fruits,
 particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, 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 salu-
 tious and pleasant-tasted berries; though it must be owned, that many
 extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath. The sea-coast produces
 the alga-marina, dulce, or dulish, a most wholesome nutritive weed, in
 great quantities, and other marine plants.

The fishes on the coast of Scotland are much the same with those of the
 islands and counties already described; but 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 emulate, if not to excel, the Dutch themselves, in curing, as
 well as catching, their fish. In former times, the Scots seldom ven-
 tured to fish at a distance of above a league from the land, but they now
 ply in the deep waters as boldly and successfully as any of their neigh-
 bours. 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.

This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domestic ani-
 mals that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the
 roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their flesh is not comparable
 to English venison. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here
 plentiful; as are the grouse and heathcock, which is a most delicious
 bird, as likewise are the capperkaily and the tarmacan, which is of the
 pheasant kind; but those birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and
 when discovered are very shy. The numbers of black cattle and sheep,
 that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, are almost incre-
 dible, and formerly brought large sums into the country, the black cattle
 especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, are reckoned
 superior to English beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is
 now on its decline, by the vast increase of manufacturers, whose demands
 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 mother
 country.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the
 breed of the Scotch horses, by importing a larger and more generous
 kind

kind from the continent; but the truth is, notwithstanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and soil of Scotland were unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminished both in size and spirit; so that about the time of the union, few horses, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the English and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper foods and management, but with what success time alone can discover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The population of Scotland is
 CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS. } generally fixed at about a million and a half of souls. This calculation rests merely upon vague conjecture, as I know of no attempt that has been made to support even its probability. If we form an estimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The only records at present that can be appealed to, are those of the army; and, by the best information, they make the number of soldiers furnished by Scotland in the late war, which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to observe, that above 60,000 of those were raised in the islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions and a half, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we consult the most ancient and creditable histories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, must have been excessive, as it afforded so many thousands to be butchered by the swords of the English, without any sensible decrease (so far as I can find) of the inhabitants.

The common people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of a characteristic feature, that of high cheek bones, reigns in their faces; 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.

An intelligent reader may easily perceive, that the ridiculous family pride which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which reigned there in all their horrors of blood and barbarity. Their kings, excepting some of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were considered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war, for in time of peace their civil authority was so little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the most civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the sovereign. Those ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave those petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own estates, and they generally executed in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of out-vying each other,

in the numbers of their followers, created perpetual animosities, which seldom or never ended without bloodshed; so that the common people lived in a state of continual hostility.

Some Scotch gentlemen, who pique themselves upon their family, or the antiquity of their descent, are the most dangerous as well as disagreeable animals upon earth; because, forgetting all the virtues of their ancestors, they imitate them only in their capricious vanity and revenge. This seldom happens but when pride, as is too often the case, is connected with indolence, which keeps them at home in a loathsome state of inactivity. Those who go abroad, and endeavour by industry to raise the lowliness of their circumstances, excel in all the social, civil, commercial, and military duties. There is a kind of similarity in their personal characters, and by seeing one Scotchman who acquires a fortune abroad, you see the whole. They are hospitable, open, communicative, and charitable. They assimilate to the manners of the people with whom they live, with more ease and freedom than the natives of most other countries; and they have a surprizing facility in acquiring languages, particularly the French.

With regard to the gentlemen who live at home, upon estates of 300 pounds 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 indeed have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their stations. Hence it is, that among the common people of Scotland, few atrocious actions happen, and few instances of perjury, and vices common to other countries, occur. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprize; 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 1735, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 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 was it not well attested.

It is not however to be dissembled, that the impulse of many of the Scots, but especially the Highlanders, to revenge, when they imagine they are either affronted or wronged, is equally strong. It must be acknowledged, that such crimes had but too much countenance from the feudal constitutions of their country. Their family differences familiarized them to blood and slaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. These passions did not live in the breasts of the common people only, for they were authorized and cherished by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had seen the world, were conversant in the courts of Europe, masters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and social life. Those peculiarities may be accounted for by their feudal prepossessions that their importance was owing to the numbers of their followers, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their master, and the aggrandizement of his name.

The late duke of Argyle was the first chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependents, and to banish from them those barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others : and there scarce can be a doubt, that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of society.

It remains perhaps a question, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmost service to its natives. Their literature, however slight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners ; but at the same time, it drained their 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.

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. It has been ridiculously supposed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian secretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch music. This is a falsehood invented by his countrymen in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed long before Rizzio's arrival, in their church music ; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was entirely employed by his mistress in foreign dispatches, ever composed an air during the short time he lived in Scotland ; but, were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the music itself is sufficient.

From what has been said, it appears that the antient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the present time, as the forms of a Roman senate are to that of a conclave ; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent so quick and so sudden a transition of manners. The danger is, that it has been rather too rapid in a contrary extreme, before the resources of the luxuries and conveniencies of life have been fully established. The Scotch commonalty have some customs at present that are peculiar to themselves : they affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond, perhaps, any people in the world ; but this attachment is seldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or disgustful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of the antient Scotch dishes, such as the hoggice, the sheep's-head singed, the fish in sauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. These dishes, in their original dressing, were savoury and nutritive for keen appetites ; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery, have rendered them agreeable to the most delicate palates. The common use of oatmeal, undoubtedly, gave a hardness to the features of the vulgar of both sexes, besides some other disagreeable consequences it was attended with ; but these unfavourable characteristics will wear out, by the introduction of wheaten bread, which now abounds in Scotland. The excessive use of oat-meal accounts for the common observation, that the faces of the lower women in Scotland are commonly very coarse ; but it was owned at the same time, that among the higher rank of females, beauty was found in its utmost perfection. The reverse has been remarked of a neighbouring nation.

The lower people in Scotland are not so much accustomed as the English are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments ; but when they partake of them, for that very reason, they seem to enjoy them more completely. One institution there is, at once social and charitable, and

that

is, the contributions raised for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Those festivities partake of the antient Saturnalia; but though the company consists promiscuously of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each guest pays according to his inclination or ability, but seldom under a shilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be servants in respectable families, the contributions are so liberal, that they often establish the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the solemn decent manner of their ancestors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the parish beadle is sent round with a passing bell; but he stops at certain places, and with a slow melancholy tone, he announces the name of the party deceased, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceased was beloved in the place, vast numbers attend. The procession is sometimes preceded by the magistrates and their officers, and the deceased is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair poles, to the grave, where it is interred without any farther ceremony than the nearest relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the same manner as in England, but without the burial service. The highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called coronachs, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both sexes.

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 to their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the peculiar 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 caper construction, till it terminates in the part which 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; and 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, the cricket excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen look upon it as too athletic and mechanical.

RELIGION.] The established religion in Scotland is presbyterian. It was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the austerities of calvinism and intolerance of popery, by its persecuting spirit. At present it is mild and gentle; and the most rational Christian may accommodate himself to the doctrine and worship of the national church. It is to be wished, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticism not only of lay seceders, but of regular ministers. These are industrious to fix upon the absurdities (and what church is without them) of former divines and visionaries, and ecclesiastical ordinances and discipline, which were found to be incompatible with the nature of government. A vast number of those seceding congregations are to be found

in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers; though scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they fly into the face of the civil power, or at least the instances are rare and inconsiderable.

A different set of dissenters in Scotland, consists of the episcopalians, a few quakers and papists, and other sectaries, 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; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refused to recognize king William's title. The partizans of that unhappy prince retained the episcopal religion; and king William's government was 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 episcopist 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, however, still subsist, but thinly; and in a few years they will, probably, be reduced to nothing. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having suppressed episcopacy in Scotland: the English bishops supply them with clergy qualified according to law, whose chapels are chiefly filled by the English, and such Scotch hearers of that persuasion as have places under the government.

The defection of some great families from the cause of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries very inconsiderable in Scotland. If any remain, they are confined to the northern parts, and the islands: but they appear to be as quiet and inoffensive as protestant subjects.

Towards the middle of the 16th century, when learning, arts and sciences began to revive in Europe, the absurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy in Scotland, did not escape the notice of a free and enquiring people, and gave rise to the Reformation; which 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 doctrine of Calvin, and was become the apostle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that, upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to succeed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out these possessions for themselves, did not at first discourage this notion; but no sooner had Knox succeeded in his designs, which, through the fury of the mob, destroyed some of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church livings, and most scandalously left the reforming clergy to live almost in a state of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any struggle in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders, left the doctrine and discipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the presbyterian clergy of vast importance to the state; and their revenues have been so much mended, that though no stipend there exceeds 150 l. a year, few fall short of 60 l. and none of 50 l. If the present expensive mode of living continues in Scotland, the established clergy will have many unanswerable reasons to urge why their revenues ought to be increased. The

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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 create 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 reversible 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 cognizance of all ecclesiastical causes 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 *jure devoluto*; 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 act pretty much as church-wardens do in England, by having the superintendency of the poor, and taking 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 a 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 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,

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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; that it agrees in its censures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of opposition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. This establishment, at various periods, proved so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and lesser excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, that the kirk sessions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. It is said, that even that relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both sexes to sit upon what they call a repenting-stool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greatest infanticides in the world. In short, the power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predecessors. 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, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's prayer. 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.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishoprics, St. Andrew's and Glasgow; and twelve bishoprics, which are, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brichen, Dumbarton, Ross, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles. The universities of this kingdom are four, viz. those of St. Andrew, Aberdeen, Edinburgh, and Glasgow.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe for these fourteen hundred years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St. Patric, the celebrated apostle of Ireland; and many others since, whose bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnanus, and other authors, who lived before, and at the time of the conquest of England, which are come to our hands, are specimens of their learning. 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 seeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, purer English than that bard, and his ~~versification~~ ^{versification} is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scotch

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monuments of learning and antiquity, have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin title 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 pure from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This is at least a manifest proof that classical learning was better cultivated at the court of Scotland, than at any other in Europe.

The famous discovery of logarithms, was owing to Napier, the baron of Marchilton; and it would be endless to name the many great mathematicians which Scotland has since produced. The same may be said of her divines, moralists, physicians, naturalists, poets, historians, and writers in every branch of literature, whose eminent merits are confessed by the greatest enemies of that country.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Scotland may hitherto be justly looked upon as a non-described country. All the writers, till within these few years; who have treated of that nation, represent it as being in the very same state as a century ago. In this they are not to blame, because the alteration which the people and country have undergone, has been inconceivably sudden. Without entering into the disputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take possession of Darien, 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 enterprize. 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 languor of the Scottish commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country sustained, to the disgust the inhabitants conceived on that account, and some invasions of their rights, which they thought inconsistent with the articles of union. The entails and narrow settlements of family estates, and some remains of the feudal institutions, might contribute to the same cause.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the administration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the first minister who discovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more considerable object of governmental enquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his administration, made them sensible of their own importance; and had he been a Scotchman, must have ruined his ministry. 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 whatever indecent and mean resentments have been expressed by the refuse of the English nation against the Scots, the latter 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.

This is manifest in the extensive trade they carry on with the British settlements in America and the West-Indies, and with all the nations to which

which the English themselves trade; so that the encrease of their shipping within these twenty-five 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 those, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar, and rum, from the British plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immense saving of their nation.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coasts, for they have a vast 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 forty shillings for every ton of shipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fisheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily encreasing, open inexhaustible funds of wealth; their cured fish being by foreigners, and the English planters in America, preferred to those of Newfoundland. The benefits of those fisheries are perhaps equalled by other manufactures carrying on at land, particularly that of iron at Carron, in Sterlingshire. Their linen manufactory, notwithstanding a strong rivalship from Ireland, supported underhand by some English, 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, cambrics, checks, Osnaburgs, inkle, 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. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the English in their finer cloths; but they make at present some broad cloth proper for the wear of people of fashion in an undress, and exceeding in quality and fineness what is commonly called Yorkshire cloth. 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 well known; 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 encrease 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 is the great emporium for the American commerce. I have already mentioned the great project now executing for joining the Forth to the Clyde, which will render the benefits of trade of mutual advantage to both parts of Scotland. In short, the more that the seas, the situation, the soil, harbours, and rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purposes of commerce, both foreign and domestic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, some of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paisley itself 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 have been erected, and are carrying on in Scotland; and glass works of every kind.

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Paper-mills are erecting every where. The Scotch carpeting make neat and lasting furniture; and some essays have been lately made, with no inconsiderable degree of success, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as is found in any part of Europe. After all that has been said, many years will be required before the trade and improvements of Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event, they never can give umbrage to the English, as the interests of the two people are, or ought to be the same.

Having said thus much, I cannot avoid observing the prodigious disadvantage under which both the commercial and landed interest of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment for England and foreign countries, where they spend their ready money. This is one of the evils arising to Scotland from the union, which removed the seat of her legislature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the resort of volunteer absentees to that capital. While this partiality subsists, the Scots must always be distressed for a currency of specie. How far paper can supply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be somewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vast manufactures and works now set on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reside in Scotland, have wisely abandoned French claret, (though too much of it is still made use of in the country) and brandy, for rum, and the liquors produced in the British plantations; and their own malt liquors are now come to as great (if not greater) perfection as those of England; and it has been said, that of late they export large quantities of their ale even to London itself.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place those two articles under the same head, because they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This stuff consists of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles; and the natives value themselves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call sets, of those stripes and colours, which where skilfully managed, produce a wonderfully pleasing effect to the eye. Above the shirt, the Highlanders wear a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as represented in antient statues: sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leather belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and supply the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in kilt, which I make no doubt is the same word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waste, and this they term the philibeg, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. Their stockings were likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. They wear upon their feet, brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; and on their heads a flat cap, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. In the belt of the philibeg were generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver. The introduction of the broad sword of Andrea Ferrara (which was always part of the Highland dress) from a famous cutler of that name, seems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large

large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

The dress of the Highland women consisted of a petticoat and jerkin, with strait sleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held close under their chins with the hand, or fastened with a buckle of a particular fashion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately disused in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoso may find a strong resemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the antients, and those of the Tuscans, (who were unquestionably of Celtic original) as they are to be seen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Scots to this dress, rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful, for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had scarcely any other arms than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden, rendered it no difficult matter for the legislature to force them into a total change of their dress. Its conveniency, however, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that some of the Highland regiments still retain it; and well-affected gentlemen, upon application to the proper officer, are at liberty to use it.

The dress of the higher and middling ranks in the Low-Country, differ little or nothing from the English; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear. The dress of the women of all ranks are much the same in both kingdoms.

I have already mentioned the language of the Highlanders, especially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, to be radically Celtic. The English spoken by the Scots, notwithstanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more southern counties, is written in the same manner in both kingdoms. At present, the pronunciation of a Scotchman does not differ so much from a Londoner, as that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somersetshire, and some parts of Worcestershire.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The Roman, and other anti-
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } quities found in Scotland, have
of themselves furnished matter for large volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castellas, their pretentures, or walls reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some fresh discoveries, an account of them could afford no instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant; because at present they can be discovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief may, however, be proper. The course of the Roman pretenture between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is still discernible, as are several Roman camps in the neighbourhood. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a striking remain of Roman antiquity. It is situated at Ardoch, in Perthshire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola before he fought the bloody battle, so well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king

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Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inscriptions found near it, a Roman castellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the most entire and best preserved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in Britain, having no less than five rows of ditches and six ramparts on the south side; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three of them are very distinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana; and dextra: the prætorium, is the place where the general's tent stood.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St. Paul's at London, stood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Sterlingshire, but has been lately barbarously demolished for the purpose of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the base was eighty-eight feet; so that upon the whole, it was one of the most compleat Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or some of his successors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it stood near the prætorium which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are some artificial conical mounts of earth, which still retain the name of Dani-pace, or Duni-pacis; which serve to evidence, that there was a kind of solemn compromise between the Romans and Caledonians, that the former should not extend their empire farther to the northwards.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; some of them to the north of the prætorium, where, however, it does not appear that they made any establishment. By the inscriptions found near the prætorium, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the southern parts.

Danish camps and fortifications are easily discernible in several northern counties, and are known by their square figures and difficult situations. Some houses of stupendous fabrics remain in Ross-shire, but whether they are Danish, Pictish, or Scottish, does not appear. The elevations of two of these are to be seen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian structures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the descents of that people upon the whole coasts.

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 without a stair-case; 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 forty regular courses of hewn free stone, 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 taste 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 of Brechin, denote it to be of Christian original. It is not indeed impossible that those sculptures are of a later date. Besides those two pil-

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lars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the same taste.

The vestiges of erections by the antient Scots themselves, 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, but minutely described by Mr. Gordon. Many other historical monuments of the Scots may be discovered on the like occasions; but it must be acknowledged, that the obscurity of their sculptures have encouraged a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures, so that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable if I should neglect to mention the 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 twenty-three feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no less than twelve or fifteen feet below; so that the whole height is at least thirty-five feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relieve are carved thereon, some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper-part." Though this monument has generally been looked upon as Danish, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm a few years before the conquest of England by the Normans.

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish, and Scotch antiquities, 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 be *terre 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 scenes of Agricola's operations.

Scotland affords few natural curiosities but those we have already mentioned in describing the lakes, rivers, and mountains. Mention is made of a heap of white stones, most of them clear like chrystal, together with great plenty of oyster and other sea-shells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich in Ross-shire, twenty miles distant from the sea. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water oozing through a spongy porous rock on the top, doth quickly consolidate after it drops

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to the bottom. Other natural curiosities belonging to Scotland have taken possession of its descriptions and histories, but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vanish when they are skilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeshire, and are probably natural; are of extraordinary dimensions, and have been the scenes of inhuman cruelties.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this division, which the bounds of our work oblige us to contract. The castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territories reached to the Firth of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle, and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the high street, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying east and west; and the lanes running down its sides, north and south. In former times the town was surrounded by water, excepting towards the east; so that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of Lislebourg. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses divided into stories, each of which contained a suite of rooms, some being large and commodious for the use of a family; so that the high street of Edinburgh made a most august appearance, especially when terminated by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty, inaccessible, multiform rock. This crowded population, however, was so shockingly inconvenient, that the English, who seldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepest impressions of Scotch nakedness, which became proverbial. The castle has some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were deposited here under the most solemn legal instruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at present of those regalia, is contained in the instrument which was taken at the time of their being deposited; where they are fully described.

Facing the castle, at a long mile's distance to the east; stands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holyrood-house. The inner quadrangle of this palace, which was begun by James V. and finished by Charles II. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and undoubtedly one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at present nothing can be more uncomfortable than its situation, at the bottom of bleak unimproved crags and mountains, with scarce a single tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been the most elegant piece of Gothic architecture in Europe. It was the conventual church of the old abbey.

abbey. Its roof is lofty and round; it ran two rows of stone galleries supported by curious pillars. Its inside was demolished and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's work, stands to the south-east of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones, whom James VI. of Scotland brought over from Denmark, has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balquhanan, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is said to have prevailed upon Jones to admit some barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have insisted that the ornaments of each should be somewhat different from those of the others. It is, notwithstanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens, not inelegantly laid out. 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.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be said of its buildings, which were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days: they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is said to have been of late greatly augmented; and a museum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a physician. It contains several natural, and some literary curiosities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

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 very 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, is by many great 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, sherivalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the lawyers valuable library. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, being at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite 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

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roof, is 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 High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into two or three churches, and a room where the general assembly sits. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple is surmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to such buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deserves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the Exchange, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the vast improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Streets and squares are opened in grounds to the north, where, a few years ago, sheep and cattle grazed. Those squares and houses, and likewise many to the south-east and west of the city, are laid out and built in the most elegant taste, with all the conveniencies that render those of England so delightful and commodious; but as those great schemes are yet incomplete, we shall not yet pretend to describe them farther.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailiffs, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own warden; and here are fourteen, namely, surgeons, goldsmiths, skippers, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, masons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is colonel of the town-guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his majesty's dominions but at Edinburgh: they serve for the city watch, and patrol the streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the execution of sentences upon delinquents: they are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Besides this guard, Edinburgh raises sixteen companies of trained-bands, which serve as militia. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. This is a most judicious impost, as it renders the poorest people insensible of the burden. Its product, however, has been sufficient to defray the expence of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and compleating other public works of great expence and utility.

Edinburgh may be considered, notwithstanding its castle, and an open wall which encloses it on the south side, of a very modern fabric but in the Roman manner, as an open town; so that in fact, it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it against the rebels, who took possession of it in 1745. A certain class of readers would perhaps think it unpardonable, should I omit mentioning that Edinburgh contains a playhouse, which has now the sanction of an act of parliament; and that concerts, assemblies, balls, music-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It contains nothing remarkable, but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the same) fortified, and bravely defended by the French against the English, under Mary of Guise, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are daily encreasing; some of them yield to few in England: but they are too numerous to be particularized here. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbattle, and Hopton-house, so called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, counted one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney and duke of Oldenburgh. Roslin is likewise famous for a victory, or rather three victories in one day, which the Scots, who were no more than 8000 in number, obtained over 30,000 English, commanded by their ablest generals.

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, strait, well paved, and consequently clean. Their houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them towards the center 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 stile of architecture, and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains two churches, one 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 preserved from the fury of the 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, proper for the accommodation of the most illustrious stranger. They have lately laid the foundation of a new bridge across the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize that, and the other public-spirited buildings and works of this city still carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits arising from their vast commerce, both foreign and internal; which they carry on with amazing success. In Glasgow are seven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houses for sectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants have been estimated at 50,000.

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

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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 carse of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 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 sundry foreign parts: it has three churches. Montrose, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the same county of Angus: the first has a great and flourishing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are upon the thriving hand.

It may be necessary again to put the reader in mind, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to Scotland, on account of its improving state. I have rather under, than over-rated the number of inhabitants in the towns I have mentioned. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 souls, which is the common computation, to which I all along conform myself; but the influx of people, and the encrease of matrimony in proportion to that of property, must create great alterations for the better, and few for the worse, because the inhabitants who are disposed to industry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reason why I omit a particular description of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paisley, Sterling, and about fifty other burghs and towns of very considerable trade in Scotland.

The antient Scots valued themselves upon their trusting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country: this was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced; and indeed to this day their forts would make but a sorry figure, if regularly attacked. The castles of Edinburgh, Sterling, and Dunbarton, formerly places of great strength, could not hold out eight and forty hours, if besieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the west Highlands, is sufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, as are Fort George and Fort Augustus, in the north and north-west; but none of them can be considered as defences against a foreign enemy.

I shall not pretend to enter upon a description of the noble edifices that have, within the course of this and the last century, been erected by private persons in Scotland, because they are so numerous, that to particularize them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is sufficient to say, that many of them are equal to the most superb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's surprize at this will cease, when he is informed, that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapness of materials, where it can be gratified at so moderate an expence.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the same in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch shilling answered to about an English sixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not

more than an English groat. It continued diminishing in this manner till after the Union of the two crowns, under her son; when the vast resort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the English court, occasioned such a drain of specie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch shilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an English shilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were succeeded by bodles, which was double the value of a Scotch penny, and are still current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch half-penny was called a *babie*—some say, because it was first stamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, *bas piece*, signifying a low piece of money. The same observation we have made of the Scotch shilling, holds of their pounds and marks; which are not coins, but denominations of sums. In all other respects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the same; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

REVENUES.] See England.

PUNISHMENTS.] These are pretty much the same in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the Maiden: the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Hallifax in England to Scotland, by the regent earl of Morton, and it was hanelled by his own execution.

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] No government in Europe was better fitted for the enjoyment of liberty, than that of Scotland was by its original constitution; and if it was reprehensible in any respect, it was that it left more freedom to the subject than is consistent with civil subordination.

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 clement and merciful God may shew mercy to 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. And so late as the minority of James IV. who was co-

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temporary with and son-in-law to Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the first servant of his people; as appears by the acts still extant. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical. The abuse of these aristocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very considerable interest among the lower ranks; and a prince who had sense and address to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the most overgrown of his subjects: when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. shewed a disrespect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by their clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. These were chosen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgessees. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and those sixteen jointly chose eight barons (or knights of the shire) and eight commissioners for burghs; and to all these were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

Their business was to prepare all questions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; so that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged, that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular system: even its modes varied; and the greatest lawyers were ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles: and though Charles I. wanted to form these lords of the articles into regular machines for his own despotic purposes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy consequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a fresh instance how much better they understood the principles of liberty than the English did, by committing all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princess of Orange.

This spirit of resistance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. It is asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny? The answer is, In order to preserve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore chose to submit to a temporal evil; but they took the first opportunity to get rid of their oppressors.

Scotland, when it was a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers, in the English sense of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquesses, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary barons of parliament; but they formed no distinct house, for they sat in the same room with the commons, who had the same deliberative and decisive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assize in matters of life and death; nor was it necessary for the assizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal customs, even at the time of the Restoration,

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were so prevalent, that the rescue of a great criminal was commonly so much apprehended, that seldom above two days passed between the sentence and the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch history, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the states, only met for the purposes of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four lesser officers of state; the great, were the lord high chancellor, high treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary: the four lesser were, the lords register, advocate, treasurer-depute, and justice-clerk. Since the Union none of these continue, excepting the lords privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk; a third secretary of state has occasionally been nominated by the king for Scottish affairs, but under the same denomination as the other two secretaries. The above officers of state sat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The offices of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral; and the office of marshal is exercised by a knight marshal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the same in England. The same may be said of the lords treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary. The lord-register was head clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative, by disposing of his deputation, which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon a division. The lord-advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extensive; because, by the Scotch laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the justiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before sovereign courts for breaches of the peace; and also in all matters civil, wherein the king, or his donator, has interest. Two solicitors are named by his majesty, by way of assistants to the lord-advocate. The office of justice-clerk, entitles the possessor to preside in the criminal court of justice, while the justice-general, an office I shall describe hereafter, is absent.

The ancient constitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and state; but they are either now extinct or too inconsiderable to be described here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex facialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being, and it was formerly an office of great splendour and importance, inasmuch that the science of heraldry was preserved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the case in England, in all armorial affairs might be carried into execution by the civil law.

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 there 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, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themselves the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice

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Justice still retain. 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. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any enquiry how far such an institution, in so narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the security of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of surprize, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the union. This, however, can be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I shall just add, that the lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; but their decrees are sometimes (fortunately perhaps for the subject) reversible by the British parliament, to which an appeal lies.

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-cleik 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, as I have already hinted, without any necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides those two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has 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 things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

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 advocacion 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 court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are with-

in 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; we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally, though most absurdly, hereditary; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all veiled in the crown; it being there enacted, That all high-sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes, and steward-deputes, it is enacted, That there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriff's courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them, as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old, were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous, and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours, in the day time. These courts, however petty, were, in former days, invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of the commissaries in Scotland, answer those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise pretty much the same powers as those in England. In former times, their office, though of very old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman conquest of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register depositions and matters of fact,

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From the above short view of the Scotch laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter pretend indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, with much better reason, and far greater appearance of truth, say, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majestatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extensive, and before the Union they made laws relating to shipping, to masters and owners of ships, to mariners and merchants, by whom they were freighted; to manufacturers, such as weaving, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fish, salmon, and herrings; to the importing and exporting several commodities: the trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their regulation: they fix the staple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Amsterdam. Their conservator is indeed nominated by the crown, but when their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary: so that, in truth, the whole staple trade is subjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very singular institution, and sufficiently proves the vast attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent consequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and constitution of Scotland, as they exist at present, in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to descend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law reports are of the same nature with the Scotch practices; and their acts of federunt, answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeazances: their ponding of woods, after letters of horning, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries: and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder, by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other usages are the same in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, dismiss this head without one observation, which proves the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. 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 decided. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the same nature as the Saxon Folc-mote, and to signify no more than the hill of meeting.

[HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch history are too fond of system and fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by a different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the Aborigines; the Picts

Picts, undoubtedly, were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, about four-score years before the descent of Julius Cæsar; and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, who 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 on the continent; and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract by south of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all these people, in process of time, were subdued by the Scots.

Having premised thus much, it is unnecessary for me to investigate the constitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is sufficient to add to what I have already said upon that head, that they seem to have been as forward as any of their southern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal some part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward, to the province of the Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch historians, the twenty-first in a lineal descent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been disputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman histories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant resistance obliged Agricola himself, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretentures or walls, which will be described in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Christian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were the descendants of the ancient Britons, who had been forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that their monarchy suffered a short eclipse; but it broke out with more lustre than ever under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his successors gave many severe overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a British historian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman pretences, drove them to the very sea; so that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called their groans, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea, or perishing by the swords of the barbarians; for so all nations were called who were not Roman or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest histories, and those that are least favourable to monarchy, that the succession to the crown of Scotland still continued in the family of Fergus, but generally descended collaterally; till the inconveniencies of that mode of succession were so much felt, that by degrees it fell into disuse, and it was at last settled in the right line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince so much respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an existence. No fact of equal antiquity is better attested than this league, together with the great service performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the vast dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already observed under the article of learning. The Picts still remained in Scotland as a separate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally subdued them, but not in the savage manner mentioned by some historians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themselves with their conquerors, by taking their name and adopting their laws. The successors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almost perpetual wars with the Saxons on the southward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the north; who being masters of the sea, harassed the Scots by powerful invasions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the English, for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish monarchs were not more successful against the Scots; who maintained their freedom and independency, not only against foreigners, but against their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words which signify a large head, but most probably his great capacity, was the eighty-sixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the supposed founder of the monarchy; the forty-seventh from its restorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-second from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakespear, who keeps close to the facts delivered by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own history previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wise and magnanimous prince, and in no respect inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, surnamed the Outlaw, son to Edward Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Etheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved

devolved upon the posterity of that princess, who was one of the wisest and worthiest women of the age; and her daughter, Maud, was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his son, treacherously, as it is said, at the siege of Alnwick, by the besieged.

Malcolm III. was succeeded by his brother, Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whose legitimacy was disputed. They were succeeded by Edgar, the son of Malcolm III. who was a wife and valiant prince; and upon his death, David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithstanding the endeavours of some historians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, yet David was, perhaps, the greatest prince of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. The noble actions he performed in the service of his niece, the empress Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the English crown, give us the highest idea of his virtues, as they could be the result only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightiest prince of his age, owed his crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power on an equality with that of England, when confined to this island. His actions and adventures, and the resources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the first rank. If he appeared to be too lavish to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to consider, these were the only means by which he could then civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are said to have been compiled under his inspection by learned men, whom he assembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melros. He was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV. and he, by William, sur-named, from his valour, the Lyon. William's son, Alexander II. was succeeded, in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince, who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David, and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as some call him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bare to him a daughter, named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole posterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, because it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandson to David earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter, Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not then so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter; but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete absurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned

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After this, Edward used many bloody endeavours, by killing and
murdering above 100,000 of the Scots, to annex their crown to his own;
but though they were often defeated, the independent Scots never were
conquered. They were indeed but few, compared to those in the in-
terest of Edward and Baliol, which was the same; and for some time
were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himself of their weakness
and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown
from Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in Eng-
land; and sent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the least sus-
pected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots
to sign instruments of their subjection to him; and most barbarously car-
ried off, or destroyed, all the monuments of their history, and the evi-
dences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical stone,
which is still to be seen in Westminster-Abbey.

Those inhuman proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible
of their slavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and
Edward, finding their spirits were not to be subdued, endeavoured to
interest them, and affected to treat them on the footing of an equality with
his own subjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have
since taken place, between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots
rejected this project with disdain; and united under the brave William
Wallace, the truest hero of his age, to expel the English. Wal-
lace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing
his scheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and
his popularity daily increasing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was
Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he
had an eye upon the crown, especially after he had defeated the earl of
Murray, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had
reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by
the states of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy operated so far,
that they formed violent cabals against the brave Wallace. Edward,
upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most nume-
rous and best disciplined army England had ever seen, for it consisted of
60,000 foot, 3000 horsemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed;
and was attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. These,
besides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible
body; so that Edward was obliged to divide it, reserving the command
of 40,000 of his best troops to himself. With these he attacked the Scotch
army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their disputes ran so high, that
the brave regent was deserted by Cumming, the most powerful nobleman
in Scotland, and at the head of the best division of his countrymen.
Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was
defeated with vast loss, but made an orderly retreat; during which he
found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of
his error in joining with Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and
performed many gallant actions against the English; but was betrayed
to the hands of Edward, who most ungenerously put him to death at
London as a traitor; but he died himself, as he was preparing to renew
the invasion of Scotland with still more desolating spirit of ambition.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had in-
herited his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court,

with the glorious resolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He escaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he assumed the crown; but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle at Methven. After this defeat, he fled, with one or two friends, to the Western Isles, and parts of Scotland, where his fatigue and sufferings were as inexpressible, as the courage with which he and his few friends (the lord Douglas especially) bore them was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were sent prisoners to England, where the best of his friends, and two of his brothers, were unmercifully butchered, yet, such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Sterling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II. who raised an army more numerous and better appointed still than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 300,000, but this must be understood as including the foreigners attending the camp, which in those days were very numerous; but it is admitted on all hands, that it did not consist of so few as 100,000 fighting men, while that of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty host towards Sterling, then besieged by Bruce; who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannock-burn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Those under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himself, was reckoned to be the best knight in Scotland; his nephew, Randolph, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-steward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was furious beyond dispute, and required all the courage and firmness of Bruce and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually, that they gained one of the most complete victories that is recorded in history. The great loss of the English fell upon the bravest part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in person against Bruce himself. The Scotch writers make the loss of the English to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors lost 4000. The flower of the English nobility were either killed or taken prisoners. Their camp, which was immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scotch; and Edward himself, with a few followers, favoured by the goodness of their horses, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing-boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314; and Edward was so certain of conquest, that he carried with him, as part of his campaign, chains and fetters for the inhabitants of Scotland*.

* How well the bards of those days were acquainted with the Muses, may be seen from the following lines, made on this memorable victory.

Maidens of England fore may ye mourn,
For your commons zou have lost at Bannockburn.

What ho! wean'd the king of England,
So soon to have won all Scotland.

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The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of the most glorious successes; and so well did his nobility understand the principles of civil liberty, and so unfettered they were by religious considerations, that in a letter they sent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol, for debasing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the same by Robert if he should make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, sent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greatest part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died, he was acknowledged to be indisputably the greatest hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be said to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was succeeded by his son, David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law, and enemy, Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predecessors upon the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol, the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid; and he had Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham; and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he was paid 100,000 marks, a sum which no prince in Europe but himself could have commanded at that time, for his ransom; and died in peace, without issue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by the head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of that name was Robert II. a wife and brave prince. He was succeeded by his son, Robert III. whose age and infirmities disqualified him from reigning; so that he was forced to trust the government to his worthless relations. Robert, upon this, attempted to send his second son to France, but he was most ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and after suffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ransom. During the imprisonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greatest height in France, where they supported that tottering monarchy, and obtained the first title of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government; but was barbarously murdered in his bed by some of his relations, in 1487. A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirtieth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English. The turbulent reign of James III. was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, in which he was basely murdered in 1488, aged thirty-six. His son, James IV. was the most accomplished and magnificent prince of the age: he encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they rivalled the English in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII's daughter, was the most splendid of any in Europe. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family temper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered

tered, and was killed by the English in the battle of F'odden, in the fortieth year of his age. The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He proved a haughty, bloody-minded king; and, had he lived, probably would have ruined the liberties of his subjects, by seizing upon all the church revenues; but he died in the thirty-first year of his age, of grief for an affront which his arms had sustained in an ill-judged expedition against the English.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, and the history of her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient here to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation began in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnley, whom her rebellious subjects put to death; and not only laid the fact upon her, but in a manner obliged her to marry the chief agent in the murder. The consequence was a rebellion, by which she was driven into England, where she was basely detained a prisoner for eighteen years, and afterwards barbarously murdered by queen Elizabeth in 1586-7.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded in right of his blood under Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing great abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people of Scotland; for the seat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to seek for bread in other countries. James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. It is well known, that the despotic principles of that prince received the first check from the Scots; and that, had it not been for them, he would easily have subdued his English rebels, who implored the assistance of the Scots; but afterwards, against all the ties of honour and humanity, brought him to the block in 1648.

The Scots saw their error when it was too late; and made several bloody, but unfortunate attempts, to save the father, and to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester; after which, to the time of his restoration, the English gave law to Scotland. I have in another place touched upon the most material parts of that prince's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of king William, who was so far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament she was brought to the brink of ruin.

The state of parties in England, at the accession of queen Anne, was such, that the Whigs, once more, had recourse to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now stands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would listen to the proposal; but at last, partly from conviction, and partly thro' the force of money distributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; since which event, the history of Scotland becomes the same with that of England.

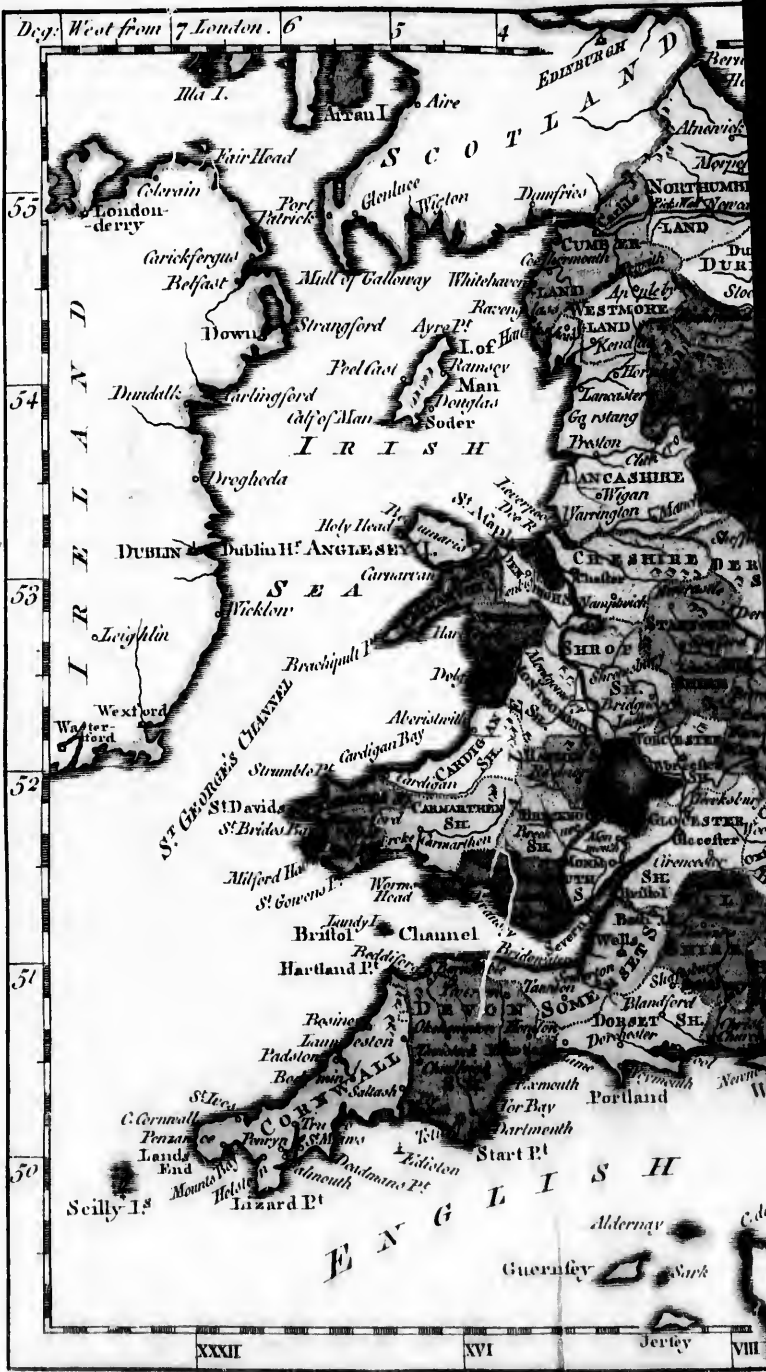
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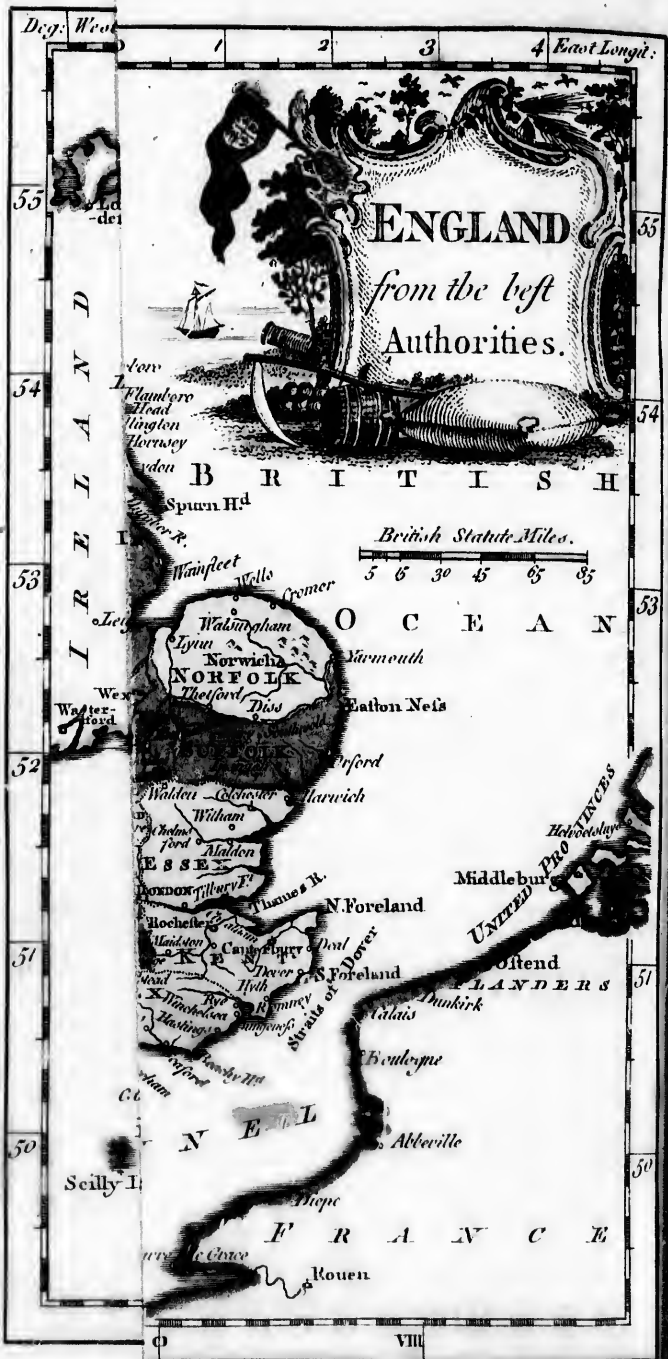
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ENGLAND
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British Statute Miles.
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CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES. } THE longest day in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the shortest, 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. George's Channel; and on the south, by the English Channel, which parts it from France.

This situation, by the sea washing it on three sides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, so that the inhabitants on 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 degrees 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, we are to ascribe that perpetual verdure for which England is admired and envied all over the world, occasioned by the refreshing showers and the warm vapours of the sea.

NAME AND DIVISIONS. } Antiquaries are divided with regard to ANCIENT AND MODERN. } the etymology of the word *England*; some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived, as I have already mentioned, from 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.

When the Romans provinciated England (for they never did Scotland) they divided it 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 their pretence, or to the wall of Severus, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland.

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

When the Saxon invasion took place in the year 445, and when they were established in the year 582, 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 republic, consisting of seven kingdoms; but in time of war, a chief was chosen out of the seven kings; for which reason I call it a political republic, its constitution greatly resembling that of ancient Greece.

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

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent, founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent —	Canterbury.
2. South-Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suffex —	Chichester
	Surry —	Southwark.
3. East-Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk —	Norwich
	Suffolk —	Bury St. Edmund.
	Cambridge —	Cambridge
	With the Isle of Ely	Ely.
4. West-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 1512, and ended in 1060.	Cornwall —	Launceston
	Devon —	Exeter
	Dorset —	Dorchester
	Somerfet —	Bath
	Wilts —	Salisbury
	Hants —	Winchester
	Berks —	Abingden.
Lancafter —	Lancafter.	
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida, in 574, and ended in 792	York —	York
	Durham —	Durham
	Cumberland —	Carlisle
	Westmoreland —	Appleby
6. East-Saxons, founded by Erche-win in 527, and ended in 746.	Northumberland, and Scotland to the Fryth of Edinburgh	Newcastle.
	Effex —	London.
Middlesex, and part of Hertford		
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	Gloucester —	Gloucester
	Hereford —	Hereford
	Worcester —	Worcester
	Warwick —	Warwick
	Leicester —	Leicester
	Rutland —	Oakham
	Northampton —	Northampton
	Lincoln —	Lincoln
	Huntingdon —	Huntingdon
	Bedford —	Bedford
Buckingham —	Alesbury	

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	Stafford	Stafford
	Derby	Derby
	Salop	Shrewsbury
	Nottingham	Nottingham
	Chester	Chester
	And the other part of Hertford	Hertford.

I have been the more sollicitous to preserve those 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 conquest, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits are ;

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Essex —	Chelmsford, Colchester, and Harwich.
	Hertford —	Hertford, St. Alban's, Royston, Ware, Hitchin, and Baldock.
	Kent —	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, and Deptford.
	Surry	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, and Richmond.
	Suffex	Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East-grimlead, and Hailings.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks —	Aylesbury, Buckingham, Much-Wickham, and Marlow
	Bedford —	Bedford, Amptill, Woburn, Donstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, and Kimbolton.
	Cambridge.	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, and Royston.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Suffolk —	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, and part of Newmarket.
	Norfolk —	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
	Oxon —	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, and Woodstock.
3. Oxford Circuit.	Berks —	Abingdon, Windfor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, and Maidenhead.
	Gloucester	Gloucester, Tewksbury, Cirencester, and part of Bristol.
	Worcester	Worcester, Evesham, and Droitwich.
	Monmouth	Monmouth and Chepstow.
	Hereford —	Hereford and Lemster.
	Salop —	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth and Wenlock.
	Stafford —	Stafford, Litchfield, and Newcastle under Line.
4. Midland Circuit.	Warwick —	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, and Stratford upon Avon.
	Leicester —	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, and Ashby de la Zouch.
	Derby —	Derby and Chesterfield.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, and Newark.
	Lincoln —	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, and Grantham.
	Rutland —	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampton	Northampton, Petersborough, and Daventry.

Circuits.

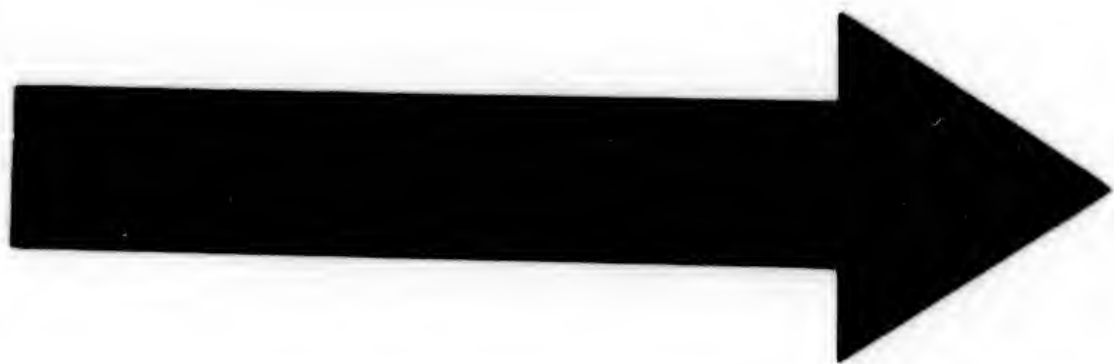
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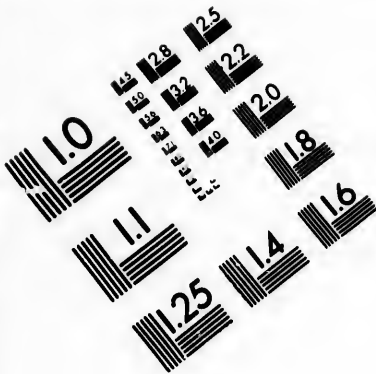
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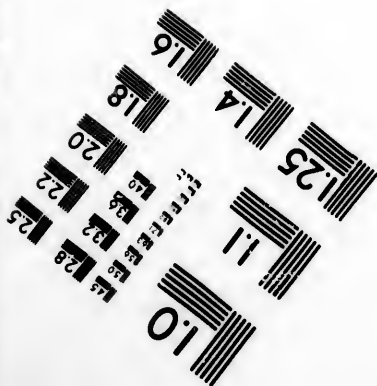
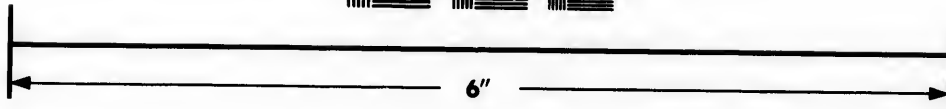
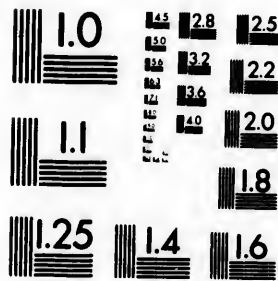
Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Western Circuit.	Hants —	Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, and Newport in the Isle of Wight.
	Wilts —	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, and Chippenham.
	Dorset —	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftbury, Pool, Blandford, and Bridport.
	Somerfet —	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgwater, and Ilchester.
	Devon —	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple, Biddeford, Tiverton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, and Oakhampton.
	Cornwall —	Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, and Tregony.
Northern Circuit.	York —	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, and Burlington or Bridlington.
	Durham —	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, and Awkland.
	Northumberland	Newcastle, Berwick, Tintmouth, Shields, and Hexham.
	Lancaster —	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpoole, and Wigan.
	Westmoreland	Appleby, Kendal, and Lonsdale.
	Cumberland	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, and Whitehaven.

Middle-





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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**Photographic
Sciences
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WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

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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.

Counties.		Chief Towns.
Counties exclusive of the Circuits.	Middlesex —	LONDON, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Barnet, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Cheshire —	

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

North-East Circuit.	Flint —	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh —	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthyn.
	Montgomery	Montgomery and Llanvlyn.
North-West Circuit.	Anglesey —	Beaumaris, Llanrickmead, and Helyhead.
	Carnarvon —	Baagor, Conway, and Pwllilly.
	Merioneth —	Delgelheu, Bala, and Harley.
South-East Circuit.	Radnor —	Radnor and Prestean.
	Brecon —	Brecknock.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff and Cardiff.
South-West Circuit.	Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Denbigh, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan	Cardigan, and Aberistwith.
	Caermarthen	Caermarthen, and Kidwelly.

I N E N G L A N D.

40 Counties, which send up to parliament	80 knights.
25 Cities (Ely none, London four) —	50 Citizens.
167 Boroughs, two each —	334 Burgeses.
5 Boroughs, (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham Ferrars, and Monmouth) } one each — — —	5 Burgeses.

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2 Universities,	—	—	—	4 representatives.
8 Cinque ports (Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford) two each,	—	—	—	16 barons.

W A L E S.

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

S C O T L A N D.

Shires	—	—	—	30 knights.
Boroughs	—	—	—	15 burgesses.

Total 558

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, } The soil of England and Wales differ in
 AND WATER. } 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 county has made in the cultivation of land and garden, 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. To enter upon particular specimens and proofs of those improvements, would require a large volume in itself. All that can be said therefore is in general, that if no unkindly seasons happen, England produces corn not only sufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring immense sums of ready money for her exports. The benefit, however, from those exports have sometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently spared, and have laid the poor under distress; for which reason exportations have been sometimes checked by government. No nation in the world exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to such perfection, that the rarest of foreign fruits have been cultivated there, and that 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 roots, fruits, and kitchen-stuff from grounds within twelve 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 at the same time. Some have observed a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the vast fleets that England put to sea; but as no public complaints of that kind have been heard, it may be supposed that great stores are still in reserve; unless it may be thought that our ship yards are partly supplied from America or the Baltic.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already said concerning the climate. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly winds, but they are ventilated by winds

winds and storms, so that in this respect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, more disagreeable than unsalubrious. 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 obliged to fly to foreign countries, for a renovation of their health. Many, especially foreigners, have attributed that remarkable self-dissatisfaction of the English, which too often proceeds to acts of suicide, to their air and climate; but however these may operate, the evil probably lies in the people's manner of living, which is more gross and luxurious, than that of any other nation.

After what we have observed in the English air, the reader may form some idea of its seasons, which are so uncertain, that they admit of no description. Spring, summer, autumn, and winter, succeed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place, is very undetermined. The spring begins sometimes in February, and sometimes in April. In May the face of the country is as often covered with hoary frost as with blossoms. The beginning of June is often as cold as the middle of December, yet sometimes 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, bid very fair to be 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. After saying thus much, it would be in vain to attempt any farther description of the English seasons. Their inconstancy, however, are not attended with the effects that may be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, very seldom three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is generally observed, that the inhabitants seldom suffer by a hot summer. Even the greatest irregularity, and the most unfavourable appearances of the seasons, is not as in other countries, attended with famine, and very seldom with scarcity. Perhaps this, in a great measure, may be owing to the vast improvements of agriculture, for when scarcity itself has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the excessive exportations of grain, on account of the drawback, and the profit of the returns.

In speaking of water, I do not intend to include rivers, brooks, or lakes, for I mean waters for the common conveniences of life, and these that have mineral qualities. The champain parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains, though a discerning palate may perceive, that they commonly contain some mineral impregnation. In many high lying parts of the country, the inhabitants are greatly distressed for water, and supply themselves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The constitutions of the English, and the various 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, in Derbyshire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epsom, Dulwich, Aston, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is used as commonly as any other for medicinal purposes, and so delicate are the tones of the English fibres, that the patients can perceive both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the sea water of one coast, and that of another.

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FACE OF THE COUNTRY } AND MOUNTAINS. The industry of the English is, and has been such as to supply the absence of those

scenery which nature has so lavishly bestowed upon some foreign climates, and in many respects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both of them forming prospects equal to the most luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of enclosures and plantations, the noble seats, comfortable houses, cheerful villages, and well-stocked farms, often rising in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are inexpressible. The most barren spots are not without their verdure, but nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than by observing that some of the most beautiful counties in the kingdom, are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be safely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, yet it contains few mountains. The most noted are the Peak in Derbyshire, the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern hills, Malvern in Worcestershire, Cotswold in Gloucestershire, the Wrekin in Shropshire; with those of Plinlimmon and Snowden in Wales. In general, however, Wales, and the northern parts, may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence; the Thames, the noblest perhaps in the world, rises on the confluence of Gloucestershire, and after receiving the many tributary streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Wallingford, 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; from whence 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, from whence it is navigable in large ships to London bridge; but for a more particular description the reader must consult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England, among foreigners, that so capital a river should have so few bridges; those of London and Kingston (which is of wood) being the only two it had from the Nore, to the last mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in some measure owing to the dearth of materials for building stone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondness which the English, in former days, had for water carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The vast increase of riches, commerce, and inland trade, are now multiplying bridges, and some think the world cannot parallel for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, that lately erected at Westminster, and, when finished, that of Black Friars, Putney, Kew, and Hampton-court, have now bridges likewise over the Thames, and others are projecting by public spirited projectors of the grounds on both sides.

The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the mouth of the Thames, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham, where the men of war are laid up. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-

limmon-hill in Wales; becomes navigable at Welch-Pool; runs east to Shrewsbury; then turning south, visits Bridgenorth, Worcester, and Tewkesbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having passed Gloucester, it takes a south-west direction; is near its mouth increased by the Wye and Ustre, and discharges itself into the Bristol-channel, near King-road; and there the great ships, which cannot get up to Bristol, lie. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running south-east by Newcastle-under-line, divides that county in two parts; then turning north-east on the confines of Derbyshire, visits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnshire, 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 (which is 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 Tynmouth 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 but 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 very frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land by industry. The chief lakes now remaining are Soham mere, Wittlesea mere, and Ramsey mere, in the isle of Ely in Cambridgeshire. All these meres in a rainy season are overflowed, and form a lake of forty or fifty 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 ground 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 them into a sort of a code, called 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 of no fewer than sixty-nine, are those of Windsor, New Forest, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest. Those forests produced formerly

great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash and beech, besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not forests, of chefnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber, for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chefnut beams and roofs remain still fresh, and undecayed, though some of them above six hundred years old.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phenicians, 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 sixty years ago, Sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is said now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making brass. Those 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 alone are said to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the English lead is impregnated with silver. The English coin of silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by that prince's top of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produces marble, but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is exceedingly hard to work. Quarries of freestone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheshire yields allum and salt pits. The English millers earth is of such infinite consequence to the cloathing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under the severest penalties. Pit and sea-salt is found in many counties of England, but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is supplied only from the pits of Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the bishopric of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Shields, and the exportation of coals to other countries, is a valuable article.

[VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] This is so copious an article, and such improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, ever since the best printed accounts we have had of both, that much must be left to the reader's own observation and experience. I have already touched in treating on the soil, upon the corn trade of England, but nothing can be said with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other horse grain growing in the 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 both agriculture and gardening can admit to be carried to a much higher state of perfection, than they are in at present. Honey and saffron are natives of England. It is almost needless to mention to the most uninformed reader, in what plenty the most excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nestarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulane productions, grow here, and what vast quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cyder when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular

ticular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention those improvements, did we not observe that the natives of England have made the different fruits of all 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. The English grapes are pleasing to the taste, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine, and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raised here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and sallads, in perfection, such as artichokes, asparagus, cauliflowers, cabbage, coleworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney beans, spinach, beets, lettuce, cellary, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, mushrooms, leeks, onions and shallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire, as hemp and flax is 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. It belongs to a botanist to recount the various kinds of useful and salutary herbs, shrubs and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The soil of Kent, Essex, Surry, and Hampshire, is most favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which is now become a very considerable article of trade.

With regard to animal productions, I 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, upon the whole, are the best of any in the world, whether we regard their spirit, strength, swiftness, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken by all ranks, from the monarch down to the peasant, for improving 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. It is no uncommon thing for an English horse, mare, or gelding, though not of the race kind, to run above twenty miles within the hour, and they have been known to do it in a carriage. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry, renders them the best in the world 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 particularly beautiful, and a set often costs 1000*l.* a stronger and a heavier breed is employed for other draughts. I must not omit that the exportation of horses to France, and other countries, where they sell for large prices, has of late become a considerable article of commerce. It is hard to say how far this traffic with our natural enemies is allowable, but there is certainly less danger attending it, as the animals are commonly gelded. The breed of asses and mules begin 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. I have been credibly informed, that in some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in those of their horses and dogs, and that in Lincolnshire, particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of those animals to sell for 30*l.* It must, however, be owned, that

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Some 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 six a fleece, makes 1,200,000. It is supposed, however, that by the sale of the value of the fleeces, a fourth part of this sum ought to be deducted at present. The other kind of sheep, which are fed upon the downs, such as those of Banstead, Bagshot-heath, and Devonshire, where they have, what the farmers call, a short bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and sweetness, to venison.

The English mastiffs and bulldogs, are the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world, but either from the change of soil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two English bulldogs, upon one of his most terrible lions in the Tower, and they laid him on his back. The mastiff, however, is the preferable creature, having all the courage of the bulldog, without its ferocity, and he is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility. All the different species of dogs, which abound in other countries (and are needless to be enumerated here) for the field, as well as domestic uses, are to be found in England.

What I have observed of the degeneracy of the English dogs in foreign countries, is applicable to the English game cocks, which afford much barbarous diversion to our sportsmen. The courage and ferocity of those birds, is astonishing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal, are likewise extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are pretty much the same in England, as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, such as cocks, pullets, and capons, geese, swans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild sort are mallards, wild geese, wild ducks, teal, widgeon, plover, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, in the season, grouse, quail, landrail, snipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thrushes, nightingales, gold-finches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of small birds, particularly canary-birds, which breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its flesh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

No country is better supplied than England is with river and sea-fish. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, smelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fish, besides a delicate lake fish, called char, which is found in some fresh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and as some say no where else. The sea-fish are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, skate, soles. The John Dory, found towards the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fish are found on the same coasts. As to shell-fish, they are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, and shrimps, and scallops, one of the most delicious of shell fishes, cockles, wilks, or periwinkles, and muscles, with many other small shell-fish, abound in the English seas. The whales chiefly visit the northern coast; but great numbers of porpusses and seals appear in the channel. After all, the English have been, perhaps, with great justice, accused of not paying proper attention to their fisheries, which are confined to a few inconsiderable towns in the west of England. The best fish that comes to the

tables of the great in London, are sold by the Dutch to English boats, and that industrious people even take them upon the English coast. Great attention, it is true, has been paid within these thirty years past, by the English, to this important concern. Many public spirited noblemen, and gentlemen, formed themselves into a company for carrying on a British fishery. Large sums were subscribed, and paid with unbounded generosity. Busses and other vessels were built, and the most pleasing prospects of success presented themselves to the public. They were, however, unaccountably disappointed, though it is hard to say from what cause, unless it was, that the price of English labour was too dear for bringing the commodity to the market, upon the same terms as the Dutch, whose herrings were actually surpassed in the curing by the British.

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, and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural history, than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } The exemption of the Eng-
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } lish constitution, from the
despotic powers exercised in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reason why it is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England, and yet it is certain that this might occasionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty. With regard to political calculations, they must be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, who settle in the nation, the evacuations of inhabitants to America, their return from thence, the vast numbers of hands employed in shipping, and the late demand of men for the East Indies, and for settling our new conquests, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous, than the estimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The late war, which broke out with France and Spain, annually employed above 200,000 Englishmen, exclusive of Scotch and Irish, by sea and land, and in its progress carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed sensibly felt, but not in comparison to what it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the sea and land service. Great-Britain indeed was obliged to furnish large contingents of men to the confederate army, yet not above half of them were her own subjects. I mention those conjectures, partly on the strength of the public accounts, and partly from undisputed facts, which some now alive may remember, as the nobility, and even ministers of state often had their servants prest from behind their coaches, to supply the sea and land service, an expedient to which we were not reduced in the late war.

At the same time I am not of opinion, that England is at present naturally more populous, than it was in the reign of Charles I. though she is accidentally so. The English, of former ages, were strangers to the excessive use of spirituous liquors, and other modes of living, that are destructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vast quantities of cultivated lands in England, since those times, undoubtedly must have been favourable to mankind, though upon an average, perhaps, a married couple has not such a numerous progeny now, as formerly. I will take the liberty to make another observation, which falls within the cognizance of almost every man, and that is the incredible increase of
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foreign names upon our parish books, and public lists, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premised, it would be presumptuous to pretend to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales, but in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than seven millions, and that they are daily encreasing. The fallibility of political calculations, appears in a very striking light in those of the population of London, because it is impossible to fix it upon any of the known rules or proportions of births and burials. Calculators have been not only mistaken in applying those rules to London, and, as they are called, the bills of mortality, but even in topical matters, because about 100,000 inhabitants, at the very gates of London, do not lie within the bills of mortality.

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, a hundred and fifty years ago. The women of England are said to be the most beautiful of any in Europe. In the dress of both sexes, before the present reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers, partook of the German, in compliment to his late majesty. The English, at present; bid fair, to be the dictators of dress to the French themselves, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire: People of quality and fortune, of both sexes, appear on high occasions, in cloth of gold and silver; the richest brocades, satins, silks and velvets, both flowered and plain, and it is in the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all those are discouraged. Some of those rich stuffs are said to be brought to as great perfection in England, as they are in France, or any other nation. The full dress of a clergyman consists of his gown, cassock, scarf, beaver-hat and rose, all of black; his undress is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The physicians, the formality of whose dress, in large ties, rukes and swords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, begin now to dress like other gentlemen, and men of business, that is, to wear plain suit of superfine cloth, excellent linen and wigs, that suit their complexions, and the form of their faces. Few Englishmen, tradesmen, merchants and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without some passion for the sports of the field, on which occasions they dress with remarkable propriety, in a light frock, narrow brimmed hat, a short bob wig, jockey boots, and buckskin, or shag breeches. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel: but since the accession of his present majesty, the dresses at court, on solemn occasions, are superb beyond description. Few even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10l. in cloathing, comprehending hat, wig, stockings, shoes and linen, and even many beggars in the street, appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of a man in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his industry and morals. Of all people in the world the English keep themselves the most cleanly. Their nerves are so delicate, that people of both sexes are sometimes forcibly, nay mortally affected by imagination, inasmuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the small-pox took place, it was

thought improper to mention that loathsome disease, by its true name, in any polite company.

This over sensibility is one of the sources of those oddities, which so strongly characterize the English nation. An apprehension of dying a beggar, often kills them in the midst of plenty and prosperity. They magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet when real dangers approach, 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, 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 extremity, striving to banish it by dissipation, riot, intemperance, and diversion. 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 must be acknowledged to 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 their forefathers did. 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. 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 snug, than a splendid, way of living. They study and understand better than any people in the world, conveniency 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 connections 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 conveniency, may be called the ruling passion of the English people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours and fatigues, which are incredible. A good œconomist, with a brisk run of trade, is generally, when turned of fifty, 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, often his native county, buys a good gelding, wears a laced hat, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; his stile of living, however, being always judiciously suited to his circumstances.

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No people in the world know better than tradesmen, and men of business, in England, how to pay their court to their customers, and employers, nay even by fawning upon, and sometimes bribing, their servants. Those arts they consider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too commonly leads them into a contrary extreme, even that of thinking themselves under no obligation from the rules of decency, duty and subordination. This carries them to that petulance, which is so offensive to strangers, and though encouraged through the want of education, has its root in the noblest of principles, badly understood, I mean that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property. The same laws, at the same time, take no cognizance of the abuse of liberty, if not carried into an actual breach of the peace, so that every Englishman has a copious range for unpunished ill-manners, and unprovoked insolence. This licentiousness, or abuse of freedom, is carried in England to an astonishing height, and seems to be epidemical. It is the only public evil, that instead of losing, gathers strength, and what is to be lamented, its violence is always in proportion to the mildness of the government, and its cautious execution of the laws, so that it may be properly considered as a mode of that riotous dissipation I have already mentioned.

The over sensibility of the English, is discovered in nothing more than in the vast subscriptions for public charities, raised by all degrees of both sexes. An Englishman feels all the pains which a fellow creature suffers, and poor and miserable objects are relieved in England with a liberality that some time or other may prove injurious to industry, because it takes from the lower ranks the usual motives of labour, that they may save somewhat for themselves and families, against the days of pain or sickness. The very people who contribute to those collections, are assisted in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for a maintenance, inasmuch that there can be no beggar in England but through choice or indolence; and upwards of three millions sterling is said to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purposes. The institutions however of extraparochial infirmaries, hospitals, and the like, are in some cases reprehensible. The vast sums bestowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of physicians, who thereby acquire credit, which is the same as profit, very often beget heats and cabals, which are very different from the purposes of disinterested charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepossessions of friends, and too often even to party considerations.

Notwithstanding those noble provisions which would banish poverty from any other country, the streets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of distress, who beg in defiance of the laws which render the practice severely punishable. This is owing to the manner in which the common people live, who consider the food to be uneatable which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The English, though irascible, are the most placable people in the world, and will often sacrifice part of their interest rather than proceed to extremity. They are easily prevailed upon to forgive by submission, and they carry this lenity too far, by accepting of professions of sorrow published in advertisements by those who offend them, and who seldom are sincere; nay, often laugh at the easiness of their prosecutors, for dismissing them so gently. The unsuspecting nature of the English, and their honest open manners, especially of those in the mercantile way,

render them dupes in several respects. They attend to projectors, 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 even by replacing them, often in a more creditable condition than ever. The lowest bred of the English, are capable of those and the like generous actions, but they often make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value. There is among the English of all ranks, a most unpardonable preference given to wealth, over all other considerations. Riches, both in public and private, compensate for the absence of every good quality. This offensive failing arises partly from the democratical part of their constitution, which makes the possession of property a qualification for the legislature, and almost every other species of magistracy, government, honours, and distinctions.

The same attention to property operates in many other shapes among the lower classes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and disregarding of all about them, nor are the higher orders exempt from the same failing. The same principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the first rank have been often seen laying bets with butchers and cobblers at horse-races, and boxing-matches. Gentlemen and merchants of vast property are not to be distinguished either by their dress or conversation from the meanest of their servants, and a wager offered to be staked in ready money against a penniless antagonist, is generally a decisive argument in public company.

An Englishman of thorough education and reading, is the most accomplished gentleman in the world, and understands arts and sciences the best. He is however shy and retentive in his communications even to disgust, and a man may be in company with him for months without discovering that he knows any thing beyond the verge of a farm yard, or above the capacity of a horse jockey. This unamiable coldness is so far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural constitution. Living learning and genius meets with very little regard, even from the first rate of Englishmen: and it is not unusual for them to throw aside the best productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the state distinction of Whig and Tory subsisted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities, but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the very few who met with preferment in the state, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of business, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally possess. We scarce have an instance even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predecessors, who owed so much to the press, of a man of genius, being, as such, 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, when 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. This reproach upon governmental munificence is now wearing off under the patronage of his majesty and his ministers.

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. In their convivial meetings they are generally noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are the most applauded. Courage is a quality that seems to be congenial to the English nature. Boys, before they can speak, discover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fists, a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the English, and is seconded by a strength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the English soldiers an infinite superiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet screwed upon the musquet. The English courage has likewise the property, under able commanders, of being equally passive as active. Their soldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a most dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The English are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts, they excell all nations in the world. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favourite study is incredible, and, as it were, absorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous instances of mental absences that are to be found in the nation.

All I have 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 indications of great alterations in their manners. The vast fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory by peace, and above all the amazing encrease of territorial as well as commercial property in the East Indies, have 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. Time alone can shew the event: Hitherto the consequences seem to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a spirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the most fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal, or surpass the nobility and the courtiers. 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, 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 antient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon elegant evening 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. I have already mentioned stag and fox hunting and horse races, of which the English of all denominations are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for those diversions: The intense application which the English give to business, their sedentary lives, and luxurious diet require exercise, and some think that their excellent breed of horses is encreased and improved by those amusements. The English are remarkably cool, both in losing and winning at play, but the former is often attended with acts of suicide. An Englishman will rather murder himself than bring a sharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign punishment, even though warranted by law. Next to horse-racing, and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion,

version, among the great, as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both assemble round the pit, at one of those matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the generous animal, every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of high sums. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up in the southern and western parts of England, and is sometimes practised by people of the highest rank. It is performed by a person who, with a clumsy wooden bat, defends a wicket raised of two slender sticks, with one across, which is attacked by another person, who endeavours to beat it down, with a hard leather ball, from a certain stand. The farther the distance is to which the ball is driven, the oftener the defender is able to run between the wicket and the stand. This is called gaining so many notches, and he who gets the most is the victor. Many other pastimes are common in England, some of them of a very robust nature, such as cudgelling, wrestling, bowls, skittles, quoits, and prison-bars; not to mention duck-hunting, foot, and ass-races, dancing, puppet-shews, May garlands, and above all, ringing of bells, a species of music, which the English boast they have brought into an art. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England, and equally inhuman, as the shews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, and all places of public diversions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diversions, which are common to other countries, such as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, swimming, angling, fowling, coursing, and the like, are familiar to the English. Two kinds, and those highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and these are rowing and sailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged, by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The English are excessively fond of skating, in which, however, they are not very expert, but they are adventurous in it often to the danger and loss of their lives. 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 the country people destroy the game in their nets, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among so free a people as the English, has been considered in various lights.

RELIGION.] The established religion in England, is reformed from the errors of popery, and approaches nearer to the primitive christianity, being equally removed from superstition, and indelicacy in its worship, and as void of bigotry, as of licentiousness, in its practice. The constitution of the church is episcopal, and its government by bishops, whose benefices were converted, by the Norman conqueror, into temporal baronies, in right of which, every bishop has a seat, and vote in the house of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy, are now freehold, but in many places, their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The oeconomy of the church of England, has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them, especially in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this, perhaps, is unavoidable, and very probably never can be entirely remedied, though the crown, as well as private persons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, such as deans, prebends, and the like, have generally large incomes; some of them exceeding in value those of bishoprics, for which reason the revenues of a rich deanery,

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other living, is often annexed to a poor bishopric. At present, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a most flourishing situation, because the value of their tithes encreases, with the improvements of lands, which of late has been amazing in England. The sovereigns of England, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. have been called in public writs, the supreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no spiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any ecclesiastical differences, or in other words, to substitute the king in place of the pope, before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in ecclesiastical disputes, and are contented to give a sanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this description, of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops, besides the bishop of Sodor and Man, who not being possessed of an English barony, does not sit in the house of peers. The two archbishops, are those of Canterbury and York, who are both dignified with the address of 'your grace.' The former is the first peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the English church. He takes precedence next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of state. He is enabled to hold ecclesiastical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cognizable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege consequently of granting, in certain cases, licenses and dispensations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Besides his own diocese, he has under him the bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Llancaff, St. Asaph and Bangor.

The archbishop of Canterbury has, by the constitution and laws of England, such extensive powers, that ever since the death of archbishop Laud (whose character will be hereafter given) the government of England has thought proper to raise to that dignity, none but men of very moderate principles, and of very inoffensive abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and consequently of the state.

The archbishop of York takes place of all dukes, not of the blood royal, and of all officers of state, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, besides his own diocese, the bishoprics of Durham, Carlisle, Chester, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and jurisdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The bishops are addressed Your lordships, styled Right reverend fathers in God, and precede as barons on all public occasions. They have all the privileges of peers, and the bishoprics of London, Winchester, Durham, Salisbury, Ely and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to support their prelates in the rank of noblemen. English bishops are to examine and ordain priests and deacons, to consecrate churches and burying-places, and to administer the rite of consecration. Their jurisdiction relates to the probate of wills; to grant administration of goods, to such as die intestate; to take care of perishable goods, when no one will administer; to collate to benefices; to grant institutions to livings;

livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to visit their own dioceses once in three years.

Deans and prebends of cathedrals, have been already mentioned, but it would perhaps be difficult to assign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worship, and to make provision for clergymen of eminence and merit. England contains about sixty archdeacons, whose office is to visit the churches twice or thrice every year, but their offices are less lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly stiled arch presbyters, who signify the bishop's pleasure to his clergy, the lower class of which consists of priests and deacons.

The ecclesiastical government of England is, properly speaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national representative or synod, and answers pretty near to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the same time with every parliament, and their business is to consider of the state of the church, and to call those to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconsistent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raised the powers of the convocation to a height that was inconsistent with the principles of religious tolerancy, and indeed of civil liberty; so that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of dissolving them, and ever since they have not been permitted to sit for any time, in which they could do business.

The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates, who plead in this court, must be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the same authority with this, to which the archbishop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and administrations taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain parishes, have a jurisdiction among themselves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the bishop's courts. The see of Canterbury has no less than fifteen of these peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its consisting of commissioners delegated or appointed by the royal commission; but it is no standing court. Every bishop has also a court of his own, called the consistory court. Every archdeacon has likewise his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is, beyond any other church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and it excludes no sect of Christians from the exercise of their respective religious worships. Without entering upon the motives of its reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain, that episcopal government, excepting under the times of usurpation, has ever since prevailed in England. The wisdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conspicuous in discouraging all religious persecution and intolercancy, and if religious sectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the same principle that civil licentiousness has prevailed; I mean a tenderness in matters that can affect either conscience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery, in the reign of Henry VIII. and his son, and even so late as that of Elizabeth, occasioned an interposition of the civil power,

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power, for a farther reformation. Thence arose the puritans, so called from their affecting a singular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendants are the modern presbyterians, who retain the same character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty, only with some differences as to church discipline, and the modes of worship. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and to vesting the government of the church in a parity of presbyters. The presbyterians, however, are now considered as being dissenters. The baptists form another sect of dissenters. These do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptism, and in the baptism of adults, they practise immersion into water. Blended with these are the independents, but it is hard to say what are the particular tenets of those sects, so much have they deviated from their original principles, and so greatly do their professors differ from each other. The moderate clergy of the church of England, treat the presbyterians with affection and friendship; and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of bishops, are capital points in their religion, they consider their differences with the presbyterians, and even with the baptists, as not being very material to salvation, nor indeed do many of the established church think that they are strictly and conscientiously bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to subscribe before they can enter into holy orders. Some of them have of late contended in writings, that all subscriptions to religious systems are repugnant to the spirit of Christianity, and to reformation.

The methodists are a sect of a late institution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitefield, a divine of the church of England, but it is difficult to describe the tenets of this numerous sect. All we know is, that they pretend to great fervour and devotion, that their founder, who is still alive, thinks that the form of ecclesiastical worship, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, is a matter of indifference, and he accordingly makes use of both forms. His followers are rigid observers of the thirty-nine articles, and many of them profess themselves to be calvinists. But even this sect is split among themselves, some of them acknowledging Mr. Whitefield, and others Mr. Wesley, for their leader; not to mention a variety of subordinate sects (some of whom are from Scotland) who have their separate followers, both at London, and in the country of England. I am to observe, that there seems at present to be among those sectaries, and dissenters, a vast relaxation of ecclesiastical discipline, which is chiefly owing to disunion among themselves, and in some measure to the principle of free-thinking, the professors of which are presbyterians or independents, and consider all systems of religious government, and tests of faith, as so many fetters upon reason and conscience.

The quakers form a numerous sect of dissenters in England, and perhaps if their professed principles were to undergo a very strict examination, they would appear to be founded in free-thinking, though they pretend to be guided by internal revelation, dictated by the spirit of God. That revelation, and that spirit, however, are just what they please to make them, and if they mean any thing, it is an abstraction from all sensual ideas, in treating of the Christian religion, and its mysteries, for they attempt

attempt to allegorize all the facts in the gospel. This has subjected them to a charge of their denying all the fundamentals of Christianity. Though some of them have disclaimed this charge, yet they utterly deny, that the outward person, who suffered his body to be crucified by the Jews, without the gates of Jerusalem, is properly the son of God. They disclaim all religious creeds made use of by other Christians, and all the modes of worship practised in other churches. They disregard the authority of the clergy, and refuse to pay tithes unless they are compelled by law. They neither use baptism, nor partake of the sacrament. They affect a peculiar plainness of dress, both as to the form and the colours of their cloaths, and they publicly declaim against resistance, and the legality of going to war on any account. With regard to the resurrection of the body, and the doctrines of rewards and punishments hereafter, and many other capital points of Christianity, they have not yet explained themselves authentically.

Were all the other peculiarities of this sect to be described, a reader, not acquainted with it, would be apt to think it impossible, that it should associate with other Christians. Nothing however is more certain, than that the quakers are most excellent members of the community. The strictness of their morality makes amends for the oddities of their principles, and the simplicity of their living, for the wildness of their opinions. Their œconomy is admirable, for though none of them pretend to any coercive power, yet their censures are submitted to as implicitly, as if they were Romish bigots under an inquisition. The highest punishment is a kind of excommunication, which I shall not pretend to describe, but which is taken off upon repentance and amendment, and the party is readmitted into all the privileges of their body. Their government is truly republican, and admirably well adapted to their principles. They have an annual meeting, which is generally in May, at London, and this is resorted to by deputies from all parts of Great-Britain, Ireland, Holland, Germany, and the British plantations. In this meeting is examined the proceedings of their other meetings, which are monthly and quarterly. Indecencies of every kind are censured, contributions are received, accounts are examined, and discourses, exhortations, and sermons are delivered suitable to the exigency of the times, and their prevailing vices and immoralities. The good sense for which this sect is remarkable, renders their leaders more respectable, than those which royalty or power appoint over other communities. This, with the mildness of their behaviour, sobriety, and great industry, have raised them high in the esteem of the legislature, which has even indulged them by admitting of their affirmation, instead of an oath in the courts of justice. I shall not here enter into their political history, or in what manner one of their number, William Penn, formed that admirable establishment of their order, which still subsists in Pennsylvania. It is sufficient to observe, that it was found by experience, during the two last wars with France, that their principles were incompatible, with either civil or military government; and consequently, that, unless their enemies had been quakers likewise, they must have been masters of their country. This created great trouble with the mother country, and it unfortunately happened, that the quakers were as tenacious of their property, as of their principles. Necessity and danger, however, at last compelled them to contribute for their own defence, by their purses, tho' we do not find that they did it in their persons; from all which

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which it appears that it would be impracticable to form quakers into a civil government of any kind.

The ignorance of Fox, and the first leaders of this sect, led the quakers into a thousand extravagancies, by agitations and convulsions of the body, which they termed the workings of the spirit. Barclay, Keith, and some other metaphysical heads, defended the doctrine, though they dropt the singularities of the profession. This softened the ridicule of the public, and Barclay's successors have omitted in their behaviour and appearance many of those unmeaning singularities. The quakers, it is true, in general, still retain the appellation of Friend, instead of Sir, and make use of 'Thou and 'Thee in discourse; neither are they very ready to pull off their hats, by way of civility or respect. They know, however, how to accommodate themselves to the common usages of life, upon particular emergencies, and the singularities of a quaker of address are now but just discernible, and can give no offence to politeness, unless it is affected.

It is impossible to say any thing with certainty concerning the number of quakers in England. In the beginning of the late reign they were estimated at 50,000; and I am apt to believe, they are encreased, tho' that encrease is not perceptible, by their laying aside most of their singularities. The regularity of their meetings is surprizing, and the admonitions which they give to their brethren, by circular letters, from their yearly meetings, are worthy imitation by the best policed government. The payment of tithes is a kind of a standing grievance, because it is renewed every year. They are however steady in their opposition to it. They who pay them voluntarily, are always censured. The books relating to their religion, which they print, must be licensed by a committee before they are dispersed.

Many families in England still profess the Roman catholic religion, and its exercise is under very mild and gentle restrictions. Though the penal laws against papists in England appear at first to be severe, yet they are executed with so much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himself under few hardships. Legal evasions are found out for their double taxes, upon their landed property, and, as they are subject to none of the expences and troubles (unless voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the English Roman catholics are in general in good circumstances, as to their private fortunes. The truth is, they know that a change of government, instead of bettering, would hurt their situation, because it would encrease the jealousy of the legislature, which would undoubtedly expose them daily to greater burdens, and heavier penalties. This sensible consideration has of late rendered the Roman catholics as dutiful and zealous subjects as any his majesty has, and their interest in election of members of parliament, which is considerable, has for these thirty years past, commonly gone for the court. Scarcely any English Roman catholic, excepting those who were bred or had served abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745, and tho' those at home were most carefully observed, few or none of them were found guilty of disloyal practices.

I should here take my leave of the state of religion in England, was it not necessary to mention those who profess no religion at all, and yet have a vast influence upon the circumstances and state of the established church. These go under the name of Free-thinkers, and they are divided into as many sects as Christianity itself. Arians and Socinians,

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words well known to imply a disbelief of the doctrines of the church of England, with regard to the Trinity, shelter themselves under the name of Free-thinkers. The Deist shakes himself loose of all religious institutions, by pleading Free-thinking. The Fatalist, who is a branch of deism, and in fact signifies the same as a deist, does the like, and what is still worse, free-living is often the consequence of free-thinking, as is seen in the unbounded dissipation, debauchery and impiety of its professors. What the effects of this irreligion may prove, is hard to say, but it seems not to be so general at present as in any one reign since the revolution. This is in a great measure owing to the discouragement it meets with from the royal example, which has brought an attendance upon religious ordinances into credit, at the court and capital. Another circumstance, in favour of religion, is the noble provision, which the enjoyment of a bishopric, or a dignified station in the church makes, for the younger sons of noble families. The bench of bishops, has, at no time since the reformation, been possessed by so many men of birth and quality; nor has it ever been known that so many young persons of rank and family, have been educated to the church, as at present.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the seat of learning and the Muses. Her great Alfred cultivated both in the time of the Saxons, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe, nor has there since his time been wanting a continual succession of learned men, who have distinguished themselves by their writings or studies. These are so numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The English institutions, for the benefit of study, partake of the character of their learning. They are solid and substantial, and provide for the ease, the disencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the convenience of its professors; witness the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, institutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were respected even amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. The industrious Leland, who was himself a moving library, was the first who made a short collection of the lives and characters of those learned persons, who preceded the reign of his master Henry VIII. among whom he has inserted several of the blood royal of both sexes, particularly a son and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the Confessor, and other Saxon princesses, some of whom were equally devoted to Mars as the Muses.

In speaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable, if I should omit the mention of that prodigy of learning, and natural philosophy; Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon, lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Isaac Newton. Among the other curious works ascribed to him by Leland, we find treatises upon the flux and reflux of the British sea, upon metallurgy, upon astronomy, cosmography, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford in 1248. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors; who have done honour to learning and the Muses, and to his work I must refer. Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of literature, and it is but doing justice to the memory of cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge

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that both his example and encouragement, laid the foundation of the polite arts, and the revival of classical learning in England. As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters, at the time of the reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners, to settle in England. Edward VI. during his short life, did a great deal for the encouragement of these foreigners, and shewed dispositions for cultivating the most useful parts of learning, had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, suffered an almost total eclipse in England, during the bloody bigotted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth, her sister, was herself a learned princess. She advanced many persons of consummate abilities, to high ranks, both in church and state, but she seems to have considered their literary accomplishments to have been only secondary to their civil. In this she shewed herself a great politician, but she would have been a more amiable queen, had she raised genius from obscurity; for though she was no stranger to Spencer's Muse, she suffered herself to be so much imposed upon, by an unfeeling minister, that the poet languished to death in obscurity. Though she tasted the beauties of the divine Shakespear, yet we know not that they were distinguished by any particular acts of her munificence, but her parsimony was nobly supplied by her favourite the earl of Essex, the politest scholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England, continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Casaubon, and other foreign authors of distinction, even of different principles. He was himself no great author, but his example had a wonderful effect upon his subjects, for in his reign were formed those great masters of polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible mines of knowledge, nor must it be forgot, that the second Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viscount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewise the patron of Camden, and other historians, as well as antiquaries, whose works are to this day, standards in those studies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that English learning is under great obligations to James I.

His son Charles I. had a taste for the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists, so that had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital, into a second Athens, and the collections he made for that purpose, considering his pecuniary difficulties were stupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and laid out the amazing sum of four hundred thousand pounds sterling, upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities. The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immense acquisitions he made of antiquities, especially his famous marble inscriptions, may stand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greatest of the Medicean princes. Charles, and his court, had little or no relish for poetry.

The public encouragement of learning, and the arts, suffered indeed an eclipse, during the time of the civil wars, and the succeeding usurpation. Many very learned men, however, found their situations under Cromwell, though he was no stranger to their political sentiments,

so easy, that they followed their studies, to the vast benefit of every branch of learning, and many works of vast literary merit, appeared even in those times of distraction. Usher, Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmolested by that usurper, and he would even have filled the universities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of safety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, especially by the institution of the royal society. The king himself was an excellent judge of those studies, and though irreligious himself, England never abounded more with learned and able divines, than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable *Paradise Lost* by Milton, was published in his reign, but so little read, that the impression did not pay the expence of 15l. given by the bookseller for the copy. The reign of Charles II. notwithstanding the bad taste of his court in several of the polite arts, by some is reckoned the Augustan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Hook, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better stile, and truer energy, than it ever had known before. Classic literature, recovered many of its native graces, and though England could not under him boast of a Jones, and a Vandyke, yet Sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity, than ever had been known before in architecture, and many excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) flourished in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewise had a taste for the fine arts, is chiefly distinguished in the province of literature, by those compositions that were published by the English divines against popery, and which, for strength of reasoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. a prince, who neither understood, nor loved learning, or genius in any shape. It flourished, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the soil, in which it had been planted. It has been observed, however, that metaphysical reasoning, and a squeamish scepticism in religious matters, prevailed too much, and this has been generally attributed to his indifference as to sacred subjects. Argumentation, however, thereby acquired, and has still preserved a far more rational tone in every province of literature, than it had before, especially in religion and philosophy.

The most uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auspices of queen Anne, and which put her court at least on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men, who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were still alive; and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verse and prose, need but be mentioned to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in war. Religious, natural, and

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liberal philosophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in speculative matters.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficients themselves. I have already observed, that in this reign a poet held the pen of first secretary of state, though Mr. Addison's talents were very inadequate to the post, and his temper still more.

Though George II. was himself no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of bishops was never known to be so well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign, a full proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was considered as being first minister, this screen between government and literature, was in a great measure removed, and men of genius began then to taste the royal bounty.

The reign of his grandson promises to renew a golden age to learning and all the arts. The noble institution of a royal academy, and his majesty's generous munificence to men of merit, in every study, have already thrown an illustrious resplendence round his court, which must endure his memory to future generations.

Besides learning, and the fine arts in general, the English excel, in what we call, the learned professions. Their courts of justice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than those which any other country can boast of. A remarkable instance of which, occurs in the appointments for the last 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the highest and the most uncontrollable judicial seat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few instances that may be alledged to the contrary, fix no imputation of criminal guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was censured indeed for corrupt practices, but malevolence itself does not say that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his servants. The case of one of his successors is still more favourable to his memory, his censure reflects disgrace only upon his enemies, and his lordship was, in the eyes of every man of candour and conscience, acquitted, not only of actual but intentional guilt. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accused of partiality in the causes that came before him as chancellor.

It must be acknowledged, that neither pulpit, nor bar-eloquence, has been much studied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The sermons of their divines, are often learned, and always sound as to the practical and doctrinal parts, but the many religious sects in England, require to be opposed rather by reasoning in eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed among the clergy themselves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demosthenes were weakened by those powers of language, with which they are adorned. A short time, perhaps, may remove this prepossession, and convince the clergy,

clergy, as well as laity, that true eloquence is the first and fairest handmaid of argumentation. The reader, however, is not to imagine that I am insinuating, that the preachers of the English church are destitute of the graces of elocution, so far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them, in the purity and perspicuity of language, though I think that if they consulted more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect. If the semblance of those powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthusiasts, are attended with the amazing effects we daily see, what must not be the consequence; if they were exerted in reality, and supported with spirit and learning.

The laws of England are of so peculiar a cast, that the several pleadings at the bar, do not admit, or but very sparingly, of the flowers of speech, and I am apt to think that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would make a ridiculous appearance in Westminster-hall. The English lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well versed in rhetoric and reasoning.

Parliamentary speaking, not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence, as the English senate in its two houses, witness the fine speeches made by both parties, in parliament in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried into great perfection by the English, and every member of the medical profession, is sure of an impartial hearing at the bar of the public. The same may be said of music and theatrical exhibitions; and as no people in the world encourage merit in artists of every kind, equally as the English do, no country can show so great a variety of literary excellence. Even agriculture and mechanism, are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any public encouragement, but that given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] The English language is known to be a compound of almost every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon however predominates, and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To describe it abstractedly, would be superfluous to an English reader, but relatively it enjoys all the properties, without any of the defects of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expressive than either the French, or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is subject, however, to great provincialities in its accent, for the people of one county, can scarcely understand those of another, but this happens in other countries. People of fortune and education in England, of both sexes, commonly either speak; or understand the French, and many of them, the Italian and Spanish; but it has been observed, that foreign nations have great difficulty in understanding the few English, who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reason why that language is diffused in England, even by the learned professions.

As to the dress of the English, I have already mentioned somewhat of it, in treating of their manners. The nobility, and people of fortune,

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of both sexes, dress as those of the same rank in other parts of Europe; and since the vast encouragement given by the court, to gold and silver manufactures, perhaps more magnificently. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occasions are incredible, especially since the vast acquisitions of the English, in the East-Indies. The same nobility, and persons of distinction, on ordinary occasions, dress like creditable citizens, that is neat, clean and plain, in the finest cloth, and the best of linen.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This article is so copious, and has been so well discussed in former publications, many of which are master-pieces in their kind, that the reader, I hope, will not expect that I enter into minutiae. It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be at this day the first and most powerful people in the world. Historical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is sufficient to say, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth, that England began to feel her true weight in the scale of commerce. She planned some settlements in America, Virginia particularly, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her subjects, and indeed she was too parsimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial schemes for the English trade. The East-India company owes to him their success and existence, and the British America saw her most flourishing colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and their gradations have terminated in the present glorious state of the nation. It is not within my design to follow commerce through all its fluctuations and states: This would be an idle attempt, and it has already taken up large volumes. The nature of a geographical work, requires only a representation of the present state of commerce in every country; and in this light I flatter myself that I shall be able to treat of it with more precision, than former writers upon the same subject.

The present system of English politics may then properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the Protestant religion was established, which naturally allied us to the reformed states, and made all the Popish powers our enemies.

We began in the same reign to extend our trade, by which it became necessary for us also to watch the commercial progress of our neighbours; and, if not to incommode and obstruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewise settled colonies in America, which was become the great scene of European ambition; for, seeing with what treasures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined, that an American conquest or plantation would certainly fill the mother country with gold and silver.

The discoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the necessity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of shipping. The sea was considered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of sovereignty rose, called naval dominion.

As the chief trade of Europe, so the chief maritime power was at first in the hands of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the consent of other princes was not asked, had divided the newly

discovered countries between them : but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the ships of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raised at a vast expence for the conquest of England, was destroyed ; which put a stop, and almost an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppressed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, resolved no longer to endure the insolence of their masters ; they therefore revolted ; and after a struggle, in which they were assisted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independant and powerful common-wealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their system of government, and some remission of the war gave them leisure to form schemes of future prosperity, they easily perceived that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers small, they could preserve themselves only by that power, which is the consequence of wealth ; and that by a people whose country produced only the necessaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired, but from foreign dominions, and by the transportation of the products of one country into another.

From this necessity, thus justly estimated, arose a plan of commerce, which was for many years prosecuted with an industry and success, perhaps never seen in the world before ; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impassable bogs, erected themselves into high and mighty states, who set the greatest monarchs at defiance, whose alliance was courted by the proudest, and whose power was dreaded by the fiercest nations. By the establishment of this state, there arose to England a new ally, and a new rival.

At this time, which seems to be the period destined for the change of the face of Europe, France began first to rise into power, and from defending her own provinces with difficulty and fluctuating success, to threaten her neighbours with incroachments and devastations. Henry IV. having, after a long struggle, obtained the crown, found it easy to govern nobles, exhausted and wearied with a long civil war ; and having composed the disputes between the Protestants and Papists, so as to obtain, at least, a truce for both parties, was at leisure to accumulate treasure, and raise forces which he proposed to have employed in a design of settling for ever the balance of Europe. Of this great scheme he lived not to see the vanity, or feel the disappointment ; for he was murdered in the midst of his mighty preparations.

The French, however, were in this reign taught to know their own power ; and the great designs of a king, whose wisdom they had so long experienced, even though they were not brought to actual experiment, disposed them to consider themselves as masters of the destiny of their neighbours : and from that time he that shall nicely examine their schemes and conduct, will find that they began to take an air of superiority, to which they had never pretended before ; and that they have been always employed more or less, openly, upon schemes of dominion, though with frequent interruptions from domestic troubles.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced only 36,000*l.* a year ; at the restoration, they were left to farm for 400,000*l.* and produced considerably above double that sum before the revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and

and but very little trade, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increased to 150,000, and are now above six times that number. In those days, we had not only our naval stores, but our ships from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thousand other things came from France. Portugal furnished us with sugars; all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East Indies at their own price. In short, the legal interest of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our land ten or twelve years purchase. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and those, but indifferent: the number of English merchants very small, and our shipping much inferior to what now belong to our American colonies.

Such was the state of our trade when this great princess came to the throne; but as the limits of our undertaking do not permit us to give a detail of the gradual progress of commerce since that reign, we flatter ourselves that the British reader will not be displeased with the following view of our extensive trade, at present carried on through the various nations of the globe.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, the most proper for trade; as well from its situation, as an island, as from the freedom and excellency of its constitution, and from its natural products, and considerable manufactures. For exportation: our country produces many of the most substantial and necessary commodities, as butter, cheese, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pitcoal, alum, saffron, &c. Our corn sometimes preserves other countries from starving. Our horses are the most serviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations, for their hardiness, beauty and strength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biscuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreigners that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcasses, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almost incredible, is the value likewise of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, shoes, household-stuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, salmon, oysters, saffron, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is scarce a manufacture in Europe, but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unnecessary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the most considerable, and exceeds in goodness and quantity that of any other nation. Hard-ware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, also are very great articles; our clocks and watches are in very great esteem. There are but few manufactures we are defective in. In those of lace and paper we do not seem to excel; but we import much more than we should, if the duty on British paper was taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woollen manufacture is still the great foundation and support of it.

Our American colonies are the objects that naturally first present themselves for our discussion, and they may be divided into two classes, our possessions on the continent, and those in the islands, which go under the name of the West-Indies.

I shall rank the English possessions in North America, under the heads of the following colonies, viz. Hudson's Bay, Labrador, Newfoundland,

Canada, Nova Scotia, New England, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire (the three last forming one colony) New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Maryland (originally but one colony) North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, East and West Florida. The chief commodities exported from Great Britain, to those colonies, are wrought iron, steel, copper, pewter, lead, and brass, cordage, hemp, sail cloth, ship chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hosiery, haberdashery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, stuffs, flannels, Colchester bays, long ell silks, gold and silver lace, Manchester goods, British, foreign, and Irish linens, earthen wares, grind-stones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, sadlery, cabinet wares, seeds, cheese, strong beer, smocking pipes, snuffs, wines, spirits, and drugs, East India goods, books, paper, leather, besides many other articles, according to the different wants and exigencies of the different colonies, impossible to be enumerated here.

The commodities exported from America to Great Britain, and other markets, are tobacco, rice, flour, and biscuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, Indian corn, and other grain, salt beef, pork, hams, bacon, and venison, bees wax, tongues, butter, and cheese, deer, and other skins, flax seed, horses, and live stock, timber, plank, masts, boards, staves, and shingles, pot-ash, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in bars and pigs; besides many other commodities peculiar to the climes, and soil of different provinces. As to those, which have been acquired by the last general peace, they are certainly very improveable, nor can we form any judgment of them, in their present infantine unsettled state. It does not enter within my design, nor indeed does it fall within my subject, to recapitulate the differences that unhappily subsist at present between those colonies, and their mother country. It is sufficient if I exhibit a state of the trade between them, as it existed when those differences took place, marking at the same time the commercial strength and shipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Great Britain.	Exports from the Colonies.
Hudson's Bay	4	130	L. 16,000	L. 29,340
Labrador, American vessels 120.				49,059
Newfoundland (2000 boats)	380	20,560	273,400	345,000
Canada	34	408	105,000	105,500
Nova Scotia	6	72	26,500	38,000
New England	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire	3	36	12,000	114,500
New York	30	330	531,000	526,000
Pennsylvania	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North Carolina	34	408	18,000	68,350
South Carolina	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia	24	240	49,000	74,200
East Florida	2	24	7,000	
West ditto	10	120	97,000	63,000
	1,078	28,910	3,370,900	3,924,666

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The English trade with their West India islands, consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, materials for dyers, mahogany, and manchineel planks; for these the exports from England are osnabruugs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West Indians now clothe their slaves, linen of all sorts, with broad cloth, and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers and families; silks, and stuffs for their ladies, and household servants; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves, and hats; millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chissels, adzes, hocs, mattocks, gouges, planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and shot; brass, and copper wares; all sorts of India goods, and toys, coals, and pantiles. Formerly the English West India islands, sent home large quantities of money in specie, which they got upon the balance of trade with the French, Spaniards and Portuguese. We cannot, however, speak with any precision, as to the particulars of the trade between the English West Indies, and the mother country, tho' undoubtedly it is highly for the benefit of the latter, because of the cessions made of new islands there by the late peace, which, when fully peopled, must have a very sensible influence upon the former system of commerce in those parts, as I shall have occasion to observe in its proper place.

The principal islands belonging to the English, in the West Indies, are the Bermudas, or Summer islands; the Bahama, or Lucayan islands, Jamaica, Anguilla, Barbuda, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, St. Lucia, Dominica, St. Vincent, Barbados, Tobago, and Granada, and the Grenadines, or Grenadillos. Of these Dominica, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Tobago, and Granada, were ceded by France to Great Britain, by the definitive treaty of 1763.

The trade of England to the East Indies constitutes one of the most stupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in history. The trade itself is exclusive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the history of the East India trade, within these twenty years past, and the company's concerns in that country, it is sufficient to say, that besides their settlements on the coast of India, which they enjoy under proper restrictions, by act of parliament, they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened in the empire of Indostan, acquired such territorial possessions, as renders them the most formidable commercial republic (for so it may be called in its present situation) that has been known in the world since the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are known, and that but imperfectly, only to the directors of the company, who are chosen annually by the proprietors of the stock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that it amounts annually to above three millions and a half sterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining those acquisitions, are certainly very great; but after these are defrayed, the company not only clears a vast sum, but is able to pay to the government four hundred thousand pounds yearly, for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification, for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for those possessions that are territorial and not commercial. This republic therefore cannot be said to be independent, and it is hard to say what form

it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired.

This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all sorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw-silk, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain ware, salt petre for home consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I shall now proceed to a concise view of the English trade to other countries, according to the latest, and most authentic accounts.

To Turkey England sends woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, in her own bottoms, hard ware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdigrease, spices, cochineel, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-silks, carpets, skins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and some other articles. Formerly the balance of this trade was about 500,000*l.* annually, in favour of England. The English trade was afterwards diminished through the practices of the French, but it is now said to be reviving.

England exports to Italy, woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fish, and East India goods; and brings back raw and thrown silk, wines, oil, soap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury; the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000*l.*

To Spain, England sends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corn, iron and brass manufactures, haberdashery wares, assortments of linen from Germany, and elsewhere, for her American colonies; and receives in return, wines, oil, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wools, indico, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and silver coin.

Portugal, till of late, was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whose fleets and armies have more than once saved her from destruction. Of late her ministry have changed their system, and have fallen in with the views of the house of Bourbon. They have established courts, which are inconsistent with the treaties between Portugal and England, and defraud the English merchants of great parts of their capitals, which they find it impossible to recover. They have likewise erected two Brazil companies; the one for Maranham, and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco, greatly to the detriment of the English rights. The court of London is, at this time, by its ministers, making the strongest efforts for redress, and it is to be hoped they will be attended with success, as Portugal itself cannot exist even as a kingdom, but by the protection of the English. Before these misunderstandings happened, the English trade to Portugal was highly beneficial for both nations. England sent to that country almost the same kinds of merchandizes as to Spain, and they received in return vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

To France, England sends much tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and sometimes corn; and always much money at the long run; and brings home, in a smuggling way, a much greater value in wines, brandies, linen, cambrics, lace, velvets, and many other prohibited fopperies, and brocades; always very considerably to England's disadvantage. But as there is no commercial treaty subsisting between England and France, not even in time of peace, England's just loss cannot be ascertained.

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England sends to Flanders, ferges, flannels, tin, lead, sugars and tobacco, and receives in return laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loses upon the balance 250,000 l. sterling yearly. To Germany, England sends cloths and stuffs, tin, pewter, sugars, tobacco, and East India merchandize; and brings thence vast quantities of linen, thread, goat-skins, tinned-plates, timbers for all uses, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000 l. annually, to the prejudice of England, but that sum is now greatly reduced, as most of the German princes now find it their interest to clothe their armies in English manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, which formerly was against England, but the balance is now vastly diminished by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raising hemp, flax, making pot-ashes, iron-works, and tallow, all which used to be furnished to her by the northern powers.

To Holland, England sends an immense quantity of many sorts of merchandize; such as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, East India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, sugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes returns in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, inkle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is usually supposed to be much in favour of England. I shall forbear to mention the trade between England and Ireland, till I come to treat of the latter kingdom.

The acquisitions which the English have made upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, have opened new sources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in possession of Senegal, traded there for gold, slaves, hides, ostrich feathers, bees wax, millet, ambergrease, and above all, for that useful commodity, gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch. At present England sends to the coast of Guinea, sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen, iron, pewter, brags, and hardware manufactures, lead-shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glass manufactures. And, besides drawing no money out of the kingdom, it supplies her American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold dust, gum, dying, and other drugs, red wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, England sends much foreign silver coin and bullion, and sundry English manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and brags; and brings home from those remote regions, muslins, and cottons, of many various kinds, calicoes, raw and wrought silk, chints; teas, porcelain, gold dust, coffee, salt-petre, and many other drugs. And to great a quantity of those various merchandize are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compensates for all the silver bullion which England carries out.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the reports have been computed at seven millions sterling, and its imports five, of which above one million is re-exported, so that if this calculation is true, England gains, annually, three millions sterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the most experienced merchants, and ablest calculators, differ. After all that has been said, it must be acknowledged; that many exceptions lie to particular estimates. The vast improvements at home, in iron, silk, linen, and other manufactures, and

and the growing imports from America, must greatly diminish the English imports from abroad. On the other hand, some of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivalling the English manufactures. With what success they may be attended, time alone can determine; but hitherto, the appearances on their side are not very promising.

Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one sixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and silver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa; but great part of this gold and silver we again export to Holland, and the East-Indies; and it is supposed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

We shall conclude this account of our trade with the following comparative view of shipping, which, till a better table can be formed, may have its uses.

If the shipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,

Great Britain, &c. is computed to have	—	—	6
The United Provinces	—	—	6
The subjects of the northern crowns	—	—	2
The trading cities of Germany, and the Austrian Netherlands	—	—	1
France	—	—	2
Spain and Portugal	—	—	2
Italy, and the rest of Europe	—	—	1

My bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where those English manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated; a few general strictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonshire supply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures is common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire manufactures cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of sheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somersetshire, besides furnishing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone lace, stockings and caps. Bristol, which is both a city and county, is said by some to employ 2000 maritime vessels of all sizes, coasters as well as ships employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glass-bottle and drinking-glass one alone occupying fifteen large houses: its brass-wire manufactures are also very considerable. Vast manufactures of all kinds, glass in particular, are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufactures of London and Spitalfields, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, those of any country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufactures of bays and serges; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camblets, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largest and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade, in excellent and ingenious hard-ware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco-boxes, buttons, shoe-buckles, etwees, and many other sorts of steel and brass wares: it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they

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they can afford them for the fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same or an inferior kind : the cheapness of coals, and all necessaries, and the conveniency of situation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarser and slighter woollen manufactures ; witness those of Hallifax, Leeds, Wakefield, Richmond, Whitby, and, above all, Manchester ; which, by its cottons, dimities, tickens, and the like stuffs, is become a beautiful and populous place, though it is no more than a village, and its highest magistrate a constable. I might mention many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for some particular commodity, but the detail would become too bulky. I must not, however, dismiss this head, without observing the beautiful porcelain and earthen ware that has of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worcestershire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, though but a late manufacture, equals in strength and beauty any imported from abroad ; and, consequently, is a vast saving to the nation. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of salt-petre, which was first attempted in England by Sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the East-India company : the success of such an undertaking would be of immense benefit, as well as security to the nation.

After all that has been said on this head, the seats of manufactures, and consequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating ; they will always follow those places where living is cheap, and taxes are easy : for this reason, they have been observed of late to move towards the northern counties, where provisions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low ; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations which are opening in many parts of England, will make vast alterations as to its internal state.

Many sensible but speculative Englishmen, daily express their apprehensions, lest the weight of taxes and dearth of living in England, should enable other nations to ruin the English trade at foreign markets, by underworking them. This objection is of a long standing, and would have great weight, did not experience prove that it is not founded in fact. An English workman, it is true, lives much better than a foreigner, but then he will do double, if not triple the work, in the same time ; and other nations are taxed deeply as well as England.

A short view of the Stocks, or public funds in England, with an historical account of the East-India, the Bank, and South-Sea Companies.

As there are few subjects of conversation more general than the value of stocks, and hardly any thing so little understood, nothing can be more useful than a short account of them, which we shall here give in as clear and concise a manner as possible ; presenting our readers with the rationale of the stocks, and a short history of the several companies, describing the nature of their separate funds, the uses to which they are applied, and the various purposes they answer, both with respect to the government, the companies themselves, and the community in general.

In

In order to give a clear idea of the money transactions of the several companies, it is proper we should say something of money in general, and particularly of paper money, and the difference between that and the current specie. Money is the standard of the value of all the necessaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the representative of that standard to such a degree, as to supply its place, and to answer all the purposes of gold and silver coin. Nothing is necessary to make this representative of money supply the place of specie, but the credit of that office or company, who delivers it; which credit consists in its always being ready to turn it into specie whenever required. This is exactly the case of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the same value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the possessor pleases. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is punished with death, as well as coining.

The method of depositing money in the Bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no interest) is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only safer than money in the hands of the owner himself; but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more easy conveyance: since a bank note for a very large sum, may be sent by the post, and to prevent the designs of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and sent at two several times. Or bills, called Bank post-bills, may be had by application at the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent losses by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight; which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the Bank, if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negotiated by strangers as common Bank notes are: and whoever considers the hazard, the expence and trouble, there would be in sending large sums of gold and silver to and from distant places, must also consider this as a very singular advantage. Beside which, another benefit attends them; for if they are destroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of such accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars; 1. They are always of the same value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no interest; while stocks are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. India bonds indeed (by some persons, though erroneously, denominated stock) are to be excepted, they being made payable at six months notice, either on the side of the company or of the possessor.

By the word **Stock** was originally meant, a particular sum of money contributed to the establishing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the security both of the government and of the public companies is esteemed preferable to that of any private person, as the stocks are negotiable and may be sold at any time, and as the interest is always punctually paid

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when due, so they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower interest than what might be obtained from lending it to private persons, where there must be always some danger of losing both principal and interest.

But as every capital stock or fund of a company is raised for a particular purpose, and limited by parliament to a certain sum, it necessarily follows, that when that fund is completed, no stock can be bought of the company; though shares already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling, will not part with his share without a considerable profit to himself; and on the contrary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of those who want to turn their stock into specie.

These observations may serve to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and dishonest practice called Stock-jobbing, the mystery of which consists in nothing more than this: the persons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or sell, at a certain distant time, a certain quantity of some particular stock, against which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raise or lower such stock, by raising rumours and spreading fictitious stories, in order to induce people either to sell out in a hurry, and consequently cheap, if they are to deliver stock; or to become unwilling to sell, and consequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive stock.

The persons who make these contracts are not in general possessed of any real stock, and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price the stock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth 100 l. to make contracts for the buying or selling 100,000 l. stock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this case is called the Bull, and the seller the Bear.

Beside these, there are another set of men, who though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the same denomination. These are your great monied men, who are dealers in stock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. These indeed are not fictitious, but real buyers and sellers of stock; but by raising false hopes, or creating groundless fears, by pretending to buy or sell large quantities of stock on a sudden, by using the fore-mentioned set of men as their instruments, and other like practices, are enabled to raise or fall the stocks one or two per cent. at pleasure.

However, the real value of one stock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government, by which that credit is secured, must naturally have a considerable effect on the stocks. Thus, with respect to the interest of the proprietors, a share in the stock of a trading company which produces 4. or 6 l. per cent. per ann. must be more valuable than an annuity with

with government security, that produces no more than 3 l. or 4 l. per cent. per annum; and consequently such stock must sell at a higher price than such an annuity. Though it must be observed, that a share in the stock of a trading company producing 5 l. or 6 l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch so much money at market as a government annuity producing the same sum, because the security of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying so much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the stocks of the East-India, the Bank, and South-Sea companies, are distinguished by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we shall give a short history of each of them; together with an account of the different stocks each is possessed of, beginning with the East-India company, as the first established.

[PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these the East-India company takes the lead; and I have already given some account of it, as being the capital commercial object in England. The first idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has since admitted of vast alterations. Its shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50 l. sterling; and its capital only 369,891 l. 5 s. but the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the shares were doubled, and, consequently, each became of 100 l. value, and the capital 739,782 l. 10 s. to which capital, if 963,639 l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock will be found to be 1,703,402 l. Though the establishment of this company was vindicated in the clearest manner by Sir Josiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the losses it sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indostan, damped the ardour of the public to support it; so that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent situation. This was in a great measure owing to its having no parliamentary sanction, whereby its stock often sold for one half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new company should be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The opposition given to all the public spirited measures of king William by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of vast difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new subscription prevailed; and the subscribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vast interest both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in some respects defective, so violent a struggle between the two companies arose, that in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000 l. to the public, without any additional interest; for which consideration the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of The United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies. Its exclusive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther sum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the interest of their capital,

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which then amounted to 3,200,000*l.* was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Those annuities are different from the trading stock of the company, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade; and that dividend rises or falls according to the circumstances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the case, pretended. A proprietor of stock to the amount of 500*l.* whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thousand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected for four years successively. The chairman has a salary of 200*l.* a year, and each of the directors 150*l.* The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly oftener, being summoned as occasion requires. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; as the committee of correspondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treasury, a house committee, a committee of warehouses, a committee of shipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-suits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks, and warehouse-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company, which are attended with a proportionable increase of trade, joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late engaged the attention of the legislature so much, that a restriction has been laid for their dividends for a certain time, not to exceed 12 and a half per cent. As to the vast fortunes acquired by their governors and officers abroad, the state in which they live, and their other economical regulations, they are foreign to this head.

Other officers of the company are governors and factors abroad, some of whom have guards of soldiers, and live in all the state of sovereign princes.

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England; in consideration of the loan of 1,200,000*l.* granted to the government; for which the subscribers received almost 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them, to trade in any goods, or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign gold and silver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament passed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were empowered to enlarge their capital stock to 2,201,171*l.* 10*s.* It was then also enacted, that bank stock should be a personal, and not a real estate; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or selling bank stock, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the Bank within seven days; and the stock transferred in fourteen days, and that it should be felony, without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the Bank, or any sealed Bank bill, or any Bank note, or to alter or erase such bills or notes.

By another act passed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowred to augment their capital to 4,402,343 l. and they then advanced 400,000 l. more to the government; and in 1714, they advanced another loan of 1,500,000 l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the interest of their capital stock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000 l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000 l. and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their interests in the capital stock, such sums of money as in a general court should be found necessary. If any member should neglect to pay his share of the monies so called for, at the time appointed by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it should be lawful for the Bank, not only to stop the dividend of such member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in question; but also to stop the transfers of the share of such defaulter, and to charge him with an interest of 5 per cent. per annum, for the money so omitted to be paid: and if the principal and interest should be three months unpaid, the Bank should then have power to sell so much of the stock belonging to the defaulter as would satisfy the same.

After this, the Bank reduced the interest of the 2,000,000 l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchased several other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000 l. But in 1742, the company engaged to supply the government with 1,600,000 l. at 3 per cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; so that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000 l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the sum of 986,800 l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unsatisfied, on the duties for licences to sell spirituous liquors by retail, should be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442 l. the interest of that sum at 4 per cent. The company also agreed to advance the further sum of 1,000,000 l. into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties arising by the malt and land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be issued for that purpose; in consideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800 l. the interest of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to 3 and a half per cent. till the 25th of December 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the said Exchequer bills, they established what is now called Bank circulation. The nature of which, not being well understood, we shall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other stocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep cash sufficient to answer not only the common, but also any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the sum supposed necessary for these purposes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to say, in discounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and silver, and in government securities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger sum of money than what they deemed necessary to answer their ordinary and extraordinary

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demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current cash so large a sum as a million, with which they were obliged to furnish the government, without either lessening that sum they employed in discounting, buying gold and silver, &c. (which would have been very disadvantageous to them) or inventing some method that should answer all the purposes of keeping the million in cash. The method which they chose, and which fully answers their end, was as follows.

They opened a subscription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; wherein the subscribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank shall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. so advanced; in consideration of which, the Bank pays the subscribers 4 per cent. interest for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole sum they agree to furnish; and in case a call should be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for such sum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purposes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the subscribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the case) receive 6 and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the sum of 23,500 l. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account.

The Bank receives from the government for the advance of	£.
a million	30,000
The Bank pays to the subscribers who advance 100,000 l.	} 6,500
and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000 l. more	
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is	23,500

This is the state of the case, provided the company should make no call on the subscribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, because it would not only lessen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank stock may not improperly be called a trading stock, since with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and silver, in discounting bills of exchange, &c. Beside which, they are allowed by the government very considerable sums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages, render a share in their stock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the East-India stock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when those who have occasion for their money, may readily receive it: but private persons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their interest added to the principal.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the same manner as in the East-India company. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers of this company are very numerous.

[SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France, in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the sailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets instead of money, were frequently obliged, by their necessities, to sell these tickets to avaritious men at a

discount of 40l. and sometimes 50l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of these usurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterward earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great-Britain, trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fishery, &c.

Though this company seem formed for the sake of commerce, it is certain the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlements on the coast of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Assiento, in pursuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furnishing the Spaniards with negroes; of which this company was deprived upon receiving some equivalent by a convention between the courts of Great-Britain and Spain, soon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest. By the statute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge: and for enabling the company to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by such means as they should think proper, raise such sums of money as in a general court of the company should be judged necessary. The company were also empowered to raise money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common seal, on the credit of their capital stock. But if the sub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, should purchase lands or revenues of the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation, on any branch of the revenue, other than such part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, such sub-governor, or other member of the company, should forfeit treble the value of the money so lent.

The fatal South-Sea scheme, transacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the last-mentioned statute. The company had at first set out with good success, and the value of their stock, for the first five years, had risen faster than that of any other company, and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000l. stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were in this situation, when taking advantage of the above statute, the South-Sea bubble was projected. The pretended design of which was to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Seas, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and proposals were printed and distributed, shewing the advantages of the design, and inviting persons into it. The sum necessary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared,

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that every 100l. original stock would yield 50l. per annum; which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100l. was sold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September, it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned, as is scarcely to be conceived. But the consequences of this infamous scheme are too well known. We shall pass over all the other transactions of this company in the reign of King George I. as not material to our present purpose.

By a statute of the 6th of his late majesty, it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital stock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103l. 8s. 1d. and the shares of the respective proprietors, should be divided into four equal parts, three-fourths of which should be converted into a joint stock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and should be called, the new South-Sea annuities; and the other fourth part should remain in the company as a trading capital stock, attended with the residue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the same sums allowed for the charges of management; and with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages; belonging to the South-Sea company. That the accountant of the company should, twice every year, at Christmas and Midsummer, or within one month after, state an account of the company's affairs, which should be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends should be made out of the clear profits, and should not exceed what the company might reasonably divide; without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company should not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were discharged; and that the South-Sea company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company should cause to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities should be entered, and signed by the party making such transfer, or his attorney; and the person to whom such transfer should be made, or his attorney; should under-write his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities should be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no person is qualified to be governor, his majesty excepted, unless such governor has in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading stock; the sub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the same stock. In every general court, every member; having in his own name and right, 500l. in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The East-India company, the Bank of England, and the South-Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million-Bank, whose capital is only one million, constituted to purchase the reversion of the long Exchequer orders.

The interest of all the debts owing by the government, is now reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the years 1756, and 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders: but the South-Sea company

company still continues to divide 4 per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different stocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, so when a person who is not acquainted with transactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of stocks, where Bank stock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a 134 $\frac{1}{2}$, South-Sea ditto 97 $\frac{1}{2}$, &c. he is to understand, that 100l. of those respective stocks sell at such a time for those several sums.

In comparing the prices of the different stocks one with another, it must be remembered, that the interest due on them from the time of the last payment, is taken into the current price, and the seller never receives any separate consideration for it, except in the case of India bonds, where the interest due is calculated to the day of the sale, and paid by the purchaser, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the interest on the different stocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly understood, would lead a person, not well acquainted with them, into considerable mistakes in his computation of their value; some always having a quarter's interest due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a considerable difference in the price when, in reality, there is none at all. Thus, for instance, old South-Sea annuities sell at present for £. 85 $\frac{1}{2}$, or £. 85 10s. while new South-Sea annuities fetch only £. 84 $\frac{1}{2}$, or £. 84 15s. though each of them produce the same annual sum of 3 per cent. but the old annuities have a quarter's interest more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two causes that will always make one species of annuities sell somewhat lower than another, though of the same real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a small capital, and there not being, for that reason, so many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; because it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular species of annuity, the capital of which is the smallest.

A stock may likewise be affected by the court of Chancery; for if that court should order the money which is under their direction, to be laid out in any particular stock, that stock, by having more purchasers, will be raised to a higher price than any other of the like value.

By what has been said, the reader will perceive how much the credit and interest of the nation depends on the support of the public funds. While the annuities, and interest for money advanced, is there regularly paid, and the principal insured by both prince and people, (a security not to be had in other nations) foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be interested in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandize, and Great-Britain can never want cash to carry her schemes into execution.

In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is established on the interests of both prince and people, which is the strongest security for however lovely and engaging honesty may be in other respects, interest in money-matters will always obtain confidence; because many people pay great regard to their interest, who have but little veneration for virtue.

THE AMOUNT OF THE CAPITALS IN BANK.		When due.	When transferred.	Holidays.
Threadneedle-street;	£ 539,000	5 April & 10th Oct.	Tues. Thurs. & Frid.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 30
and SOUTH-SEA, ditto;	809,600	Ditto	Mon. Tues. Thurs. & Frid.	
and INDIAN-HOUSE, Leadenhall-street.	£ 10,780,000			
BANK STOCK.	£ 1,240,000			
— 4 per cent. con. an.				

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved his mistake, for by certain checks, that operate mutually, and which did not fall within his ideas, the English constitution has continued in its full vigour for above five hundred years. It must, at the same time, be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and some interruptions, but its principles are the same, with those described by the above-mentioned historian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern ancestors of the English nation and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany, and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the same, as those mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to serve him, were distributed among them, and the whole was considered as the common property which they were to unite in defending against all invaders. Fresh adventurers coming over, under separate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales, and those leaders, at last, assumed the title of kings, over the several districts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more respectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not encrease their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were proposed in a general assembly of the chief officers, and the people, till, by degrees, sheriffs, and other civil officers, were appointed. The country was divided into wapentakes, and hundreds, names that still subsist in England, and overseers were chosen to direct them for the good of the whole. The sheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters, within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Christianity, was added the bishop. In process of time, as business multiplied, itinerant, and other judges, were appointed, but by the earliest records, it appears, that all civil matters were decided by twelve or sixteen men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay, and here we have the original of English juries.

Before the introduction of Christianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters, but we are certain that there was no action so criminal, as not to be compensated for by money*. A mulct was imposed in proportion to the guilt; even if it was the murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it, he purchased his pardon. Those barbarous usages seem to have ceased soon after the Saxons were converted to Christianity, and cases of murder and felony were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, strictly speaking, hereditary, though in fact it came to be rendered so through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preserving the regularity of government. Even estates and honours were not strictly hereditary, till they were made so by William the Conqueror.

That prince new modelled the English constitution. He divided the conquered lands among his followers, as had been agreed before the

* Called by the Saxons *GUELTY*, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

time of the invasion, in perpetual property. He partitioned out the lands into knight's fees, an indetermined number of which formed a barony, and those baronies were given to the great noblemen, who composed what is called the King's Court, or Court of Peers, from every baron being a peer, or equal to another. In this court all civil as well as military matters, and the proportions of knights and men, which each baron was to raise for the king's service, were settled. Even bishoprics were converted into lay baronies, and were obliged, as others, to furnish their quotas. In other respects, the Conqueror, and the first princes of the Norman line, did all they could, to efface from the minds of the people, the remembrance of the Saxon constitution, but the attempt was to no purpose. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown, and after much war and blood-shed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been spilt, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation, so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves, the disposal of property.

The precise year, when the house of commons was formed, is not known, but we are certain, that it began in the reign of Henry III. though we shall not enter into any disputes about their specific powers. We shall therefore proceed to describe the constitution, as it stands at present.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, by the singular constitution of these kingdoms, is here vested in the king, lords, and commons.

OF THE KING.] The supreme executive power of Great Britain, and Ireland, is veited by our constitution in a single person, king, or queen; for it is indifferent to which sex the crown descends: the person entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intrusted with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives of sovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of succession to the throne of these kingdoms depends, is: "that the crown, by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itself: but that the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed or limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown still continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal succession, by its being transferred from the house of Tudor, to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without issue, it became necessary to recur to the other issue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen: whose eldest daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the First, was the lineal descendant from that alliance. So that in his person, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman conquest downward; he being indisputably the lineal heir of the conqueror. And, what is still more remarkable, in his person also centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended

ed from the conquest till his accession. For Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and granddaughter of king Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, supposing it not abolished by the conquest, resided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a descent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the restorer of the Saxon line. But it must be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had sons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the direct lineal descendant; and therefore united in his person every possible claim, by hereditary right, to the English as well as Scottish throne, being the heir both of Egbert, and William the Conqueror.

At the revolution, the convention of estates, or representative body of the nation, declared, that the misconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Protestant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession; with a temporary exception, or preference, to the person of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Protestant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the Protestant line of king James I. viz. to the princess Sophia, of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being protestants: and she is now the common stock, from whom the heirs of the crown must descend*.

The

* 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	} Saxon Princes.
338	Ethelwulf	
357	Ethelbald	
380	Ethelbert	
386	Ethelred	
372	Alfred	
900	Edward the Elder	
925	Athelstan	
942	Edmund	
946	Edred	
955	Edwy	
959	Edgar	
975	Edward the Martyr	
979	Ethelred II.	
1016	Edmund II.	
1017	Canute, king of Denmark	} Danish.
1035	Harold, Usurper	
1039	Harold Canute	

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Began to reign.

1041 Edward I
1065 Harold,

1066 William I

1087 William

1100 Henry I.

1135 Stephen,

1154 Henry II.

1189 Richard I

1199 John

1216 Henry II

1272 Edward I

1277 Edward I

1277 Edward I

1317 Richard I

1399 Henry IV

1412 Henry V

1423 Henry V

1461 Edward I

1483 Edward V

1483 Richard

1485 Henry V

1508 Henry V

1547 Edward VI

1553 Mary

1558 Elizabeth

1602 James I.

1625 Charles

Usurpation by

1649 Charles

1634 James I

1688 } Willi

and M

1702 Anne

1714 George

1727 George

1760 George

The true ground and principle, upon which the revolution proceeded, was an entirely new case in politics, which had never before happened in our history; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeazance of the right of succession, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houses of parliament: it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full assembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the supposition of this vacancy,

Began to reign.

- 1064 Edward the Confessor } Saxon.
- 1065 Harold, Usurper }
- 1066 William I. } (Commonly called the Conqueror, from his conquering England) 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 fourth daughter Adela.
- 1154 Henry II. } (Plantagenet) grandson of Henry I. by his daughter the empress Maud, and her second husband Geoffroy 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.
- 1317 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, 4th son to Edw. III. }
- 1412 Henry V. son of Henry IV. } House of Lancaster.
- 1422 Henry VI. son of Henry V. }
- 1461 Edward IV. descended from Edw. III. by Lionel his 3d son }
- 1483 Edward V. son of Edward IV. } House of York.
- 1483 Richard III. brother of Edward IV. }
- 1485 Henry VII. } (Tudor) son of the counts 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 of York.
- 1508 Henry VIII. son of Henry VII. }
- 1547 Edward VI. son of Henry VIII. }
- 1553 Mary }
- 1558 Elizabeth } Daughters of Henry VIII. }
- 1602 James I. } Great grandson of James IV. king of Scotland, and first of the Stuart family in England.
- 1625 Charles I. son of James I.
- 1649 Charles II. } Sons of Charles I.
- 1684 James II. }
- 1688 } William III. nephew and son-in-law of James II. }
- 1702 } 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 VI. 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 Brunwick Lunenburg, 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. } House of Hanover.
- 1760 George III. }

Began

vacancy, both houses came to this resolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of jesuits, and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws; and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this sudden and unexpected vacancy of the throne, the old line of succession: which from the conquest had lasted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almost 900.

Though in some points (owing to the peculiar circumstances of things and persons) the revolution was not altogether so perfect as might have been wished; yet from thence a new era commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and understood, and the rights of the subject more explicitly guarded by legal provisions, than in any other period of the English history. In particular, it is worthy observation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wisdom the wild extreams into which the visionary theories of some zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this misconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to subvert the constitution, and not to an actual subversion, or total dissolution of the government. They therefore very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a consequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to subsist, though the executive magistrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though king James was no longer king. And thus the constitution was kept intire; which, upon every sound principle of government, must otherwise have fallen to pieces, had so principal and constituent a part as the royal authority been abolished, or even suspended.

Hence it is easy to collect, that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common stock or ancestor, from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Formerly the common stock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common stocks united, and so continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princess Sophia, in whom the inheritance was vested by the new king and parliament. Formerly the descent was absolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any restriction; but now, upon the new settlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to such heirs only, of the body of the princess Sophia, as are Protestant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Protestants.

And in this due medium consists the true constitutional notion of the right of succession to the imperial crown of these kingdoms. The extremes, between which it steers, are each of them equally destructive of those ends for which societies were formed, and are kept on foot. Where the magistrate, upon every succession, is elected by the people, and may by the express provision of the laws be deposed (if not punished) by his subjects, this may sound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever productive of tumult, contention, and anarchy. And, on the other hand, divine

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indefeasible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited passive obedience, is surely of all constitutions the most thoroughly slavish and dreadful. But when such an hereditary right, as our laws have created and vested in the royal stock, is closely interwoven with those liberties, which are equally the inheritance of the subject; this union will form a constitution, in theory the most beautiful of any, in practice the most approved, and, in all probability, will prove in duration the most permanent. This constitution, it is the duty of every Briton to understand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expressed in his oath at the coronation, which is administered by one of the archbishops, or bishops, of the realm, in the presence of all the people; who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"The archbishop, or bishop, shall say, Will you solemnly promise and swear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same?—The king or queen shall say, I solemnly promise so to do.

Archbishop or bishop. Will you to your power cause law and justice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—King or queen. I will.

Archbishop or bishop. Will you to the utmost of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion established by the law? And will you preserve unto the bishops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by the law do or shall appertain unto them, or any of them?—King or queen. All this I promise to do.

After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy gospels, shall say, The things which I have here before promised, I will perform and keep: so help me God. And then shall kiss the book."

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now prescribed by our laws: and we may observe, that in the king's part in this original contract, are expressed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law: to execute judgment in mercy: and to maintain the established religion. With respect to the latter of these three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Ann. c. 8. two preceding statutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England: which enact; the former, that every king at his succession shall take and subscribe an oath, to preserve the Protestant religion, and Presbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that at his coronation he shall take and subscribe a similar oath, to preserve the settlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithstanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is one of the greatest monarchs reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason so much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himself, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking

taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it has no bounds (except where it breaks in upon the liberty and property of his subjects, as in making new laws, or raising new taxes) for he can make war or peace; send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, fit out fleets, employ them as he thinks proper; grant commissions to his officers both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c. summon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve it at pleasure; refuse his assent to any bill, though it hath passed both houses; which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force than if it had never been moved. He possesseth the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of state, of the household, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

[OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, in some shape, are, as has been observed, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this island; and have subsisted, in their present form, at least five hundred years.

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are, the king sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm; the lords spiritual, the lords temporal, (who sit, together with the king, in one house) and the commons, who sit by themselves in another. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in person, or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he also has alone the power of dissolving them.

It is highly necessary for preserving the balance of the constitution, that the executive power should be a branch, though not the whole, of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law; but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent: since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed consists the true excellence of the English government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legislature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has resolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preserves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords spiritual consist of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm, the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all antient peers; some by creation, as do all the new-made ones; others, since the union with Scotland, by election, which is the case of the sixteen peers, who represent the body of the

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the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly necessary in our mixed and compounded constitution, in order to support the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to withstand the encroachments of both. It creates and preserves that gradual scale of dignity, which proceeds from the peasant to the prince; rising like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminishing to a point as it rises. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne: and if that falls, they must also be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the last century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they also voted the house of lords to be useless and dangerous.

The commons consist of all such men of any property in the kingdom, as have not seats in the house of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representatives. In a free state, every man, who is supposed a free agent, ought to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. In so large a state as ours, it is very wisely contrived, that the people should do that by their representatives, which it is impracticable to perform in person: representatives, chosen by a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are, or easily may be, distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burgeses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest of the nation. The number of English representatives is 513, and of Scots 45; in all 558. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not barely to advantage his constituents, but the common wealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

These are the constituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that should bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, unless in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, says Sir Edward Coke, is so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontrolable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical, or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must in all governments reside somewhere, is entrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new model the succession to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the established religion

gion of the land; as was done in a variety of instances, in the reigns of king Henry VIII. and his three children: It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves; as was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can, in short, do every thing that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power, by a figure rather too bold, the omnipotence of parliament. True it is, that what the parliament doth, no authority upon earth can undo. So that it is a matter most essential to the liberties of this kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust, as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowlege; for it was a known apothegm of the great lord treasurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament:" and, as Sir Matthew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of remedy.

In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise, by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable, or else improper, to manage it, it is provided that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member shall vote or sit in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration; and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers that may arise to the kingdom from foreign attachments; connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, even though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Some of the more notorious privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and of their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1 W. & M. st. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the king in person, by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So likewise are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any entry be made, on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament.

These privileges, however, which derogate from the common law, being only indulged to prevent the members being diverted from the public

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public business, endure no longer than the session of parliament, save only as to the freedom of his person: which in a peer is for ever sacred and inviolable; and in a commoner for forty days after every prorogation, and forty days before the next appointed meeting; which is now in effect as long as the parliament subsists, it seldom being prorogued for more than fourscore days at a time. As to all other privileges which obstruct the ordinary course of justice, they cease immediately after the dissolution or prorogation of the parliament, or adjournment of the houses for above a fortnight; and during these recesses a peer, or member of the house of commons, may be sued like an ordinary subject, and in consequence of such suits may be dispossessed of his lands and goods. Likewise, for the benefit of commerce, it is provided, that any trader, having privilege of parliament, may be served with legal process for any just debt, to the amount of 100*l.* and unless he makes satisfaction within two months, it shall be deemed an act of bankruptcy; and that commissions of bankrupt may be issued against such privileged traders, in like manner as against any other.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the court of king's bench and common-pleas, and such of the barons of the exchequer, as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law; as likewise by the masters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal, which dignities are commonly vested in the same person.

Every peer has a right, by leave of the house, as being his own representative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent; which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, however, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from the journals.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Great Britain, impowered to enquire into all national grievances, in order to see them redressed.

The peculiar laws and customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament.

With regard to taxes: it is the antient indisputable privilege and right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons, is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves. And so reasonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power but that of resolving; they will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money bill. Under this appellation are included all bills, by which money is directed

to be raised upon the subject, for any purpose, or in any shape whatsoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish rates, and the like.

The method of making laws is much the same in both houses. In each house the act of the majority binds the whole: and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given: not as at Venice, and many other senatorial assemblies, privately, or by ballot. This latter method may be serviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconstitutional combinations: but is impossible to be practised with us; at least in the house of commons, where every member's conduct is subject to the future censure of his constituents, and therefore should be openly submitted to their inspection.

To bring a bill into the house of commons, if the relief sought by it is of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition; which must be presented by a member, and usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then, (or, otherwise, upon the meer petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house, without any petition. (In the house of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second time; and after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question, whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed. As the bill itself may be either of the readings; and, if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropt for that session; as it must also, if opposed with success in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either selected by the house in matters of small importance, or else, if the bill is a matter of great, or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman) and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees, the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill entirely new modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house reconsider the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house have agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchments sewed together. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and, if a new clause be added,

added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a ryder. The speaker then again opens the contents; and holding it up in his hands, puts the question, whether the bill shall pass. If this is agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and deliver it there; and if the concurrence; who, attended by several more, carries it to the bar of the house of peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, who comes down from his wool-sack to receive it. It then passes through the forms, as in the other house, (except engrossing, which is already done) and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it is agreed to, the lords send a message by two masters in chancery (or, sometimes in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the same: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons do not agree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house; who, for the most part, settle and adjust the difference: but, if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them therewith. The same forms are observed, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the house of lords. But, when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by his majesty, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment. And when both houses have done with any bill, it always is deposited in the house of peers, to wait the royal assent; except in the case of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the house of commons. It may be necessary here to acquaint the reader, that both in the houses, and in their committees, the slightest expression, or most minute alteration, does not pass, till the speaker, or the chairman, puts the question; which, in the house of commons, is answered by *aye* or *no*; and, in the house of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal assent to bills, is a matter of great form. When the king is to pass bills in person, he appears on his throne in the house of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of state and heralds. A seat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly sat, is reserved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood sit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a close bench removed a little backwards. The viscounts and temporal barons, sit on the lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of bishops runs along the house to the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, sit upon wool-packs between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the staple sitting on wool is symbolical of wool being formerly the staple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on solemn occasions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the speaker, who wears a long black silk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal assent may be given two ways: 1. In person. When the king sends for the house of commons to the house of peers, the speaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addresses his majesty in a solemn speech, in which he seldom fails to extol the generosity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majesty how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occasion, that the commons of Great-Britain appear in their highest lustre. The titles of all the bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman-French: a badge, it must be owned, (now the only one remaining) of conquest; and which one could wish to see fall into total oblivion; unless it be reserved as a solemn *memento* to remind us that our liberties are mortal, having once been destroyed by a foreign force. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it so to be;" if to a private bill, *soit fait come il est desire*, "be it as it is desired." If the king refuses his assent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'avisera*, "the king will advise upon it." When a money-bill is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the house of commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed, *le roy remercie ses loyal subjects, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal assent in the first stage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject; *les prelates, seigneurs, et commons, en ce present parliament assemblees, au nom de tous nous autres subjects, remercient tres humblement voire majeste, et prient a Dieu vous donner en sante bone vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords and commons, in this present parliament assembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your majesty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the statute 33 Hen. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his assent by letters patent under his great seal, signed with his hand, and notified, in his absence, to both houses assembled together in the high house, by commissioners consisting of certain peers, named in the letters. And, when the bill has received the royal assent in either of these ways, it is then, and not before, a statute or act of parliament.

This statute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was necessary by the civil law with regard to the emperors edicts: because every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being present thereat by his representatives. However, a copy thereof is usually printed at the king's press, for the information of the whole land.

An act of parliament, thus made, is the exercise of the highest authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind every subject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himself, if particularly named therein. And it cannot be altered, amended, dispensed with, suspended, or repealed, but in the same forms, and by the same authority of parliament: for it is a maxim in law, that it requires the same strength to dissolve, as to create an obligation.

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Such is the parliament of Great-Britain; the source and guardian of our liberties and properties, the strong cement which binds the foundation and superstructure of our government, and the wisely concerted balance maintaining an equal poise, that no one part of the three estates overpowers or distresses either of the other.

From the above general view of the English constitution, it appears that no security for its permanency, which the wit of man can devise, is wanting. If it should be objected, that parliaments may become so corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the answer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are supposed to watch over their political existence, as a private person does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it must become *seho de se*, an evil that no human provisions can guard against. But there are still such resources of liberty in England, that no such fatal effect is now to be apprehended; and though the constitution has been even overturned, and sometimes dangerously wounded, yet, its own innate powers have recovered and still preserve it. Mons. Mezeray, the famous historian, said to a countryman of ours, in the close of the last century, "We had once in France the same happiness and the same privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by representatives of our own churchings, therefore our money was not taken from us; but granted by us.* Our kings were then subject to the rules of law and reason—now, alas! we are miserable, and all is lost. Think nothing, Sir, too dear to maintain these precious advantages: if ever there should be occasion, venture your life and estate rather than basely and foolishly submit to that abject condition to which you see us reduced."—

The king of England, besides his high court of parliament, has subordinate chancellors and ministers to assist him, and who are responsible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and on taking the necessary oaths, they become immediately privy-counsellors, during the life of the king that chooses them; but subject to removal at his direction.

The duty of a privy-counsellor appears from the oath of office, which consists of seven articles: 1. To advise the king according to the best of his cunning and discretion. 2. To advise for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, meed, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counsel secret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and strengthen the execution of what shall be here resolved. 6. To withstand all persons who would attempt the contrary. And, lastly, in general, 7. To observe, keep, and do all that a good and true counsellor ought to do to his sovereign lord.

As no government can be so complete as to be provided with laws that may answer every unforeseen emergency, the privy-council, in such cases, can supply the deficiency. It has even been known, that upon great and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, they can supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not sitting; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned.

Among the privy-counsellors, the two secretaries of state are more official, so than the others, as they are entrusted with the king's signet, and are supposed to advise him in acts of government that may not be proper to be communicated even to a privy-counsellor; such as giving

orders for secret expeditions, correspondence with spies or other agents, securing traitors, and the like. The secretaryship of state is now held by two noblemen or gentlemen; formerly the king nominated three, but the office was not then of that consequence which it is now. Since the accession of the family of Hanover, we have likewise known three principal secretaries of state; but one of them was supposed to transact the affairs of Scotland, which are now committed to other ministers. Upon the vast encrease of the British colonies, a new board of trade was erected, and the first commissioner acts as secretary for the American affairs, but without that title. Till this erection took place, all American dispatches came first to the hands of a principal secretary of state, who corresponded with the American governors, and sent them directions in his majesty's name. The office itself is at present divided into a southern and a northern department. The southern contains France, Spain, Sardinia, Constantinople, Naples, Florence, the Swiss Cantons, Portugal, and, in short, all the states in the southern parts. The northern, comprehends Germany, Hungary, Copenhagen, Poland, Saxony, Prussia, Holland, Russia, the Hanse-towns, the court of Munich, and the diet of Ratisbon; Brussels, the electorate of Cologne, Mentz, Triers, the circle of Westphalia, and Sweden.

With regard to the capital acts of government, which were formerly entrusted with the secretaries of state, a committee of the privy-council, commonly called the cabinet-council, are chiefly entrusted. This cabinet generally consists of a select number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities; but though its operations are powerful and extensive, a cabinet-council is not essential to the constitution of England.

This observation naturally leads me to mention the person who is so well known by the name of the first minister; a term unknown to the English constitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps necessary. The constitution points out the lord high chancellor as minister, but the affairs of his own courts give him sufficient employment. When the office of first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the same person, he is considered as first minister. The truth is, his majesty may make any of his servants his first minister. But though it is no office, yet there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger. I shall now take a short review of the nine great officers of the crown, who by their posts take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The first is the lord high steward of England. This is an office so great, that it is now exercised only occasionally, that is, at a coronation, or to sit judge on a peer or peers, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held, for that day only, by some high nobleman. In cases of trials, it is exercised generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whose commission, as high steward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor presides in the court of chancery, to moderate the severities of the law, in all cases where the property of the subject is concerned; and he proceeds according to the dictates of equity and reason.

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The post of lord high treasurer has of late been vested in a commission, consisting of five persons, who are called lords of the treasury; but the first commissioner is supposed to possess the power of lord high treasurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the Exchequer; as also the letting of the leases of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the customs in the several ports of the kingdom. From this short view of his office, its importance may be easily understood; as he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands, besides the disposal of so great a number of lucrative places, both in England and America, that the bare catalogue of them would exceed the bounds we allot to a long article.

The lord president of the council, was an officer formerly of great power: his duty is to propose all the business transacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majesty is not present, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vast number of American and West-Indian causes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged to the vast conveniency of the subject by an able president.

The office of lord privy seal, consists in his putting the king's seal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are signed by the king, in order to their passing the great seal. The lord privy seal has likewise under his cognizance several other affairs, which do not require the great seal. He is to take care that the crown is not imposed upon in any transaction passing through his hands; and he is responsible if he should apply the privy seal to any thing against the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancafter's family. He attends the king's person, on his coronation, to dress him: he has likewise charge of the house of lords during the sitting of parliament; of sitting up Westminster-hall for coronations, or trials of peers.

The office of lord high constable has been disused since the year 1521; but is occasionally revived for a coronation. It was formerly a place of the highest trust, as it commanded all the king's forts and garrisons, and took place of all officers in the field.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marshal of England. Before England became so commercial a country, as it has been for a hundred years past, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the English history for its discharge. In war time, he was judge of army causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause did not admit of such decision, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a vast variety of ceremonies, the arrangement of which, even to the smallest trifle, fell within the marshal's province. To this day, he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedence according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, funerals, general mournings, and the like. He is supposed to be judge of the Marshalsea-court; and in those reigns where proclamations had the force of law, he had a censorial power in all cases of usurping false names, designations, armorial bearings, and the like; but this power is now disputed, and reduced to a conformity with the common law. As his grace is disqualified by his religion from

the exercise of many parts of his office, some nobleman, generally one of his own friends or family, is deputed to act for him; and he wears, as his badge, a gold baton tipped with ebony.

The office of lord high admiral of England is, now, likewise held by commission, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, especially since the growth of the British naval power. The English admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itself. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commission immediately issuing from that board; and the members must sign even the death warrants for execution: but it may be easily conceived, that as they are removeable at pleasure, they do nothing that can clash with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themselves to the directions they receive from his majesty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its processes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or those of the commissioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at sea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of Chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor sits as sole judge, and in his absence the master of the Rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees, the witnesses being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and consequently, if a man refuses to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reason for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewise belongs to this court, being obliged, or by his deputy, always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he sits for the dispatch of business; through his hands pass all writs for summoning the parliament or choosing of members; commissions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, so called either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects, are here tried; except such affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewise, a kind of cheque upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is stiled lord chief justice of the King's bench, or by way of eminence, lord chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any

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cause depending either in spiritual or temporal courts; and the house of peers does often direct the lord chief justice to issue out his warrant for apprehending persons under the suspicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called justices, or judges, of the king's bench.

The court of common Pleas takes cognizance of all pleas debateable between subject and subject; and in it, beside all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions are likewise issued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The first judge of this court is styled lord chief justice of the common pleas, or common bench; beside whom there are likewise three other judges, or justices, of this court. None but serjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preside as judges. They are styled barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beside these, there is a fifth, called auditor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in administering the oath to sheriffs and their officers, and also to several of the officers of the custom-house.—But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treasurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preside, assisted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined.—Beside the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids and subsidies, &c. except the accounts of the sheriffs and their officers. The lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business it is to make out processses against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, an high-sheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Westmoreland and Cumberland) by the king; whose office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of justice; to impanel juries; to bring causes and malefactors to trial, to see the sentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed. And at the assize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses, and amerciaments, into the Exchequer; or where the king shall appoint, and to make such payments out of them as his majesty shall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the sheriff, or his under-sheriffs, to hear and determine all civil causes in the county under forty shillings; this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the sheriff's turn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court, enquiry was made into all criminal offences against the common law, where by the statute law there was no restraint. This court, however, has been long since abolished.

Under the sheriff are various officers, as the under-sheriff, clerks, stewards of courts, bailiffs, (in London called serjeants) constables, gaolers, headler &c.

The next officer to the sheriff, is the justice of peace, several of whom are commissioned for each county: and to them is entrusted the power of putting great part of the statute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace, and disquiet the king's subjects. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, is summoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to present them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the justices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next assizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-sessions for the county. The justice of peace ought to be a person of great good sense, sagacity, and integrity, and to be not without some knowledge of the law; for as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is so intoxicating, without these qualifications he will be apt to make mistakes, and to step beyond his authority, for which he is liable to be called to an account at the court of king's bench.

Each county contains two coroners, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown.

The civil government of cities is a kind of small independent policy of itself; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in all matters civil and criminal; with this restraint only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Westminster; and all offences that are capital, are committed to the judge of the assize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions. They are constituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeses, who together make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor presides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuse their own sheriffs, and all of them have a power of making bye-laws, for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the English government, by king, lords and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the same manner: in some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs. All which, during their mayoralty, or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their liberties, and consequently enquire.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the soil, or manor (who were formerly called barons), have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet, and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive justice. The business of courts-leet is chiefly to present and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron, the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estates on a descent or purchase.

A constable is a very antient and respectable office of the peace, under the English constitution. Every hundred has a high constable, and every parish in that hundred a constable, and they are to attend the high constable upon occasions. They are assisted by another antient officer, called

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several of the tything man, who formerly superintended the tenth part of a hundred, or ten free burgs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burg consisting of ten families. The business of a constable is to keep the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots. He can imprison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his district, every warrant that is directed to him from that magistrate, or a bench of justices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preservation of the peace, and the more ready recovery of small debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers, and it has of late been found necessary to revive some of them, and to appoint others of a similar nature.

Besides these, there are courts of conscience settled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of small debts, not exceeding forty shillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any constitution provided with so many fences, as that of England is, for the security of personal liberty. Every man imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Westminster-hall, called his Habeas Corpus.

If that judge, after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned, or acquitted, in a proper court of justice.

The rights of individuals are so attentively considered, that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority; he may do this in open court, where the king may be cast, and be obliged to pay damages to his subject. He cannot take away the liberty of the least individual, unless he has, by some illegal act, accused or suspected upon oath, to have forfeited his right to liberty, or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety makes it necessary that he should have the power of confining persons, on a suspicion of guilt: such as that of an act of rebellion within the kingdom, the legislature has thought proper to pass a temporary suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act; but this never has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national safety absolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon, but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty, by twelve men, who must be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his ministers, to misrepresent the case to the jury, they have their salaries for life, and not during the pleasure of their sovereign. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any subject, without trial, and the persons being first chargeable with a capital crime, as treasons, murder, felony, or some other act injurious to society: nor can any subject be deprived of his liberty for the highest crime, till some proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magistrate; and he has then a right to insist upon his being brought, the first opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be restored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alledged to be committed, and not without twelve of them

them agreeing to a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. In some cases, the man (who is always supposed innocent till there is sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is also furnished with the pannel, or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced against him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number*, and to as many more as he can give reason for their not being admitted as his judges; till at last twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accused, or living near the place where the supposed fact was committed, are sworn, to give a true verdict according to the evidence produced in court. By challenging the jury, the prisoner prevents all possibility of bribery, or the influence of any superior power: by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are supposed to be men who knew the prisoner's course of life, and the credit of the evidence. These only are the judges, from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death, and upon their integrity and understanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting, or condemning the prisoner. Every jurymen is therefore invested with a solemn and awful trust: if he without evidence submits his opinion to that of any of the other jury, or yields in complaisance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmost care; if he questions the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or after the most impartial hearing has the least doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the person accused; he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Englishmen consists in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent, whom he wishes to be brought in guilty. Was not this the case, juries would be useless; so far from being judges themselves, they would only be the tools of another, whose province it is not to guide, but to give a sanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the subject, and the judge on the bench be the minister of the prince's vengeance.

These are the glorious privileges which we enjoy above any other nation upon earth. Juries have always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against law, they are a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the instruments of cruelty and oppression. Was it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fullest latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject, says he, let all ways be tried to justify him; and if that is not possible to be done, let him be chastised with greater noise than damage.

* The party may challenge thirty-five in case of treason,

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If it be a subject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that the subject may not get too great a custom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In short, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleased, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy constitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meanest, as well as the greatest. When a prisoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are supposed to be counsel for the prisoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cause of innocence, and to prevent the sufferer from sinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppression of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made use of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuse himself, are here unknown, and none punished without conviction, but he who refuses to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account thereof may be useful to foreigners and others, who have not seen those proceedings.

The court being met, and the prisoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accused, and asks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the prisoner answers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he answers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confessed the fact: for the law of England takes no notice of such confession; and unless the witnesses, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury must acquit him, for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the prisoner refuses to plead, that is, if he will not say in court, whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he is by the law of England to be pressed to death.

When the witnesses have given in their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the evidence given against the prisoner, and bids them discharge their conscience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of court; and the foreman, for himself and the rest, declares the prisoner *guilty*, or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt arises among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up, till they are unanimously agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury should die during this their confinement, the prisoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the prisoner is again set to the bar, to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in some doubtful cases, when the verdict is brought in special, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the prisoner is found guilty, he is then asked what reason he can give why sentence of death should not be passed upon him? There is now no benefit of clergy—it is changed to transportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction the sentence of death, after
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a summary account of the trial, is pronounced on the prisoner, in these words: *The law is, That thou shalt return to the place from whence thou camest, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou shalt hang by the neck, till thy body be dead, and the Lord have mercy on thy soul*: whereupon the sheriff is charged with the execution.

All prisoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and discharged, and in some cases obtain a copy of their indictment from the court to proceed at law against their prosecutors.

[OF PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are esteemed more merciful, with respect to offenders, than those which at present subsist in any other part of the known world; yet the punishment of such who at their trial refuse to plead guilty or not guilty, is here very cruel. In this case the prisoner is laid upon his back, and his arms and legs being stretched out with cords, and a considerable weight laid upon his breast, he is allowed only three morsels of barley bread, which is given him the next day without drink, after which he is allowed nothing but foul water till he expires. This, however, is a punishment which is scarcely inflicted once in an age; but some offenders have chose it to preserve their estates for their children. Those guilty of this crime are not now suffered to undergo such a length of torture, but have so great a weight placed upon them, that they soon expire. In case of high treason, tho' the criminal stands mute, judgment is given against him, as if he had been convicted, and his estate is confiscated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under high treason, petty treason, and felony. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is usually fixed on some conspicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the sentence passed upon all traitors is the same, yet with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally altered to beheading: a scaffold is erected for that purpose, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is struck off with an axe*.

The punishment for misprision of high treason, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and of the profits arising from his lands.

Petty treason is when a child kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. This crime is punished by being drawn in a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till the criminal is dead. Women guilty both of this crime, and of high treason, are sentenced to be burnt alive, but instead of suffering the full rigour of the law, they are strangled at the stake before the fire takes hold of them.

* This is not to be considered as a different punishment; but as a remission of all the parts of the sentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

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Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. These are all punished by hanging, only * murderers are to be executed soon after sentence is passed; and then delivered to the surgeons in order to be publicly dissected. Persons guilty of robbery, when there are some alleviating circumstances, are sometimes transported for a term of years to his majesty's plantations. And in all such felonies where the benefit of the clergy is allowed, as it is in many, the criminal is burnt in the hand with a hot iron.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

Man-slaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this case, the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley, is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is also to be burnt in the hand; unless the offender was doing an unlawful act, which last circumstance makes the punishment death.

Shop-lifting, and receiving goods knowing them to be stolen, are punished with transportation to his majesty's colonies, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping disorderly houses, are punished with the pillory and imprisonment.

Petty-larceny, or small theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is punished by whipping.

Libelling, using false weights and measures, and forestalling the market, are commonly punished with standing on the pillory, or whipping.

For striking, so as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is punished with losing his right hand.

For striking in Westminster-hall, while the courts of justice are sitting, is imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's estate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being set in the stocks, or by paying a fine.

[OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The first private relation of persons is that of marriage; which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of husband and wife; or, as most of our elder law books call them, *baron and feme*. The holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishment therefore, or annulling, of incestuous, or other unscriptural marriages, is the province of spiritual courts.

The first legal disability is a prior marriage, or having another husband or wife living; in which case, besides the penalties consequent upon it as a felony, the second marriage is to all intents and purposes void: polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Testament, and the policy of all prudent states, especially in these northern climates. The second legal disability is want of age. This is sufficient to avoid all other contracts, on account of the imbecillity of judgment in the parties contracting. Therefore if a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age, marries, this marriage is imperfect; and, when either of

* By a late act murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after sentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, so that they obtain a respite till Monday.

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them comes to the age of consent aforesaid, they may disagree, and declare the marriage void, without any divorce or sentence in the spiritual court. This is founded on the civil law. But the canon law pays a greater regard to the constitution, than the age of the parties: for if they are *habiles ad matrimonium*, it is a good marriage, whatever their age may be. And in our law it is so far a marriage, that if at the age of consent they agree to continue together, they need not be married again. If the husband be of years of discretion, and the wife under twelve, when she comes to years of discretion, he may disagree as well as she may; for in contract, the obligation must be mutual; both must be bound, or neither; and so it is, *vice versa*, when the wife is of years of discretion, and the husband under.

Another incapacity arises from want of consent of guardians. By the common law, if the parties themselves were of the age of consent, there wanted no other concurrence to make the marriage valid: and this was agreeable to the canon law. But by several statutes, penalties of 100 l. are laid on every clergyman, who marries a couple either without publication of banns (which may give notice to parents or guardians) or without a licence, to obtain which the consent of parents or guardians must be sworn to. And it has been lately thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns suppose notice) where either of the parties is under twenty-one (not being a widow, or widower, who are supposed free) without the consent of the father, or, if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, shall be absolutely void. A provision is made, as in the civil law, when the mother or guardian is *non compos*, beyond sea, or unreasonably sroward, to dispense with such consent at the discretion of the lord chancellor; but no provision is made, in case the father should labour under any mental, or other incapacity. Much may be, and much has been said, both for and against this innovation upon our ancient laws and constitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandestine marriage of minors, which are often a terrible inconvenience to those private families wherein they happen. On the other hand, restraints upon marriages, especially among the lower class, are evidently detrimental to the public, by hindering the encrease of people; and to religion and morality, by encouraging licentiousness and debauchery, among the single of both sexes; and thereby destroying one end of society and government.

A fourth incapacity is want of reason; without a competent share of which, as no other, so neither can the matrimonial contract, be valid.

Lastly, the parties must not only be willing, and able to contract, but actually must contract themselves in due form of law, to make it a good civil marriage. Verbal contracts are now of no force, to compel a future marriage. Neither is any marriage at present valid, that is not celebrated in some parish church, or public chapel, unless by dispensation from the archbishop of Canterbury. It must also be preceded by publication of banns, or by licence from the spiritual judge. It is held to be also essential to marriage, that it be performed by a person in orders: though in the times of the grand rebellion, all marriages were performed by the justices of the peace; and these marriages were declared valid in the succeeding reign. But, as the law now stands, we may upon the whole collect, that no marriage by the temporal law is void, that is celebrated by a person in orders,—in a parish church, or public chapel (or elsewhere, by a dispensation)—in pursuance of banns or a licence,—between single persons,

persons,—consenting,—of sound mind,—and of the age of twenty-one years;—or of the age of fourteen in male, and twelve in female, with consent of parents or guardians, or without it, in case of widowhood.

There are two kinds of divorce, the one total, the other partial. The total divorce must be for some of the canonical causes of impediment, and those existing before the marriage; as consanguinity, affinity, or corporal imbecillity. The issue of such marriage, as is thus entirely dissolved, are bastards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is just and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of dissolving it; but, for some supervenient cause, it becomes improper, or impossible, for the parties to live together: as in the case of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this case the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years) which is that allowance, which is made to a woman, for her support, out of the husband's estate; being settled at the discretion of the ecclesiastical judge, on consideration of all the circumstances of the case, and the rank and quality of the parties.

Having thus shewn how marriages may be made, or dissolved, I come now, lastly, to speak of the legal consequences of such making, or dissolution.

By marriage, the husband and wife are one person in law; that is, the very being, or legal existence of the woman, is suspended during the marriage, or at least is incorporated and consolidated into that of the husband: under whose wing, protection, and *cover*, she performs every thing, and is therefore called in our law French, a *feme-covert*, under the protection and influence of her husband, her *baron*, or lord; and her condition, during her marriage, is called her *coverture*. Upon this principle, of an union of person in husband and wife, depend almost all the legal rights, duties, and disabilities, that either of them acquire by the marriage. I speak not at present of the rights of property, but of such as are merely *personal*. For this reason a man cannot grant any thing to his wife, or enter into covenant with her; for the grant would be to suppose her separate existence; and the covenant with her, would be only to covenant with himself; and therefore it is generally true, that all compacts made between husband and wife, when single, are voided by the intermarriage. A woman indeed may be attorney for her husband; for that implies no separation from, but is rather a representation of her lord. And a husband may also bequeath any thing to his wife by will; for that cannot take effect till the coverture is determined by his death. The husband is bound to provide his wife with necessaries by law, as much as himself; and if she contracts debts for them, he is obliged to pay them; but, for any thing, besides necessaries, he is not chargeable. Also if a wife elopes, and lives with another man, the husband is not chargeable even for necessaries; at least, if the person who furnishes them, is sufficiently apprized of her elopement. If the wife be indebted before marriage, the husband is bound afterwards to pay the debt; for he has adopted her and her circumstances together. If the wife be injured in her person or property, she can bring no action for redress without her husband's concurrence, and in his name, as well as her own; neither can she be sued, without making the husband a defendant; except when the husband has abjured the realm, or is banished; for then he is dead in law. In criminal prosecutions, it is true, the wife may

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be indicted, and punished separately; for the union is only a civil union. But, in trials of any sort, they are not allowed to be evidences for, or against, each other; partly because it is impossible their testimony should be indifferent; but principally because of the union of person. But where the offence is directly against the person of the wife, this rule has been usually dispensed with; and, therefore, in case a woman be forcibly taken away, and married, she may be a witness against such her husband, in order to convict him of felony.

In the civil law, the husband and the wife are considered as two distinct persons; and may have separate estates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and, therefore, in our ecclesiastical courts, a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband.

But, though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. And in some felonies, and other inferior crimes, committed by her, thro' constraint of her husband, the law excuses her: but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable to entrust him, with this power of restraining her, by domestic chastisement, in the same moderation that a man is allowed to correct his servants or children; for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of the peace against her husband; or, in return, a husband against his wife: yet the lower rank of people, who were always fond of the old common law, still claim and exert their antient privilege; and the courts of law will still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty, in case of any gross misbehaviour.

These are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may observe, that even the disabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the most part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female sex of the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. } The king's ecclesiastical revenue consists in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and cloathing, due to the king from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; but now, I believe, disused. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The first fruits and tenths of benefices. At present, such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that those four branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from

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from the duty on wine licences; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonymous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies; and are granted, as has been before intimated, by the commons of Great-Britain, in parliament assembled: who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the quantity of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to consider of the ways and means of raising the supply so voted. And in this committee every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propose such scheme of taxation as he thinks will be least detrimental to the public. The resolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the house) are in general esteemed to be (as it were) final and conclusive. For, though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, on the credit of a bare vote of the house of commons, though no law be yet passed to establish it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax, or the antient subsidy raised upon a new assessment. 2. The malt tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandize exported or imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The salt duty. 4. The post office, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The stamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houses and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions.

The clear neat produce of these several branches of the revenue, after all charges of collecting and management paid, amounts annually to about seven millions and three quarters sterling; besides two millions and a quarter raised annually, at an average, by the land and malt tax. How these immense sums are appropriated, is next to be considered. And this is, first and principally, to the payment of the interest of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehensive view of the nature of this national debt, it must be first premised, that after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics; the expences of the nation, not only in settling the new establishment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the security of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, settling the Spanish succession, supporting the house of Austria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purposes, increased to an unusual degree: insomuch that it was not thought advisable to raise all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within the year, lest the unaccustomed weight of them should create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the present service of the state, and to lay no more taxes upon the subject

* From the years 1715 to 1763, the annual amount of franked letters gradually increased from 23,000l. to 170,700l.

than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sums so borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. A system which seems to have had its original in the state of Florence, A. D. 1344: which government then owed about 60,000l. sterling: and, being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate sum, called metaphorically a mount or bank: the shares whereof were transferable like our stocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the national debt: for a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deserve that name. And the example then set has been so closely followed, during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and since; that the capital of the national debt (funded and unfunded) amounted, in January 1765, to upward of 145,000,000l. to pay the interest of which, and the charges for management, amounting annually to about four millions and three quarters, the extraordinary revenues just now enumerated (excepting only the land-tax and annual malt-tax) are in the first place mortgaged, and made perpetual by parliament; but still redeemable by the same authority that imposed them: which, if it at any time can pay off the capital, will abolish those taxes which are raised to discharge the interest.

It is indisputably certain, that the present magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greatest inconveniencies. For, first, the enormous taxes that are raised upon the necessaries of life, for the payment of the interest of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures; by raising the price, as well of the artificer's subsistence, as of the raw material; and of course, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itself. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a considerable quantity of specie for the interest; or else it is made an argument to grant them unreasonable privileges, in order to induce them to reside here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to subjects only, it is then charging the active and industrious subject, who pays his share of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Lastly, and principally, it weakens the internal strength of a state, by anticipating those resources which should be reserved to defend it in case of necessity. The interest we now pay for our debts would be nearly sufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require. And if our ancestors in king William's time had annually paid, so long as their exigencies lasted, even a less sum than we now annually raise upon their accounts, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to, and settled upon, their posterity in time of peace; and might have been eased the instant the exigence was over.

The produce of the several taxes before-mentioned were originally separate and distinct funds; being securities for the sums advanced on each several tax, and for them only. But at last it became necessary, in order to avoid confusion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of these separate funds, by uniting and blending them together; superadding the faith of parliament for the general security of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the aggregate fund, and the general fund, so called from such union and addition; and the South Sea fund, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the interest of such part of the national debt as was advanced by that

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company and its annuitants. Whereby the separate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual securities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay such interest or annuities as were formerly charged upon each distinct fund; the faith of the legislature being moreover engaged to supply any casual deficiencies.

The customs, excises, and other taxes, which are to support these funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and consumptions, must necessarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been considerably more than sufficient to answer the charge upon them. The surplusses therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-Sea funds, over and above the interest and annuities charged upon them, are directed by statute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the disposition of parliament; and are usually denominated the sinking fund, because originally designed to sink and lower the national debt. To this have been since added many other intire duties; granted in subsequent years; and the annual interest of the sums borrowed on their respective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the sinking fund. However the neat surplusses and savings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very considerable sum; particularly in the year ending at Christmas 1764, to about two millions and a quarter. For, as the interest on the national debt has been at several times reduced, (by the consent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their interest, or be paid their principal) the savings from the appropriated revenues must needs be extremely large. This sinking fund is the last resort of the nation; its only domestic resource, on which must chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever discharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent application of the large sums, now arising from this fund, is a point of the utmost importance, and well worthy the serious attention of parliament; which was thereby enabled, in the year 1765, to reduce above two millions sterling of the public debt.

But, before any part of the aggregate fund (the surplusses whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the sinking fund) can be applied to diminish the principal of the public debt, it stands mortgaged by parliament to raise an annual sum for the maintenance of the king's household and the civil list. For this purpose, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the excise and customs, the post-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown lands, the profits arising from courts of justice, (which articles include all the hereditary revenues of the crown) and also a clear annuity of 120,000 l. in money, were settled on the king for life; for the support of his majesty's household, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And, as the amount of these several branches was uncertain, (though in the last reign they were computed to have sometimes raised almost a million) if they did not arise annually to 800,000 l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his present majesty having, soon after his accession, spontaneously signified his consent, that his own hereditary revenues might be so disposed of, as might best conduce to the utility and satisfaction of the public; and having graciously accepted the limited sum of 800,000 l. *per annum*, for the support of his civil list, (and that also charged with three life annuities, to the princess of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princess Amelia, to the amount of 77,000 l.) the said hereditary, and other re-

venues, are now carried into, and made a part of, the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown of 800,000*l. per annum*. Hereby the revenues themselves, being put under the same care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected than heretofore; and the public is a gainer of upward of 100,000*l. per annum*, by this disinterested bounty of his majesty. The civil list, thus liquidated, together with the four millions and three quarters, interest of the national debt, and the two millions and a quarter produced from the sinking fund, make up the seven millions and three quarters *per annum*, neat money, which were before stated to be the annual produce of our perpetual taxes: beside the immense, though uncertain sums, arising from the annual taxes on land and malt, but which, at an average, may be calculated at more than two millions and a quarter; and which, added to the preceding sum, make the clear produce of the taxes, exclusive of the charge of collecting, which are raised yearly on the people of this country, amount to upward of ten million sterling.

The expences defrayed by the civil list, are those that in any shape relate to civil government; as the expences of the household, all salaries to officers of state, to the judges, and every of the king's servants; the appointments to foreign ambassadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purse, and other very numerous outgoings; as secret service-money, pensions, and other bounties. These sometimes have so far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpose, that application has been made to parliament, to discharge the debts contracted on the civil list; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpose by the statute 11 Geo. I. c. 17.

The civil list is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own distinct capacity; the rest being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected, and distributed again, in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it now standing in the same place, as the hereditary income did formerly; and, as that has gradually diminished, the parliamentary appointments have encreased.

MILITARY AND MARINE } The military state includes the whole
STRENGTH OF GREAT- } of the soldiery; or, such persons as are
BRITAIN. } peculiarly appointed among the rest of
the people, for the safeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms. In such, no man should take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is because he is a citizen, and would wish to continue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier. The laws, therefore, and constitution of these kingdoms know no such state, as that of a perpetual standing soldier, bred up to no other profession than that of war: and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons.

It seems universally agreed by all historians, that king Alfred first settled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent discipline, made all the subjects of his dominions soldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in case of domestic insurrections, or the prospect of foreign invasions. Beside those, who by their military tenures, were bound

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bound to perform forty days service in the field, the statute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his estate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of such arms as were then in use, in order to keep the peace: and constables were appointed in all hundreds, to see that such arms were provided. These weapons were changed by the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern service; but both this and the former provision were repealed in the reign of James I. While these continued in force, it was usual from time to time, for our princes to issue commissions of array, and send into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muster and array (or set in military order) the inhabitants of every district; and the form of the commission of array was set in parliament in the 5 Hen. IV. But at the same time it was provided, that no man should be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate, nor out of his shire, but in cases of urgent necessity; nor should provide soldiers unless by consent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. and his children, lord lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. tho' they had not been then long in use; for Camden speaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth, as extraordinary magistrates, constituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the restoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were abolished, it was thought proper to ascertain the power of the militia, to recognize the sole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military subordination: and the order in which the militia now stands by law, is principally built upon the statutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two last of them are apparently repealed; but many of their provisions are re-enacted, with the addition of some new regulations, by the present militia laws; the general scheme of which is to discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, chosen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal landholders, under a commission from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of invasion, or actual rebellion, nor in any case compellable to march out of the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times; and their discipline in general is liberal and easy; but, when drawn out into actual service, they are subject to the rigours of martial law, as necessary to keep them in order. This is the constitutional security which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm against foreign or domestic violence; and which the statutes declare, is essentially necessary to the safety and prosperity of the kingdom.

But, as the fashion of keeping standing armies has universally prevailed over all Europe of late years (though some of its potentates, being unable themselves to maintain them, are obliged to have resource to richer powers, and receive subsidiary pensions for that purpose) it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great-Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are however, *ipso facto*, disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by

parliament. The land forces * of these kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, Minorca, and America; but in time of war, there have been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000. The registered militia in England consists of near 200,000. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and establishes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer and soldier shall excite, or join any mutiny, or, knowing of it, shall not give notice to the commanding officer; or shall desert, or lift in any other regiment, or sleep upon his post, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correspondence with a rebel

Rank	Royal Reg. of Horseguards		Dragoons		Foot Guards		Foot	
	F. Pay	Subst.	F. Pay	Subst.	F. Pay	Subst.	F. Pay	Subst.
Colonel and Captain	1	11	15	6	19	10	4	18
Lieutenant Colonel and Captain	9	6	18	6	8	6	17	13
Major and Captain	7	1	6	15	6	18	6	15
Captain	6	1	6	11	6	12	6	11
Captain Lieutenant or Lieutenant	15	11	8	7	10	6	8	7
Corneth. gds & dr. Enf. Reg. Enf. or 2d Lt	14	11	8	6	10	6	8	6
Chaplain	6	5	6	5	8	4	6	5
Adjutant	5	4	6	4	8	3	6	5
Quarter-Master	8	6	6	4	8	3	6	3
Surgeon	6	4	6	4	8	3	6	3
Surgeon's mate	6	4	6	4	8	3	6	3
Drum Major	6	4	6	4	8	3	6	3
Deputy Marshal	6	4	6	4	8	3	6	3
Sergeant	3	2	9	2	10	4	6	8
Corporal	3	2	9	2	10	4	6	8
Drummer	3	2	9	2	10	4	6	8
Trumpeter	3	2	9	2	10	4	6	8
Private Man	2	2	6	1	7	6	8	6
Allowance	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6
Colonel	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6
Do for haubois	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6
on the	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6
Establishment	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6
Agent	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6
per troop	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6
of comp.	4	2	6	2	7	6	8	6

* The land forces consist of
 2 Troops of horse-guards raised in 1660.—2 Troops of horse-grenadier-guards raised in 1693 and 1702.—
 1 Royal regiment of horse-guards, ditto 1661.—4 Regiments of horse-guards, ditto 1685 and 1688.—3 Regi-
 ments of dragoon-guards, ditto 1685.—14 Regiments of dragoons, including light-horse, raised between 1683
 and 1759.—3 Regiments of foot-guards, raised in 1660.—76 Regiments of foot, the first or royal Scots, raised
 in 1663, the others between 1661 and 1762.—8 Independent companies of invalids.

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rebel or enemy, or strike or use violence to his superior officer, or shall disobey his lawful command; such offender shall suffer such punishment as a court martial shall inflict, though it extend to death itself.

Officers and soldiers that have been in the king's service, are by several statutes, enacted, at the close of several wars, at liberty to use any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two universities) notwithstanding any statute, custom or charter to the contrary. And soldiers in actual military service, may make verbal wills, and dispose of their goods, wages, and other personal chattels, without those forms, solemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other cases.

The maritime state is nearly related to the former; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; an army, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty: and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated, even from the earliest ages. To so much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe, as the ground and substruction of all their marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the isle of Oleron, on the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of England. And yet, so vastly inferior were our ancestors in this point, to the present age, that even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boast, that the royal navy of England then consisted of thirty-three ships. The present condition of our marine is in great measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statutes, called the navigation acts; whereby the constant increase of English shipping and seamen, was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably necessary. The most beneficial statute for the trade and commerce of these kingdoms, is that navigation-act, the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650, with a narrow partial view: being intended to mortify the sugar islands, which were disaffected to the parliament, and still held out for Charles II. by stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the same time to clip the wings of those our opulent and aspiring neighbours. This prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother country; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms; or in the ships of that European nation, of which the merchandize imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the restoration, the former provisions were continued, by statute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the master, and three fourths of the mariners shall also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, usually amounts to twelve or fifteen thousand. In time of war, they have amounted to no less than sixty thousand men.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the difference of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral; but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is styled vice-admiral

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ral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and a rear-admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Notwithstanding our favourable situation for a maritime power, it was not until the vast armament sent to subdue this nation by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully sensible of its true interest and natural strength, which it has since so happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm that the British navy, during the late war, was able to cope with all the other fleets in Europe. In the course of a few years it entirely vanquished the whole naval power of France, disabled Spain, and kept the Dutch in awe.

For the protection of the British empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into several powerful squadrons, and so judiciously stationed, that while one fleet was successfully battering walls, hitherto reckoned impregnable, others were employed in frustrating the designs of France, and escorting home the riches of the eastern and western worlds.

Many laws have been made for the supply of the royal navy with seamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them, during, and after their service.

1. For their supply. The power of impressing men, for the sea-service, by the king's commission, has been a matter of some dispute, and submitted to with great reluctance; though it hath very clearly and learnedly been shewn by Sir Michael Foster, that the practice of impressing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpose, is of very ancient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular series of precedents to the present time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty arises from hence, that no statute, or act of parliament, has expressly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very strongly imply it.

But besides this method of impressing, (which is only defensible from public necessity, to which all private considerations must give way) there are other ways that tend to the increase of seamen, and manning the royal navy, great advantages in point of wages are given to volunteer seamen, in order to induce them to enter into his majesty's service; and every foreign seaman, who, during a war shall serve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipso facto*.

2. The method of ordering seamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular discipline there, is directed by certain express rules, articles, and orders, first enacted by the authority of parliament, soon after the restoration; but since new modelled and altered, after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, to remedy some defects which were of fatal consequence in conducting the preceding war. In these articles of the navy, almost every possible offence is set down, and the punishment thereof annexed, in which respect the seamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land service; whose articles of war are not enacted by parliament; but framed from time to time at the pleasure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on sailors, they are pretty much the same with those conferred on soldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed, or wounded, or superannuated, either by county rates, or the royal hospital at Greenwich; with regard also to the exercise of trades, and the power of making testaments; and, farther, no seaman aboard his majesty's ships can be arrested for any debt, unless the same

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50 Neptune

50 Ocean

50 Prince

50 Princess

50 Royal W

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50 Union

THIRD R

61 Africa

61 Alcide

71 Arrogan

61 Bedford

61 Bellique

71 Bellona

61 Belleisle

61 Bienfais

72 Bucking

70 Burford

80 Cambric

64 Captain

74 Centaur

be sworn to amount to at least twenty pounds; though by the annual military act, a soldier may be arrested for a debt which extends to half that value, but not to less amount.

I shall close this account of the military and maritime strength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by observing, that though sea officers and sailors, are subject to a perpetual act of parliament, which answers the annual military act, which is passed for the government of the army, yet neither of those bodies are exempted from legal jurisdiction in civil or criminal cases, but in a few instances of no great moment. The soldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magistrate, to enable him to preserve the peace, against all attempts to break it. The military officer, who commands the soldiers on those occasions, is to take his directions from the magistrate, and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified against all consequences, be they ever so fatal. The civil magistrate, however, is extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, upon any commotion, whatever*.

COINS.]

The Royal Navy of GREAT BRITAIN, as it stood at the close of the Year 1762.

N. B. Those in *Italics* were taken from the French or Spaniards.

FIRST RATES.

Guns	70 Chichester
100 Britannia	74 Cornwall
100 Royal George	74 Culloden
100 R. Sovereign	64 Defiance
	66 Devonshire
	70 Dorsetshire

SECOND RATES.

90 Blenheim	74 Dragon
50 Duke	74 Dublin
50 St. George	64 Elizabeth
50 Namur	64 Essex
50 Neptune	74 Fame
50 Ocean	80 Foudroyant
50 Prince	70 Grafton
50 Princess Royal	64 Hampton-Court
50 Royal William	74 Hercules
50 Sandwich	74 Hero
50 Union	74 Kent
	74 Lenox
	74 Magnanime
	68 Marlborough

THIRD RATES.

64 Africa	74 Mars
64 Alcide	64 Meduse
74 Arogant	64 Monmouth
64 Bedford	64 Nassau
64 Belliqueux	80 Newark
74 Bellona	74 Norfolk
64 Belleisle	70 Northumberland
64 Bienfaisant	70 Orford
70 Buckingham	64 Pr. Frederick
70 Burford	80 Princess Amelia
80 Cambridge	60 Princess Mary
64 Captain	64 Revenge
74 Centaur	74 Shrewsbury
	70 Somerset
	74 Sterling-Castle

Guns

74 Superb
70 Swiftsure
74 Temeraire
70 Temple
74 Terrible
74 Thunderer
74 Torbay
64 Trident
74 Valiant
70 Vanguard
74 Warpight

FOURTH RATES.

50 Achilles
60 America
60 Anson
50 Antelope
50 Assistance
50 Centurion
50 Chatham
50 Chester
Dreadnought
50 Deptford
60 Dunkirk
60 Edgar
50 Falkland
50 Falmouth
60 Firme
60 Florentine
50 Guernsey
50 Hampshire
60 Jersey
60 Intrepid
50 Isis

Guns

60 Lion
60 Medway
60 Montague
50 Norwich
60 Nottingham
50 Oriflame
60 Panther
60 Pembroke
50 Portland
50 Preston
60 Prince of Orange
60 Rippon
50 Romney
50 Rochester
50 Salisbury
50 Sutherland
60 Weymouth
50 Winchester
60 Windsor
60 York

FIFTH RATES.

32 Adventure
32 Alarm
32 Arebusa
32 Aeolus
32 Bologna
32 Boston
32 Blonde
36 Brilliant
32 Crescent
38 Danae
32 Dinnae
44 Dover

42 Emerald

COINS.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, shilling, and pence, twelve pence making a shilling, and twenty shillings one pound, which is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces consist only of guineas, halves, and quarters: the silver, of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, sixpences, groats, and even down to a silver penny; and the copper money, only of half-pence, and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinsic value of the silver is very near equal, and in some coins, crown pieces particularly, superior to the nominal; the coinage of silver money is a matter of great consequence, and yet the present state of the national currency, seems to demand a new coinage of shillings and six-pences, the intrinsic value of the latter being many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by

- Guns.
- 32 Emerald
 - 44 Enterprize
 - 32 Flora
 - 44 Gosport
 - 32 Juno
 - 32 Lark
 - 44 Launceston
 - 30 Looe
 - 44 Lynn
 - 36 Melampus
 - 32 Minerva
 - 32 Montreal
 - 32 Niger
 - 36 Pallas
 - 44 Penzance
 - 44 Phoenix
 - 44 Prince Edw.
 - 32 Quebec
 - 44 Rainbow
 - 36 Renown
 - 32 Repulse
 - 32 Richmond
 - 32 Sapphire
 - 32 Southampton
 - 32 Stagg
 - 32 Thames
 - 32 Thebis
 - 30 Torrington
 - 32 Twced
 - 36 Venus
 - 32 Vesta
 - 44 Woolwich

SIXTH RATES.

- 28 Acteon
- 28 Active
- 20 Aldborough
- 24 Amazon
- 28 Aquilon
- 28 Argo
- 24 Arundel
- 28 Boreas
- 28 Cerberus
- 24 Coventry

- Guns.
- 20 Deal-Castle
 - 24 Dolphin
 - 24 Echo
 - 20 Flamborough
 - 24 Fowey
 - 24 Garland
 - 20 Gibraltar
 - 20 Glasgow
 - 20 Greyhound
 - 24 Hind
 - 24 Kennington
 - 28 Levant
 - 24 Lively
 - 28 Liverpool
 - 28 Lizard
 - 24 Ludlow-Castle
 - 28 Maidstone
 - 24 Mercury
 - 28 Milford
 - 24 Nightingale
 - 24 Portmahon
 - 20 Rose
 - 24 Rye
 - 20 Scarborough
 - 20 Seaford
 - 20 Seahorse
 - 28 Shannon
 - 24 Sheerness
 - 24 Solebay
 - 20 Syren
 - 24 Surprize
 - 28 Tartar
 - 24 Terpsichore
 - 28 Trent
 - 28 Valeur
 - 28 Unicorn
 - 24 Wager

SLOOPS.

- 14 Albany
- 10 Alderney
- 10 Antigua
- 12 Badger
- 16 Baltimore

- Guns.
- 10 Barbadoes
 - 10 Bonetta
 - 8 Cruzier
 - 18 Cygnet
 - 10 Diligence
 - 14 Dispatch
 - 10 Druid
 - 14 Escorte
 - 16 Favourite
 - 18 Ferret
 - 8 Flambro's Prize.
 - 8 Fly
 - 14 Fortune
 - 14 Grampus
 - 10 Granado
 - 8 Goree
 - 8 Happy
 - 8 Hazard
 - 14 Hornet
 - 14 Hound
 - 10 Hunter
 - 14 Jamaica
 - 10 King's Fisher
 - 8 Laurel
 - 6 Lurcher
 - 18 Merlin
 - 16 Mortar
 - 18 Nautilus
 - 8 Peggy
 - 10 Pomona
 - 10 Otter
 - 14 Pelican
 - 14 Porcupine
 - 18 Postillion
 - 8 Ranger
 - 8 Racehorse
 - 14 Saltash
 - 8 Savage
 - 14 Senegal
 - 14 Sardome
 - 8 Speedwell
 - 10 Spy
 - 14 Swallow
 - 14 Swift
 - 14 Swan

- Guns.
- 16 Tamer
 - 3 Terror
 - 10 Thunder
 - 14 Trial
 - 14 Vulture
 - 8 Wasp
 - 16 Weazle
 - 8 Wolf
 - 10 Zephir

BOMB VESSELS.

- Basilisk
- Blast
- Carcass
- Firedrake
- Furnace
- Infernal

FIRE-SH. NO GUNS.

- Ætna
- Cormorant
- Grampus
- Lightning
- Pluto
- Raven
- Roman Emperor
- Proserpine
- Salamander
- Strombolo
- Vefuvius

YACHTS.

- 10 Dorset
- 8 Fubbs
- 8 Katharine
- Augusta

STORESHIPS.

- 20 Crown
- 24 South-Sea-Castle.

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3	74
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4	60

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by an act of parliament, and by the public losing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Besides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but they are not generally current, nor is any silver coin that is lower than six-pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The antiquities of England
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } are either British, Roman, Sax-
 on, or Danish, and Anglo Normannic, but these, excepting the Roman, throw

Ships out of Commission and building.

Rates.	Guns.	Names.	Rates.	Guns.	Names.	Rates.	Guns.	Names.
3	74	Albion.	5	44	Eltham	3	84	Ramilles
3	64	Asia	5	44	Expedition	3	64	Royal Oak
4	60	Augusta	3	80	Formidable	4	60	Rupert
5	44	Anglesea	4	50	Gloucester	4	50	Ruby
5	32	Aurora	5	44	Glory			R. Charlotte
2	90	Barfleur	6	28	Guadalupe			Yacht
		Ditto, a new ship	5	44	Hastings	3	64	Suffolk
3	80	Boyne	5	44	Hector	4	60	St. Alban's
4	50	Bristol	5	30	Jafon	6	24	Sphinx
6	24	Blandford	2	90	London	3	74	Triumph
	90	Blenheim	5	44	Mary Galley		28	Vengeance
		Hospital-ship			Martin Sloop		10	Viper
3	74	Canada			Mary Yacht	1	100	Victory
4	60	Canterbury	3	74	Monarch			Vulture Sloop
3	74	Courageux	4	50	Nonfuch	4		Warwick
4	50	Colchester	3	80	Pr. Carolina	5		Winchelsea
3	74	Defiance	4	60	Pr. Louisa	4	60	Worcester
6	24	Experiment	4	60	Plymouth			William and
4	60	Eagle	5	44	Poole			Mary Yacht
3	64	Edinburgh	1	90	Queen	3	64	Yarmouth
4	60	Exeter	1	100	Royal Anne			

Complement of Men, and Weight of Metal, in the Royal Navy.

Ships of three Decks.			Ships of two Decks.			Frigates of one Deck.		
Guns.	Men.	Metal.	Guns.	Men.	Metal.	Guns.	Men.	Metal.
100	850	42 24 12 6	60	420	24 12 6	36	240	12 6
90	750	32 18 12 6	60	400	24 9 6	32	220	12 6
80	600	32 18 9 6	50	350	24 12 6	28	200	9 4
			44	40	18 9 6	20	160	9 4
80	74 650	32 18 9						
70	520	32 18 9						
68	Ditto							
66	Ditto							
64	480	24 12 6						

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.
Admiral 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 ditto, 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

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 sacred worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, 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 top by over-thwart stones, with tendons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due 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 a chissel, and something tapered; but the transoms, 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

OFFICERS.	First.		Second		Third		Fourth		Fifth		Sixth	
	<i>l.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
Captain <i>per day</i>	1	0 0	0	16 0	0	13 6	0	10 0	0	3 0	0	8 0
Lieutenant <i>per day</i>	0	5 0	0	5 0	0	4 0	0	4 0	0	4 0	0	4 0
Master <i>per month</i>	9	2 0	8	8 0	7	6 0	6	12 0	6	2 8	5	0 0
2d master & pilots of yachts each 3/ 10s												
Master's mate	3	6 0	3	0 0	2	16 2	2	7 10	2	2 0	2	2 0
Midshipman	2	5 0	2	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9	1	10 0	1	10 0
Schoolmaster	0	0 0	0	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9	1	10 0		
Captain's clerke	2	5 0	2	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9				
Quarter-master	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Quar. master's mate	1	10 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	5 0
Boatswain	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Boatswain's mate	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Yeoman of the sheets	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	6 0
Coxswain	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	6 0
Master sail maker	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	14 0	1	12 0	1	10 0
Sail maker's mate	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0
Sail maker's crew	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0
* Gunner	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Gunner's mate	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Yeo. of powder room	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Quarter gunner *	1	6 0	1	6 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0
Armourer	2	5 0	2	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9	1	10 0	1	10 0
Armourer's mate	1	10 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	5 0
Gunsmith	1	5 0	1	5 0								
Carpenter	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Carpenter's mate	2	0 0	2	0 0	1	16 0	1	14 0	1	12 0	1	10 0
Carpenter's crew	1	6 0	1	6 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0
Purser	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Steward	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	3 4	1	0 8	1	0 0
Steward's mate	1	0 8	1	0 8	1	0 8	1	0 8	1	0 8	1	0 0
Cook	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	4 0
Surgeon †	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0
Surgeon's first mate	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0
— second mate	2	10 0	2	10 0	2	10 0	2	10 0	2	10 0		
— third mate	2	0 0	2	0 0	2	0 0						
— fourth and fifth	1	10 0	1	10 0	1	10 0						
Chaplain ‡	0	19 0	0	19 0	0	19 0	0	19 0				

* One to every four guns.

† Besides 2d. a month from each man.

‡ Besides 4d. a month from each man.

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has a surprizing and awful effect on the beholders. After all the descriptions of, and dissertations upon, this celebrated antiquity, by ingenious writers, it is not to be denied, that it has given rise to many extravagant ridiculous conjectures, from the time of Leland, who has been very particular on the subject, down to Stukeley, who, on a favourite point of antiquity, sometimes formed the most enthusiastic conjectures. The barrows that are near this monument, were certainly graves of persons of both sexes, eminent in peace or war, some of them having been opened, and bones, arms and antient trinkets, found within them.

Monuments of the same kind as that of Stonehenge, are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the isles, which have been already mentioned.

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; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunstable, Stratford, Towcester, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's hill near Shrewsbury, then by Stratton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermen-freet, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pomfret to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-freet. There would however be no end of describing the vestiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which serve as foundations to our present highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a noble plan for describing those which pass through Suffex and Surry towards London, but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe, that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England, though it is certain from the baths and tesserated pavements, that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers and magistrates, lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewise been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles, are blended with those of a later date, and it is difficult for the most expert architect to pronounce that some halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen, and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulae, trinkets, and the like, that have been found in England, but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the pratenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Piet's wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Thimouth, and ending at Solway Frith, 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 turrets, 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

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1	4	0
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3	0	0

military high way to the fourth. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to strike the Scotch 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 public expence. A critical account of the Roman antiquities in England, is among the desiderata of history, but perhaps it is too great a design for any one man to execute, as it cannot be done without visiting every place, and every object in person.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. At Winchester is shewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Cambden, and later writers, perhaps with reason, but if it is not British, it certainly is Saxon. 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. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity, present themselves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be discerned from the Norman; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters 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 cross. The Danish erections in England, are hardly discernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps are round, and generally built upon eminences, but their forts are square.

All England is full of Anglo Normannic monuments, which I chuse to call so, because, though the princes, under whom they were raised, were of Norman original, yet the expence was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. York-minster, 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. In short, those erections are so common, that they scarcely deserve the name of curiosities. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in some parts of England, are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Ryegate in Surry, is very remarkable, and seems to have been designed for secreting the cattle and effects of the natives; in times of war and invasion. It contains an oblong square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and tradition says, that it was the room in which the barons of England met, during their wars with king John. The rock itself is soft, and very practicable; but it is hard to say, where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage, about six feet high, and four wide, terminates, because the work is fallen in in some places.

The natural curiosities of England are so various, that I 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 salubrious qualities.

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England however is not singular in its medicinal waters, though in some countries the discovering and examining them is scarce worth while. In England, a well frequented well or spring, is a certain estate to its proprietor. The most remarkable of these wells have been divided into those for bathing, and those for purging. The chief of the former lie in Somersetsshire; 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; Epfom and Dulwich in Surry; Acton and Illington in Middlesex. Here also are many remarkable springs; whereof some are impregnated either with salt, as that at Droitwich in Worcester; 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. And finally, 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 Bone-well, 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 emits so fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid 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 Elden 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 eight hundred and eighty-four yards of line after it, whereof the last eighty 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, re-echoed 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 amusing 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, which is from its hideousness, named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and afterwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who seem in a great measure to subsist 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, which is particularly beautiful, by being chequered by various coloured stones. These are the most celebrated natural excavations in England, where they

they are beheld with great wonder, but are nothing comparable to those that exist in Germany, and other parts, both of Europe and Asia.

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 broke, 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, in other countries, would, as such, make but a poor appearance, and even in England they are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

UNIVERSITIES.] I have already mentioned the two universities of Cambridge and Oxford, which have been the seminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and some have ventured to say, than all other literary institutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which of late years, 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, 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 ever 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, besides five halls, that are not endowed, and where the students maintain themselves. The colleges of Oxford are University, founded as some say by Alfred the Great. Baliol, founded by John Baliol, king of Scots, in 1262. Merton, founded by Walter of Merton, bishop of Rochester, and high chancellor of England, in 1267. Exeter, founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter, and lord treasurer of England. Oriel, founded by Edward II. in the year 1324. Queen's, founded by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to queen Philippa, consort to Edward III. in her honour. New college, founded in 1386, by William of Wickham, bishop of Winchester, but finished by Thomas de Rotheram, archbishop of York, and lord high chancellor, in the year 1475. All Souls, founded by Henry Chicheley, archbishop of Canterbury, in 1437. Magdalen, was founded by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, bishop of Winchester, and lord chancellor, in the year 1458. Brazen Nose, founded in 1509, by William Smith, bishop of Lincoln. Corpus Christi, founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester. Christ Church, founded by cardinal Wolfey, in 1515, but completed by others, and is now the cathedral of the diocese. Trinity, founded by Sir Thomas Pope, soon after the reformation. St. John Baptist was founded in 1555, by Sir Thomas White, lord mayor of London. Jesus, was begun by Hugh Price, prebendary of Rochester, and appropriated to the Welch Wadham, so called from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of Somersetshire, Esq. It was begun by him in the year 1609, but finished after his death, by his lady, in 1613. Pembroke, so called in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord high chancellor, was founded by Thomas Tesdale, Esq; Richard Wrightwick, B. D. in 1624. Worcester, was erected into a college, by Sir Thomas Cooke of Atley, in Worcester-shire.

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To these nineteen may be added Hertford college, formerly Hart-hall: but a patent having passed the great seal in the year 1740, for erecting it into a college, that design is now carrying into execution.

The five halls are these following: Alban hall, Edmund hall, St. Mary's hall, New-inn hall, and St. Mary Magdalen hall.

The colleges of Cambridge are Peter-house, founded by Hugh Balam, prior of Ely, in 1257, who was afterwards bishop of that see. Clare hall, founded in 1340, by a benefaction of lady Elizabeth Clare, countess of Alford. Pembroke hall, founded seven years after, by a countess of Pembroke. St. Bennet's, or Corpus Christi, founded about the same time, by the united guilds, or fraternities of Corpus Christi, and the Blessed Virgin. Trinity hall, founded by Bateman, bishop of Norwich, about the year 1548. Gonvil and Caius, founded by Edmund de Gonvil in 1348, completed by bishop Bateman, and additionally endowed two hundred years after, by John Caius, a physician. King's college, founded by Henry VI. and completed by his successors. Queen's college, was founded by the same king's consort, but finished by Elizabeth, wife to Edward IV. Catherine hall, founded by Richard Woodlark in 1475. Jesus college, founded by John Alcock, bishop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII. Christ college was founded about the same time, by that king's mother, Margaret, countess of Richmond. St. John's college was founded by the same lady. Magdalen college was founded by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, in the reign of Henry VIII. Trinity college, was founded by Henry VIII. Emanuel college, by Sir Walter Mildmay, in 1584. Sidney college was founded by Thomas Ratcliff, earl of Suffex, in 1588, and had its name from his wife Frances Sidney.

[ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] To the following list, I have subjoined the sum each see is charged in the king's books; for though that sum is far from being the real annual value of the see, yet it assists in forming a comparative estimate between the revenues of each see with those of another.

Archbishoprics, Canterbury, 2632 : 12 : 2. York, 1640 : 0 : 0.
 Bishoprics, London, 1000. Durham, 1821 : 1 : 3. Winchester, 1873 : 18 : 1. Those three bishoprics take precedence of all others in England, and the others according to the seniority of their consecrations. Ely, 2134 : 18 : 6. Bath and Wells, 533 : 1 : 3. Hereford, 68 : 11 : 0. Rochester, 358 : 4 : 0. Litchfield and Coventry, 559 : 17 : 3. Chester, 420 : 1 : 8. Worcester, 929 : 13 : 3. Chichester, 677 : 1 : 3. St. Asaph, 187 : 11 : 8. Salisbury, 1385 : 5 : 9. Bangor, 131 : 16 : 3. Norwich, 834 : 11 : 7. Gloucester, 315 : 7 : 3. Landaff, 144 : 14 : 2. Lincoln, 82 : 4 : 9. Bristol, 294 : 11 : 0. Carlisle, 531 : 4 : 9. Exeter, 500. Peterborough, 414 : 17 : 8. Oxford, 381 : 11 : 0. David's, 426 : 2 : 1. The bishop of Sodor and Man does not sit in the house of peers.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, } The title of the king of England, is,
 AND ORDERS. } By the Grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The designation of the kings of England, was formerly his or her Grace, or Highness, till Henry VIII. to put himself on a footing with the emperor Charles V. assumed that of majesty, but the old designation was not abolished, till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

Since the accession of the present royal family of Great-Britain, anno 1714, the royal atchievement is marshalled as follows: quarterly, in the first grand quarter, *Mars, three lions passant guardant, in pale, Sol*, the imperial ensigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double tressure flowered and counterflowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars*. The second quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol*. The third, the ensigns of Ireland; which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed Luna*. And the fourth grand quarter is his present majesty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions passant guardant, Sol*, for Brunswick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, *Sol, semée of hearts, proper, a lion, rampant, Jupiter*, having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horse courant Luna ente* (or grafted) *in base*; and, *in a shield surmount, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who assumed it to shew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almost every king of England had a particular badge or cognizance: sometimes a white hart, sometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is said Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his mistresses, and sometimes a portcullis, which was that of the house of Lancaster; many of the princes of which were born in the castle of Beaufort. The white rose was the bearing of the house of York, and that of Lancaster, by way of contra-distinction adopted the red. The thistle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very significant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune lacessit*. None shall safely provoke me. The titles of the king's eldest son are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothsay, earl of Chester, electoral prince of Brunswick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the isles, great steward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company. The order of the garter, the most honourable of any in the world, was instituted by Edward III. It consists of the sovereign, who is always the king or queen of England, of twenty-five companions, called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, supposed to be the tutelary saint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, suspended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but now crosses their bodies from the shoulder. The garter, however, which is buckled under the left knee, gives the name to the order, and on it was embroidered the words, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*. Evil to him who evil thinks. Authors are divided as to the original of that motto, but it certainly alluded to the bad faith of the French king John, Edward's contemporary. This order is so respectable, that it has a prelate, who is the bishop of Winchester, and a chancellor, who is the bishop of Salisbury, for the time being. It has likewise a register, who is dean of Windsor, and a principal king at arms, called garter, whose office is to marshal and manage the solemnities at the installation, and feasts of the knights. The place of installation is Edward III.'s chapel, at Windsor, on which occasion the knights appear in magnificent robes, appropriated to their order, and in their collars of SS.

Knights of the Bath, so called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are supposed to have been instituted by Henry IV. about the

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year 1399, but the order seems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, on other solemn occasions, and they wear a scarlet ribband hanging from the left shoulder, with an enamelled medal of three crowns, and the motto; *Tria juncta in uno*. Three joined in one. This order being discontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 17th of June, 1725, when eighteen noblemen; and as many commoners of the first rank, were installed knights of the order, with great ceremony, at Westminster, where the place of installment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are splendid and shewy, and the number of the knights is undetermined. The bishop of Rochester is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewise a register and other officers.

Baronets can scarce be said to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counsellors, there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were instituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000 l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulster in Ireland: but, at present, the number of these knights amount to seven hundred.

A knight is a term used almost in every nation in Europe, and in general signifies a soldier serving on horseback, a rank of no mean estimation in ancient armies, and entitling the party himself to the appellation of Sir. In the common laws they are called milites or soldiers, and they are made by the king laying a sword upon their shoulders, and desiring them to rise by the title of Sir. It is a mark of personal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not descend to posterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England, such as those of bannerets, batchelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now disused.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the original of the word esquire, which formerly signified a person bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at present applied promiscuously to any man, who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade, and even a tradesman, if he is a justice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, so late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck, a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of silver spurs. Gower the poet, appears from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an esquire by creation. Serjeants-at-law, and other serjeants belonging to the king's household, justices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law and physic, take place of other esquires, and it is remarkable, that all the sons of dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law, no more than esquires, though commonly designed by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, tho' now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all English honour, for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND }
 OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC }
 AND PRIVATE. }

This head is so very extensive, that I can only touch upon objects that can assist in giving the reader some idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

* London 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 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 bishop of London was 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, is the metropolis of Great Britain, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, it is a city of a very surprizing 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.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river, which, though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce of any in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks being from London-bridge to Blackwall, almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, thirty-two dry docks, and thirty-three yards for the building of ships, for the use of the merchants, beside the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards lower down the river for building 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 surprized 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 twenty 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 the 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 other two; and in other again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost eighteen miles. But it is much easier to form an idea of the large extent of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, who

* London is situated in 51° 30' north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 200 north-west of Paris, 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, 300 north-east of Madrid, 850 north-east of Lisbon, and 820 north-west of Rome.

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are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion.

Of these, beside St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Westminster, there are 102 parish-churches, and 69 chapels of the established religion; 21 French protestant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 33 baptist meetings; 26 independent meetings; 28 presbyterian meetings; 19 popish chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors, and people of various sects; and 3 Jews synagogues. So that there are 326 places devoted to religious worship, in the compass of this vast pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-parishes, usually included within the bills of mortality.

There are also in and near this city 100 alms-houses, about twenty 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, beside those within any 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 ale-houses; 800 hackney coaches, 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 130,000 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, about			—	—	—	5,000,000
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 19 stone arches, 20 feet between each; it is 900 feet long, 30 wide, and 60 feet high; and has a draw-bridge in the middle. The Thames in this part is 915 feet broad.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most compleat 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 footway for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large, and two small arches, that in the center 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 built in 11 years and nine months, and cost about 389,500*l.*

The bridge building at Black-friars, falls nothing short of that of Westminster, either in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores, obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however have a very fine effect; and many unqueſtional judges, prefer it to Westminster-bridge. Black-friars-bridge is building at the expence of the city of London, which being near the center of this metropolis, will be of the utmost convenience to town and country.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world. The length within is five hundred feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross, on the top of the cupola, is three hundred and forty. 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 thirty-seven 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, 4000*l.* a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inside of the church of St. Stephen's Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the steeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for such erections. Few churches in or about London are without some beauty. The simplicity of the portico in Covent Garden is worthy the purest ages of antient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and striking, could it be seen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste, and even some of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them. 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.

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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, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the finest of its kind that can be seen. Here is 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, shewing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument amounted to upward of 13,000*l*.

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

We might here give a description of the Tower †, Bank of England, the New-treasury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horse-guards at Whitehall,

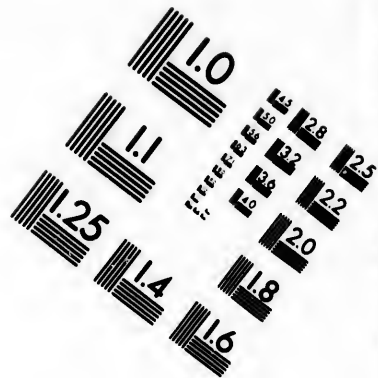
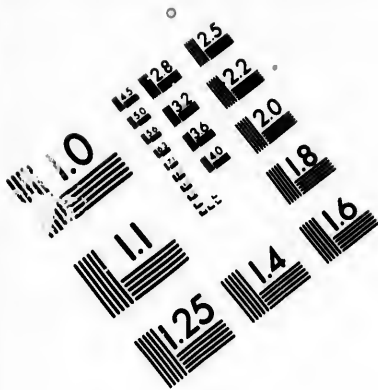
* It is erected very near the spot where the fire broke out in 1666.

† 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 four-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.

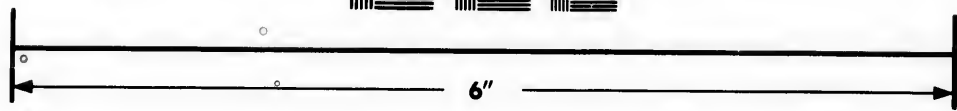
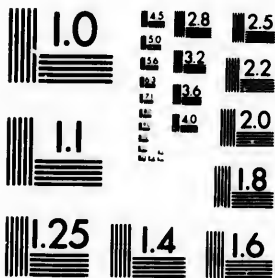
The next place worthy of observation is the Mint, which comprehends near one-third of the Tower, and contains houses for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On passing the principal gate you see the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, square, irregular stone building, situated almost in the center, no one side answering to another, nor are any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built 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, pick-axes, and cheveaux de frize. In the upper story, are kept match, sheep-skins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little room, called Julius Caesar'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 south-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 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. It was begun by





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hall, the Mews, where the king's horses are kept; the Mansion-house of the lord mayor, the Custom-house, India-house, and a vast number of other

King James II. who built it to the first floor; but it was finished by King William III. who erected that magnificent room called the New, or Small Armoury, in which that prince, with Queen Mary, his consort, dined in great form, having all the warrint workmen and labourers to attend them, dressed in white gloves and aprons, the usual badges of the order of masonry. To this noble room you are led by a tolling door, adjoining to the east end of the Tower chapel, which leads to a grand staircase of 50 easy steps. On the left side of the uppermost landing-place is the work-shop, in which are constantly employed about fourteen turfbishers, 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, sixteen chests shut up, each chest holding about 1,200 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.

Upon the ground floor under the small armoury, is a large room of equal dimensions with that, supported by 20 pillars, all hung round with implements of war. This room, which is 24 feet high, has a passage in the middle 16 feet wide. At the sight of such a variety of the most dreadful engines of destruction, before whose thunder the most superb edifices, the noblest works of art, and number of the human species, fell together in one common and undistinguished ruin; one cannot help wishing that those horrible inventions had still lain, like a false conception, in the womb of nature, never to have been ripened into birth.

The horse armoury is a plain brick building, a little to the eastward of the White Tower; and is an edifice rather convenient than elegant, where the spectator is entertained with a representation of those kings and heroes of our own nation, with whose gallant actions it is to be supposed he is well acquainted; some of them equipped and sitting on horseback, in the same bright and shining armour they were used to wear when they performed those glorious actions that give them a distinguished place in the British annals.

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, stone room, about 20 yards to the eastward of the grand store-house, or new armoury, the crown jewels are deposited. I. The imperial crown, with which it is pretended that all the kings of England have been crowned since Edward the Confessor, in 1042. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires and pearls: the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. They are however mistaken in shewing this as the ancient imperial diadem of St. Edward; for that, with the other most ancient regalia of this kingdom, was kept in the arched room in the cloisters in Westminster Abbey till the grand rebellion; when in 1642, Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke open the iron chest in which it was secured, took it thence, and sold it, together with the scepter, sword, and scepter of St. Edward. However, after the restoration, King Charles II. had one made in imitation of it, which is that now shewn. II. The golden orb or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned; and borne in his left with the scepter in his right, upon his return into Westminster Hall, after he is crowned. It is about six inches in diameter, edged with pearl, and enriched with precious stones. On the top is an amethyst, of a violet colour, near an inch and a half in height, set with a rich cross of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious stones. The whole height of the ball and cup is eleven inches. III. The golden scepter, with its cross set upon a large amethyst of great value, garnished round with table diamonds. The handle of the scepter is plain; but the pommel is set round with rubies, emeralds, and small diamonds. The top rises into a *flour de lis* of six leaves, all enriched with precious stones, from whence issues a mound or fall, made of the amethyst already mentioned. The cross is quite covered with precious stones. IV. The scepter with the dove, the emblem of peace, perched on the top of a small Jerusalem cross, finely ornamented with table diamonds and jewels

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other public buildings; beside the magnificent edifices raised by our nobility; as Charlton-house, Marlborough-house, and Buckingham-house, in St. James's park; the duke of Montague's, and the duke of Richmond's, in the Privy-garden; the earl of Chesterfield's house, near Hyde-park; the duke of Devonshire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in

of great value. This emblem was first used by Edward the Confessor, as appears by his seal; but the ancient scepter and dove was sold with the rest of the regalia, and this now in the Tower was made after the restoration. V. St. Edward's staff, four feet seven inches and a half in length, and three inches three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the King at his coronation. VI. The rich crown of state, worn by his majesty in parliament; in which is a large emerald seven inches round; a pearl esteemed the finest in the world, and a ruby of incalculable value. VII. The crown belonging to his royal highness the prince of Wales. The king wears his crown on his head while he sits upon the throne; but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to shew that he is not yet come to it. VIII. The late queen Mary's crown, globe, and scepter, with the diadem she wore at her coronation with her consort king William III. IX. An ivory scepter, with a dove on the top, made for king James II.'s queen, whose garniture is gold, and the dove on the top gold, enamelled with white. X. The *curtana*, or sword of mercy, which has a blade thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two swords of justice, spiritual and temporal. XI. The golden spurs, and the armillas, which are bracelets for the wrists. These, though very antique, are worn at the coronation. XII. The *ampulla*, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with; and the golden spoon that the bishop pours the oil into. These are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedestal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expand about seven inches. The whole weighs about ten ounces. The head of the eagle screws off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow, for holding the holy oil; and when the king is anointed by the bishop, the oil is poured into the spoon out of the bird's bill. XIII. A rich salt-seller of state, in form like the square White Tower, and so exquisitely wrought, that the workmanship of modern times, is in no degree equal to it. It is of gold, and used only on the king's table at the coronation. XIV. A noble silver font, double gilt, and elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are christened. XV. A large silver fountain, presented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curiously wrought; but much inferior in beauty to the above. Beside these, which are commonly shewn, there are in the jewel office, all the crown jewels worn by the prince and princesses at coronations, and a great variety of curious old plate.

The Record Office consists of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept. These are all handsomely wainscoted, the wainscot being framed into presses round each room, within which are shelves, and repositories for the records; and for the easier finding of them, the year of each reign is inscribed on the inside of these presses, and the records placed accordingly. Within these presses, which amount to fifty-six in number, are deposited all the rolls, from the first year of the reign of king John, to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. but those after this last period are kept in the rolls chapel. The records in the Tower, among other things, contain, the foundation of abbeys, and other religious houses; the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a survey of the manors; the original of laws and statutes; proceedings of the courts of common law and equity; the rights of England to the dominion of the British seas; leagues and treaties with foreign princes; the achievements of England in foreign wars; the settlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion; the forms of submission of some Scottish kings, for territories held in England; ancient grants of our kings to their subjects; privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations during the period above-mentioned; enrollments of charters and deeds made before the conquest; the bounds of all the forests in England, with the several respective rights of the inhabitants to common pasture, and many other important records, all regularly disposed, and referred to in near a thousand folio indexes. This office is kept open, and attendance constantly given, from seven o'clock till one, except in the months of December, January and February, when it is open only from eight to one, Sundays and holidays excepted. A search here is half a guinea, for which you may peruse any one subject a year,

in Piccadilly; Northumberland house, in the Strand; the houses of the dukes of Newcastle and Queensberry; of lord Bateman; of general Wade, in Saville-row; the earl of Granville's, Mr. Pelham's, the duke of Bedford's, and Montague house *, in Bloomsbury; with a great number of others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

No place in the world is better supplied with 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, the city is, in a great measure, secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened than there is 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; an advantage, that is not to be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is small †, and the recovery, in case of loss, is easy and

* 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 Harleian 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. Medals and coins, ancient and modern, 23,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious stones, agates, jaspers, &c. 2,256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Crystals, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1,035. Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Tales, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, sponges, &c. 1,421. Testacea, or shells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinæ, &c. 659. Asteria, trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustaceæ, crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stellæ, marina, star-fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds and their parts, eggs and nests, of different species, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus ficus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humana, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things, natural, 2,098. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

† The terms of insurance are as follows, viz. every person insuring, shall

pay for every 100 l. insured on goods, inclosed in brick or stone	—	—	—	2	0
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	—	—	—	3	0
If hazardous	—	—	—	4	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	—	—	—	5	0
If hazardous, and hazardous	—	—	—	6	0
For every 100 l. insured on goods, inclosed in part brick, and part timber	—	—	—	2	6
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	—	—	—	3	9
If hazardous	—	—	—	5	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	—	—	—	6	3
If hazardous and hazardous	—	—	—	7	6
For every 100 l. insured on goods, inclosed in timber	—	—	—	3	0
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	—	—	—	4	6
If hazardous	—	—	—	6	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	—	—	—	7	6
If hazardous, and hazardous	—	—	—	9	0

The premium is double upon any sum between one and two thousand, and treble between two and three thousand pounds.

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certain. Every one of these offices, 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; but though all their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has insured.

If the use and advantage of public magnificence is considered as a national concern, it will be found to be of the utmost consequence, in promoting the welfare of mankind, as that attention to it, which encouragement will produce, must necessarily stimulate the powers of invention and ingenuity, and of course create employment for great numbers of artists, who, exclusive of the reward of their abilities, cannot fail of striking out many things which will do honour to themselves, and to their country. This consideration alone, is without doubt highly worthy of a commercial people; it is this which gives the preference to one country, in comparison with another, and it is this which distinguishes the genius of a people, in the most striking manner.

London, before the conflagration in 1666, when that great city (which like most others had arisen from small beginnings) 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, which confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumstances such as the want of water, rendered the city scarce ever free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at 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 by no means answered to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in some particulars, as shall be hereafter mentioned, and 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 inconceivably have been the most magnificent, and elegant city in the universe, and of consequence must from the prodigious resort of foreigners of distinction, and taste, who would have visited it, have become an inexhaustible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindness of that age, has deprived us of so valuable an acquisition, it is become absolutely necessary, that some efforts should be made to render the present plan in a greater degree answerable to the character of the richest, and most powerful people in the world.

The plan of London in its present state, will, in many instances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a disposition, as can possibly be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the borders of so noble a river as the Thames; the wharfs and quays on its banks are despicable and inconvenient beyond conception. Let any one who has a tolerable taste, and some idea of public magnificence, give himself the trouble of considering the state of the buildings, quays, and wharfs on both sides the river Thames, from Chelsea to Blackwall,

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on the one hand, and from Battersea to Greenwich on the other; and he will be immediately convinced that there is not one convenient, well-regulated spot (as the buildings thereon are at present disposed) either for business or elegance, in that whole extent. After he has considered the state of the banks of the river, he may continue his observation upon the interior parts of the town, and naturally turn his eyes upon those useful pieces to the trading part of the world, Wapping, Rotherhithe, and Southwark, all contiguous to the Thames, and all entirely destitute of that useful regularity, convenience, and utility, so very desirable in commercial cities. The observer may from thence direct his view to Tower-hill, the Custom-house, Thames-street, Watling-street, and the passages to London bridge; thence to the miserably contrived avenues into Spitalfields, Whitechapel, and Moorfields. He may consider the situation of St. Paul's, and other churches, that of the Monument, the Companies halls, and other public buildings, that are thrust up in corners, and placed in such a manner as must tempt every foreigner to believe that they were designed to be concealed. The observer may next take in all those wretched parts which he will find on both sides the Fleet-market; necessity will oblige him to proceed into Smithfield, for the sake of breathing a fresher air; and when he has considered a spot, capable of the greatest advantages, but destitute of any, he may plunge into the deplorable avenues and horrid passages in that neighbourhood. He may thence proceed to Baldwin's Gardens, through the ruins of which if he escapes without hurt, he may reach Gray's-Inn-lane; which, though one of the principal avenues to this metropolis, is despicable beyond conception. From thence he may travel into Holborn, where the first object that presents itself to view, is Middle-row, a nuisance universally detested, but suffered to remain a public disgrace to the finest street in London. He may hobble on with some satisfaction, until he arrives at Broad St. Giles's, where, if he can bear to see a fine situation covered with ruinous buildings, and inhabited by the most deplorable objects that human nature can furnish; he may visit the environs. From hence he may proceed along Oxford-road, and striking into the town on which hand he pleases, he will observe the finest situation covered with a profusion of deformity, that has been obtruded on the public, for want of a general, well regulated, limited plan, which should have been enforced by commissioners appointed by authority, men of sound judgment, taste, and activity; had that happily been the case, all the glaring absurdities, which are perpetually staring in the faces, and insulting the understandings of persons of science and taste, would never have had existence. But private property, and pitiful, mean understandings, suited to the capacities of the projectors, have taken place of that regularity and elegance, which a general plan would have produced; and nothing seems to have been considered for twenty years past, but the interest of a few tasteless builders, who have entered into a combination, with no other view than fleecing the public, and of extending and distorting the town, till they have rendered it completely ridiculous. From hence the observer, in his road to the city of Westminster, may have a peep at St. James's, the residence of the most powerful and respectable monarch in the universe; a prince, who is himself a lover of the arts, and under whose happy auspices artists of real merit and ingenuity can never doubt of obtaining patronage and encouragement. The observer will not be better satisfied when he has reached Westminster, when he considers what

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might have been done, and how little has been done, when so fine an opportunity presented itself. From Westminster bridge he may conduct himself into St. George's Fields; one of the few spots about London which has not yet fallen a sacrifice to the depraved taste of modern builders; here he may indulge himself with the contemplation of what advantageous things may yet be done for this hitherto neglected metropolis.

From what has been said of the cities of London and Westminster, there cannot remain the least doubt but that their state, with regard to magnificence, elegance, and conveniency, is in such places very despicable; but we have the pleasure to find, that the necessity of rendering them otherwise is now become a matter of serious concern to persons in power; and that some general plan is likely to be formed and observed for their improvement. In the cities of Paris, Edinburgh, Rotterdam, and other places, the government takes cognizance of all public buildings, both useful and ornamental.

We might in this place take notice of the very elegant, useful, and necessary improvement, by the present method of paving and enlightning the streets, upon the plan of the High-street of Edinburgh; an improvement which is felt in the most sensible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for several miles round upon the same plan; and, exclusive of lamps regularly placed on each side, at short distances, are rendered more safe by watchmen placed within a call of each other, who are protected from the weather by proper boxes. Nothing can appear more brilliant than those lights when viewed at a distance, especially where the roads run across; and even the principal streets, such as Pall-Mall, New Bond-street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence; upon the whole, there never was, in any age or country, a public scheme adopted which reflects more glory upon government, or does greater honour to the person who originally proposed and supported it.

The new bridge and new streets, the embanking the river, and many other improvements now in agitation, added to the success and utility of what has been done, are strong demonstrations of the good sense, taste, and public spirit of some ruling men; and we have the greatest reason to believe that this hitherto neglected metropolis will become, in point of beauty, conveniency, and elegance, what it is in wealth and commerce, the glory of the island, the admiration of every stranger, and the first city on earth. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the countries in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which every part send their commodities, from whence they again are sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part in 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.

Windfor castle is the only fabric that deserves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding situation; which, with the form of its construction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton Court was
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the favourite residence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taste, and has some good apartments, and like Windsor lies near the Thames. Both those palaces have some good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and dissipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which, for design and expression, are reckoned the master-pieces of painting, have by his present majesty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton Court, to the queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-house in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens, which are laid out in a grand taste. Other houses, though belonging to the king, are far from deserving the name of royal.

Foreigners have been puzzled to account how it happens that the monarchs of the richest nation in Europe should be so indifferently lodged, especially as Charles I. whose finances were but low, compared to some of his successors, had he lived undisturbed, would more than probably have completed the august plan which Inigo Jones drew for a royal palace, and which would have been every way suitable to an English monarch's dignity. The truth is, his son Charles II. though he had a fine taste for architecture, dissipated his revenues upon his pleasures. The reign of his brother was too short for such an undertaking. Perpetual wars during the reigns of king William and queen Ann, left the parliament no money to spare for a palace. The two succeeding monarchs were indifferent as to such a piece of grandeur in England; and though several schemes were drawn up for that purpose, yet they came to nothing, especially as three millions of money were necessary for carrying it into execution. We have, however, every thing to expect during the present reign, when architecture and magnificence shine out in their full lustre.

It would be needless, and, indeed, endless, to attempt even a catalogue of the houses of the nobility and gentry in London and its neighbourhood, and all over the kingdom. They are by far more superb and elegant than the subjects of any other nation can display; witness those of the duke of Devonshire, the countess of Leicesters, lord Scarisdale, the earl Temple, and earl Pembroke, where more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the possession of any subject in the world, Sir Gregory Page, the earl of Tilney, and hundreds of others equally grand and sumptuous. But those capital houses of the English nobility and gentry have an excellency distinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being suitable to each other, both in construction and furniture, and all kept in the highest preservation. It often happens, that the house, however elegant and costly, is not the principal object of the seat, which consists in its hortulane and rural decorations. Villas, opening landscapes, temples, all of them the result of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that I should here enter into a detail of the chief towns of England; which, to say the truth, have little besides their commerce, and the conveniency of their situation, to recommend them, though some of them have noble public buildings and bridges. Bristol is thought to be the largest city in the British dominions, after London and

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Dublin, to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. No nation in the world can shew such dock-yards, and all conveniencies for the construction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portsmouth, which is the most regular fortification in England, Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hospital at Greenwich for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence. In short, every town in England is noted for some particular production or manufacture, to which its building and appearance are generally fitted, and though England contains many excellent and commodious sea-ports, yet all of them have an immediate connection with London, which is the common centre of national commerce.

HISTORY.] In the account I have given of the laws and constitution, may be found great part of the history of England, which I shall not here repeat, but confine myself to the different gradations of events, in a chronological order, connected with the improvement of arts, sciences, commerce, and manufactures, at their proper periods, and that in a manner suitable to the proposed brevity of this work.

When Julius Cæsar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Christ, meditated a conquest of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæsar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vast difficulties, and attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. From contemporary, and other authors, as well as Cæsar's own narrative, it plainly appears, that his victories were incomplete and indecisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæsar's descent, were governed, in time of war, by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for some time.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus and Boadicia, though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicia being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms, as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, northwards, into Caledonia, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in Britain, they were protected from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts, by the prætences or walls I have so often mentioned; and we are told that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems, however, to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the

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Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants, when disciplined. That this was the case, appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island about the year 408. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; but it is certain, that under them the South Britons were most abject slaves, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against the tyrants of the world.

With regard to the Britons, in their manner of life, as described by Cæsar, and the best authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly sowed corn, though, perhaps, they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their cloathing was skins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots, beyond credibility, and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconvenience attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original husband.

Though the Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no struggle they made for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that presented themselves. The seat of the Roman arms, during their abode in the island, was near their pretences. Their emperors and generals were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts, (the latter are thought to have been the southern Britons retired northwards) and they appeared to have been in no pain about the southern provinces. The withdrawing the Romans from Britain to the continent, was in order to repel the attacks of the barbarians upon the empire. The southern Britons, upon their departure were so habituated to slavery, that they again and again implored the return of their tyrants, but to no purpose; and we have from Gildas, who was himself a Briton, but very dark confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, who struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horsa, to protect them from the nations beyond the pretence. The Saxons were in those days masters of the sea, their native countries, comprehending the northern parts of Germany and Scandinavia, were overstocked with inhabitants, and after relieving the Britons, partly by force, and partly by treachery, they either subdued or drove them into Wales, where their language and descendants still remain.

Literature at this time in England was so rude, that we know but little of its history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public transactions were recorded only by their bards and poets, a species of men whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who seems to have

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been contemporary with Gildas, mentions, indeed, a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected history. We can, therefore, only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieffin, whose works are said to be extant, with others of less note. All we know upon the whole is, that after repeated bloody wars, in which the Britons were sometimes the enemies, and sometimes the allies of the Scots, and other northern nations; the Saxons became masters of all England, to the south of Adrian's, or rather, Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts seem to have been masters of all the territory to the north of that, though they suffered the Britons, who had been driven northwards, to be governed by their own tributary kings; an intermixture that has created great doubts and confusions in history, which I shall not here pretend to unravel.

I have already given a sketch of the constitution and government which the Saxons imported into England, and which form by far the most valuable part of their antient history.

We have no account of the Anglo-Saxons conversion to Christianity but from Popish writers, who generally endeavour to magnify the merits of their superiors. According to them, Ethelbert king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being descended from Hengist, married the king of France's daughter, and she being a Christian, Pope Gregory the Great seized that opportunity to enforce the conversion of her husband to Christianity, or rather to Popery. For that purpose, about the year 596, he sent over to England the famous Austin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people, and also Sebert, king of the East Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then by his master's order attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome; particularly as to the celebration of Easter, but finding a stout resistance on the part of the bishops and clergy, he persuaded his Christian converts to massacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 priests and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a state of slavery, which some think gave rise to the antient villenage in England. Austin is accounted the first archbishop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did soon after.

It does not fall within my design to relate the separate history of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the Pope, in Austin's time, supplied England with about 400 hundred monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the most deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence it was, that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks; and as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days; no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the West Saxons, though in other respects he was a wise and brave prince. The bounty of those Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome, was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, whom I have already mentioned, imposed an annual tax of a penny, upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, commonly chose one who was to be the head of their political confederacy, for regulating their concerns, but without any jurisdiction in the dominions of others. The clergy, we may easily suppose, had great influence on those occasions; and the history of the Saxon heptarchy is little more than that of crimes, treasons, and murders committed by the instigations of priests and monks. Even their criminal law, as I have already inferred, admitted of a pecuniary compensation for murder, and regicide itself.

Under all those disadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in comparison of the nations on the continent; because they were free from the Saracens, who had overrun Spain, Italy, and the finest countries in Europe. London was then a place of very considerable trade; and, if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles, quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Wessex, a sum in silver equal to 90,000 l. sterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable Bede then composed his church history of Britain. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldest and most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. An architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver plate. It must, however, be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouses are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic.

Charles the great, otherwise Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany; and I have, in a former part of this work, mentioned the commercial treaty between him and Offa, king of Mercia, to whom he sent in a present, a Hungarian sword, a belt, and two silken vests. Egbert had been obliged, by state jealousies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the persecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the West Saxons. Egbert acquired at the court of Charles the arts both of war and government, and soon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own person, but without subduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-land, or England; but there is reason to believe that some part of England continued still to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid, perhaps, a small tribute to Egbert. His prosperity excited the envy of the northern nations, who, under the name of Danes, then infested the seas, and were no strangers to the coasts of England; for about the year 832 they made descents upon Kent and Dorsetshire, where they defeated Egbert in person, and carried off abundance of booty to their ships. About two years after they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Cornish Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Winchester, his chief residence.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this time England had become a scene of blood and ravages, thro' the renewal of the Danish invasions; and

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Ethelwolf after some time bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the English constitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occasion (copies of which are still remaining) are so prodigious, that they shew his brain to have been touched by his devotion. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions among his sons (Athelstan being then dead) Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the surviving son, left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethred; in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coasts, and the finest counties in England. Ethred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 872. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes, with various success, and when defeated; he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time, reduced to an uncommon state of misery, being forced to live in the disguise of a cowherd. He still, however, kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their assistance he gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been settled in it, to swear obedience to his government; even part of Wales courted his protection; so that he is thought to have been the most powerful monarch that before his time ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured her coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895. He divided England into counties, hundreds and tythings; or rather he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into disuse by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himself not only a scholar, but an author, and he tells us himself, that upon his accession to the throne he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick buildings to general use in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his subjects for many years after his death were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement to commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in East-India jewels; and William of Malmbury says, that some of their gems were repositied in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Oether, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coasts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king, in his memorial printed by Hakluyt, "that he sailed along the Norway coast, so far north as commonly the whale hunters use to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles with those barbarians. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up on public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 900, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly dignified with the epithet of the Great. I have been the more diffuse on the history of Alfred's reign,

as it is the most glorious of any in the English annals, though it did not extend to foreign conquests.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invasions. He died in the year 927, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince was such an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages, on his own account, to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a thane, or nobleman of the first rank. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those countries. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of Severus's wall. He was succeeded, in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The English nation, at that time, by the help of priests, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest part of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general massacre of them by the English, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind, however, were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they served only to enrage the Danish king, Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons, out of England into Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great, whom I have already mentioned, but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside, Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1039, his son, Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable, and his successor, Hardicanute, was so degenerate a prince that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Etheling, by being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Edward the Confessor was a soft, good-natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and excessively fond of the Normans, with whom he had resided. He was governed by his minister, earl Godwin, and his sons, the eldest of whom was Harold. He durst not resent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment; and perceiving his kinsman Edgar Etheling to be of a soft disposition, neither he nor the English paid much regard to Etheling's hereditary right; so that the Confessor, as is said, devised the succession of his crown upon his death to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain, that upon the

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death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Godwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, was then in the unrivalled possession of that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and by way of anticipation, he parcelled out the territory of England to each in proportion to the number of men he brought into the field, making it thereby their interest to assist him effectually. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions from the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold returning from the north, encountered William at Hastings in Sussex, with a superior army, but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

I cannot find any great improvements, either in arts or arms, which the Saxons had made in England since the first invasion of the Danes. Those barbarians seem to have carried off with them almost all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons, for I perceive that Alfred the Great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100 l. each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money and bullion they had carried off; for we are told that Harold, in his last victory over the Danes, regained as much treasure as twelve lusty men could carry off. We have, indeed, very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in these days; a palfrey cost 10s. an acre of land (according to bishop Fleetwood in his *Chronicon Prebendiarum*) 1s. and a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money, though many ingenious treatises have been written on that head. A sheep was estimated at 1s. an ox was computed at 6s. a cow at 4s. a man at three pounds. The board wages of a child, the first year, was eight shillings. The tenants of Shireburne were obliged at their choice to pay either six pence or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times land was divided among all the male children of the deceased. Entails were sometimes practised in those times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can say little, but that they were in general a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so low as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conquest put the people in a situation of receiving slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated state might be owing to the clergy, who always discouraged manufactures.

We are, however, to distinguish between the secular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magistrates. The latter depended upon the see of Rome, and directed the consciences of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody set.

A great deal of the Saxon barbarism was likewise owing to their continual intercourse with the continent: and the Danish invasions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidst all those defects, public and personal liberty were well understood and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them, at this day, the most valuable privileges of English subjects. The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day, and William with very little further difficulty took possession of the throne, and new modelled the whole constitution of England in the manner I have already described, by converting all the lands into knights fees, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, which were held of the great persons who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Etheling, and his sister, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms and formed conspiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm, king of Scotland, who married Etheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons, whom he obliged to put out their candles and fires every evening at eight o'clock, at the sound of the curfew bell. He introduced Norman laws and language; he bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he did every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution. While he was thus employed, his eldest son Robert rebelled against him, but without success; and William, before his death, caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be completed, (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time) and an account to be taken of the villains, slaves, and live stock upon each estate, all which was recorded in a book called Doomsday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. He died in the sixty-first year of his age, and the twenty-first of his reign, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The succession to the crown of England was disputed between his sons Robert and William, (commonly called Rufus) but it was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have, therefore, been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and consequently was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellions of his people. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began, and in 899, Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Etheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter, but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Forest, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age. He is chiefly accused of rapaciousness and oppression; but the circumstances of his reign had great demands for money, which he had no other means of raising but from a luxurious, over-grown clergy, who had engrossed all the riches of the kingdom.

The monuments which remain of this prince in England, are the Tower, and Westminster-Hall, which he built. In the year 1100 hap-

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pend that inundation of the sea, which overflowed great part of earl Godwin's estate in Kent, and formed those shallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was succeeded by his brother Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be said to have purchased the throne, first by his brother's treasures, which he seized at Winchester; and, secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings. Thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great measure restored the clergy to their influence in the state, and they formed as it were a separate body dependent upon the Pope, which afterwards created great convulsions in England. Henry, partly by force, and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert's person, and dutchy of Normandy; and, with a most ungenerous meanness detained him a prisoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France; and before his death he settled the succession upon his daughter the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of succession, the crown of England was claimed, and seized by Stephen, earl of Blois; the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold his crown dependent, as it were upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland, and a worthy subject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party before her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, she impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. Being now masters of the foil of England, they forgot the principles of their Normannic constitution, because it rendered them dependent upon the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his accession; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who had been taken prisoner likewise, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had, in fact, excluded him from the government, by building eleven hundred castles (tho' they owe all their rights to the king) where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal sub-

jection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough advised to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his son Eustace heir apparent to the kingdom; and exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was son to the empress; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the English, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with raptures of joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne without a rival in 1154.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. It is true he owed his crown to the arms and valour of his great grand uncle, David king of Scotland, and the virtues and wisdom of the earl of Gloucester; but Henry, as he grew up, discovered amazing abilities for government, having performed, in the sixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the crown he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly bettered by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman or servant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by such residence made free. He erected Wallingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services the inhabitants had done to his mother and himself; by discharging them from every burden, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of such town; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vast accession of power to the crown, because the crown alone could support the boroughs against their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very scrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he resumed the excessive grants of crown lands by Stephen, on pretence of his being a usurper. He demolished the rebellious castles that had been built; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous disorders lay in Rome, where the Popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and disorders, occasioned by those exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible were they not attested by the most unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his offices, and still more so by his popularity, arising from a pretended sanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal, cool and politic. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is still famous for the constitutions there enacted; which, in fact, abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy. Becket finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions, till they could be ratified by the Pope; who, as he foresaw, rejected them.

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Henry, though a prince of the most determined spirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the see of Rome was at the same time in its meridian grandeur. Though Becket was arraigned and convicted of public peculation, while he was chancellor, yet he fled to France, where the Pope and the French king espoused his quarrel. The effect was, that all the English clergy who were on the king's side were excommunicated, and the subjects absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat, and even to be insulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the streets of London in 1170. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, till both became insupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the first subject of his own dominions, he was heard to say, in the anguish of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights, Hugh Norvil, William Tracy, Hugh Brito, and Richard Fitzwife; and, without acquainting Henry of their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury. Henry was in no condition to second the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in consequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually resumed their most valuable possessions in the north of England. This occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner, and forced to pay for his ransom 100,000*l*. As the money and coins of Scotland were at that time of the same intrinsic value, and as one half of the ransom was paid in ready money, and the other at a time appointed, it has been observed by bishop Nicholson, and other very accurate authors; that, considering the vast difficulties which England in the next reign had, to pay the ransom of king Richard, Scotland must have then possessed more ready money than England, a fact, which though undoubted, is not easily accounted for upon any historical system hitherto formed.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland, which I shall have occasion to mention when I treat of that island; and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poictou, he became almost as powerful as the French king himself in his own dominions, and the greatest prince in Christendom. Henry, however, in his old age was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleasure, and embarrassed himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond, which were resented by his queen Eleanor, by her seducing her sons Henry, (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own life-time) Richard and John, into repeated rebellions, which at last broke the old man's spirit, and he died obscurely at Chinou, in France, in the 56th year of his age, in 1189.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were established all over England, by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined

to Spain and Italy; for the silk coronation robes, made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost 87l. 10s. 4d. in the sheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Madox; a vast sum in these days. Henry introduced the use of glass in windows into England, and stone arches in building. Malmesbury, and other historians who lived under him, are remarkable for their Latin stile, which in some places is both pure and elegant. During the thirty-five years of his reign he had such vast resources in his English demesne lands, and his French dominions, that he never once demanded a subsidy or aid from his people; though, besides his carrying on almost continual wars with Scotland, France, and Wales, he maintained his conquest of Ireland. The sum he left in ready money, at his death, has, perhaps, been exaggerated, but the most moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000l. of our money.

In this reign, and in those barbarous ages, it was a custom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses, and plunder them, to rob and murder passengers, and to commit with impunity all sorts of disorders.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships, which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal was alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveable or personal estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy wars made them submit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became, in following reigns, the usual method of supplying the necessities of the crown. It was a usual practice of the kings of England to repeat the ceremony of their coronation thrice a year, on assembling the states at the three great festivals. Henry, after the first years of his reign, never renewed this ceremony, which was found to be very expensive and very useless. None of his successors ever revived it. Since we are here collecting some detached instances, which show the genius of these ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger, archbishop of York, and Richard, archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiastics could proceed to such extremities. The Pope's legate having summoned an assembly of the clergy at London; and as both the archbishops pretended to sit on his right hand, this question of precedency begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger in the presence of the cardinal and of the synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty saved from their violence.

Richard I. surnamed Coeur de Lion, was the third, but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they persuaded him to make a most magnificent ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed actions of valour that give countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several glorious, but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years; and in his return to England he was treacherously surprized by the duke of Austria; who, in 1193, sent him prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid emperor at 70,000 marks of silver; but the particular weight of a German and English mark is

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not ascertained, though it is by some computed at 300,000*l.* of our money. According to contemporary authors, the raising of this ransom proved to be a matter of so much difficulty, that all the church plate was melted down, and a tax was laid on all persons, both ecclesiastical and secular, of one fourth part of their income, for one year; and twenty shillings on every knight's-fee; also one year's wool borrowed of the Cistercians, besides money raised upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and 2000 marks, which were furnished by William king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure. Though all those sums are well authenticated, yet it is not easy to reconcile them with certain other money transactions of this reign, but by supposing that Richard carried off with him, and expended abroad, all the visible specie in the kingdom; and that the people had reserved vast hoards, which they afterwards produced, when commerce took a brisker turn.

Upon Richard's return from his captivity, he held a parliament at Nottingham; whither William king of Scotland came, and demanded the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancaster, as his predecessors had enjoyed the same. Richard put him off for the present with fair words, yet by advice of his council he granted William, by charter, the following honours and benefits for him and his successors, viz. "That whenever a king of Scotland was to be summoned to the court of England, to do homage for the lands he held in England, he should be, at the river Tweed, received by the bishop of Durham, and the sheriff of Northumberland, and they should conduct him to the river Tees, where the archbishop and sheriff of York should receive him; and so in like sort the bishop, and sheriffs of the other shires, till he arrived at court. On his journey he had 100 shillings (15*l.* of our money) per day, allowed him for charges. At court thirty shillings per day; twelve wafers, and twelve simnels of the king's, (two sorts of fine bread in use then) four quarts of the king's best wine; six quarts of ordinary wine; two pound weight of pepper; and four pound weight of cinnamon: four wax lights; forty great long perches of the king's best candles; and twenty-four of the ordinary ones. And on his return he was to be conducted as before, with the same allowances."

Whilst the Scottish kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their interest, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the said homage; but when they were deprived of their said lands, they paid no more homage.

Woollen broad-cloths were made in England at this time. An ox sold for three shillings, which answers to nine shillings of our money, and a sheep at four pence, or one shilling. Richard, upon his return, found his dominions in great disorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he however pardoned; and by the invasions of the French, whom he repelled, but was slain in besieging the castle of Chalons, in 1199.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He is said to have put to death Arthur, the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Constance, complained to Philip, the king of France, who, upon his non-appearance at his court, as a vassal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithstanding in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Irish, gave many proofs of personal valour, but became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered

himself

himself a tributary to the Pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness by taking arms, but he repeated his shameful submissions to the Pope, and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1215, to sign the great deed, so well known by the name of Magna Charta. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Anglo-Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charter of Henry I. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured; this charter, by various subsequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgessees. John had scarce signed it, when he retracted it, and called upon the Pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the Pope, and the barons being apprehensive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance, but he was unable to protect them, till the Pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority. Without disputing what historians have said of his arbitrary, inconstant, and cruel disposition, it is evident, from the same relations, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who in their turns attempted to annihilate the regal prerogative. It is undeniable, at the same time, that under John the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a most surprizing increase. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he established, and endowed all over his kingdom; and it was under him that the stone bridge, as it stood some years ago, was erected cross the Thames at London. The city of London owes her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuse a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their sheriffs and common-council annually, as at present.

England was in a deplorable situation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian; and the Pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated, and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The French king all this time kept possession of Normandy; but at home the Pope was now become king of England, and sent no fewer than 300 of his rapacious clergy at one time to take possession of its best benefices, and to load the people with taxes. This even was increased, by Henry marrying the daughter of the king of Provence, a needy prince, whose poor relations engrossed the best estates and places in the kingdom. The king was of a soft, pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. An association of the barons was formed against him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons, and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him

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into inexpressible difficulties, and the famous Stephen Montfort being chosen general of the association, he and his two sons were defeated, and taken prisoners, at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort, and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty, and assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Eversham, and killed Montfort. The representatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgesses, formed now part of the English legislature, in a separate house, and this gave the first blow to feudal tenures in England, but historians are not agreed in what manner the commons, before this time, formed any part of the English parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being engaged about this time in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, and in the fifty-sixth year of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious. During his reign, the principal customs arose from the importation of French and Rhenish wines, the English being as yet strangers to those of Spain, Portugal and Italy. Interest had in that age mounted to an enormous height, as might be expected from the barbarism of the times, and mens ignorance of commerce, which was still very low, though it seems rather to have encreased since the conquest. There are instances of 50 l. per cent. paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppressions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a fresh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them, if they refused compliance. They now lost all patience, and desired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppression you complain of? I am myself a beggar; I am despoiled; I am stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had said 300,000, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing; and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew of Bristol: and on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should consent. The Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the sum required of him.

Edward's returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which consisted (that the reader may have some idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats; (see Rymer's *Fœdera*).

Edward was a brave and a politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He passed the famous mortmain act, whereby all persons were restrained from giving, by will or *otherwise*, their estates to those *so called*, religious purposes, and the societies that never die, without a license from the crown." He settled the privileges of the cinque ports, which, though now very inconsiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond sea, with fifty-seven ships, each having twenty armed soldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own costs for the space of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him

him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldest son. Though he encouraged foreigners to trade with England, yet the aggregate body of every particular nation residing here, became answerable for the misdemeanors of every individual person of their number. He regulated the forms of parliament, and their manner of giving aids towards the nation's defence, as they now stand, with very little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his subjects rendered them a prey to the Jews, who were the great usurers and money dealers of the times, he expelled them out of England, and seized all their immoveable estates. I have in the article of Scotland mentioned the unjustifiable manner in which he abolished the independency of that kingdom; but, on the other hand, it must be acknowledged that he held the balance of power in Europe, and employed the vast sums he raised from his subjects, for the aggrandizement of his crown and people. He had frequent wars abroad, especially with France, in which he was not very successful, and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons, and great nobility, had they not been so strong.

His vast connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glasses and spectacles, though they are said to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon, whom I have already mentioned. Windmills were erected in England, about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay, and mark of the goldsmiths company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himself and the English, by draining them of their wealth, and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland, and he died in 1307, while he was upon a fresh expedition to exterminate that people.

His son and successor Edward II. shewed early dispositions for encouraging favourites, but Gaveston, his chief minion, being banished by his father Edward, he mounted the throne, with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter to the French king, who restored to him part of the territories, which Edward I. had lost in France. The knights templars were suppressed in his reign, and though the barons obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, yet king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling, near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat that England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, Edward fixed upon young Hugh Spencer for his favourite, but he was banished, together with his father, an aged nobleman of great honour and courage. His queen, a furious ambitious woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes, and many noble patriots, with their estates, fell victims to the queen's revenge, but at last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active of the antioyalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed, and going over to France with her lover,

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she found means to form such a party in England, that returning with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown, in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt, and he was most barbarously murdered in Berkeley-castle. by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer.

The fate of Edward II. was in some measure as unjust as it was cruel. His chief misfortune lay in not being a match for Robert Bruce, king of Scotland, the greatest military and political genius of his age, by which the English lost that kingdom. It cannot, at the same time, be denied, that he was too much engrossed by favourites, who led him into sanguinary measures. In other respects he was a far better friend than his father had been to public liberty. He even voluntarily limited his own prerogative, in a parliament held at London in 1324, and he secured the tenants of great barons, from being oppressed by their lords. None of his predecessors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and he protected his trading subjects with great spirit against the Hanseatic league, and the neighbouring powers. Upon an average, the difference of living then and now seems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much silver as our money or coin of the same denomination does. Thus, for example, if a goose then cost 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, that is 7 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ of our money, or according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now cost 3 s. 9 d.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer, and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power, by executing many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland. Edward, young as he was, was soon sensible of their designs. He surprized them in person at the head of a few chosen friends in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was ignominiously put to a public death, and the queen herself was shut up in confinement. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, who had married his sister, and who was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary king of Scotland, and general. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without issue) who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female succession to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male by succession, but he was opposed by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, who was sister to the three last mentioned kings of France, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred, but the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occasion, the vast difference between the feudal constitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no subordination. They and their men were equally undisciplined, and disobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The English freemen, on the other hand, having now vast property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themselves with proper armour, and submitting to military exercises, and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was there-
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fore a continued scene of success and victory. At Cressly, in 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four) though the English did not exceed 30,000. The loss of the French far exceeded the number of the English army, whose loss consisted of no more than three knights, and one esquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales, and the French king John, but with superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle, was double that of all the English army, but the modesty and politeness with which the prince treated his royal prisoners, formed the brightest wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had the good fortune to take prisoner David, king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about six weeks after the battle of Cressly was fought. Thus Edward, on his return, had the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ransomed, but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is said to have been frightened by a dreadful storm, his fortunes declined. He had resigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he sunk in the esteem of his subjects at home, on account of his attachment to his mistress, one Alice Piers. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was seized with a consumptive disorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long survive him, for he died dispirited, and obscure, in 1377, at Shene, in Surry, aged sixty-five.

No prince ever understood the balance and interests of Europe better than Edward did. Having set his heart on the conquest of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for protection, and security to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhausted his regal dominions; neither was his successor, when he mounted the throne, so powerful a prince as he was, in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of establishing the woollen manufacture among the English, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign, seems to have been much the same as in the late reign, and few of the English ships, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithstanding the vast increase of property in England, villainage still continued in the royal, episcopal, and baronial manors. Historians are not agreed, whether Edward made use of artillery, in his first invasion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent castle of Windsor, was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people in that age. Instead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he assessed every county in England to send him so many masons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enlisted only for a short time; they lived idle all the rest of the year, and commonly all the rest of their lives; one successful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ransom of prisoners, was supposed to be a small fortune to a man: which was a

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great allurements to enter into the service. The wages of a master carpenter was limited through the whole year to three-pence a day, a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age. John Wickliffe, a secular priest, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to spread the doctrines of reformation by his discourses, sermons, and writings; and he made many disciples of all ranks and stations. He seems to have been a man of parts and learning; and has the honour of being the first person in Europe, who publickly called in question those doctrines, which had universally passed for certain and undisputed, during so many ages.

The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his search into the scriptures, and into ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the sixteenth century. But though the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reserved for a more free and enquiring period, that gave the finishing blow to Romish superstition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. His disciples were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. was no more than eleven years of age, when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful, both in France and Scotland. The doctrines of Wickliffe had taken root under John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in so flourishing a state, that corn, and other victuals, were suffered to be transported, and the English had fallen upon a way of manufacturing for exportation, likewise their leather, horns, and other native commodities, and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they seem from records to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain, were of prejudice to England; and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, that the commons of England, like powder receiving a spark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, and others, the scum of the people. Their profest principles were those of levelling, but it soon appeared, that their real intention was to have murdered the king, and seized upon the government.

Richard was not then above sixteen, but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm of the insurgents, at the head of Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the arch traitor, to death, in the midst of his rabble. This, with the seasonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the insurrection for that time, but it broke out with the most bloody effects in other parts of England, and tho' it was suppressed by making many examples of severity and justice among the insurgents, yet the common people never after that lost sight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained those privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the suppression of those insurgents, have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation, but he delivered himself up to worthless favourites, particularly Sir Michael de la Pole, whom he created lord chancellor, judge Treilian, and above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, and Richard stooped to the most ignoble measures to save

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them; but he found that it was not in his power. They were attainted and condemned to suffer as traitors; but Pele, and the duke of Ireland escaped abroad, where they died in obscurity. Richard associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people, and great lords, again took arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into their terms, but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king of England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk, and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party was formed in England, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 600 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refusing to fight, he was made prisoner, with no more than twenty attendants, and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of misconduct, and soon after he was murdered, in 1399, at Westminster.

Though the nobility of England were possessed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against the usury, which was but too much practised in England, and other abuses of both clergy and laity, and the destruction of the feudal powers soon followed.

Henry the fourth, * son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled in the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him among his great men, but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown powers. This was understood by the Piercy family, the greatest in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of some Scotch prisoners, and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son the famous Henry Piercy, surnamed the Hotspur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune Henry suppressed the insurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower, and by his prudent concessions to his parliament, to the commons particularly,

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaster stepped forth, and having crossed himself on his forehead, and on his breast, and called upon the name of Christ, he pronounced these words, which I shall give in the original language, because of their singularity.

In the name of Fader, Son, and Holy Ghost, I Henry of Lancaster, challenge this reume of Ynglande, and the crown, with all the membres, and the appurtenances; als I that am descended by right line of the blode (meaning a claim in right of his mother) coming fro the gode king Henry three, and througe that right that God of his grace hath sent me, with helpe of kyn, and of my frendes, to recover it; the whiche reume was in poynt to be ondone by the fault of the governaunce, and ondoynge of the gode lawes.

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he at last conquered all opposition, while, to salve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body, lawfully begotten, thereby shutting out all female succession. The young duke of Rothsay, heir to the crown of Scotland, falling a prisoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite service to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age, he had the satisfaction to see his son, and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which had till then disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly encreased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on an immense trade all over Europe, but with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the first prince who gave the different orders in parliament, especially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little surprizing, that learning was at this time at a much lower pass in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "as I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me; or, as my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed."

The balance of trade with foreign parts was against England, at the accession of Henry V. in 1413, so greatly had luxury encreased. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliff, were excessively numerous, and had chosen Sir John Oldcastle for their head, but Henry dispersed them, and executed their leader. Henry next turned his eyes towards France, which he had many incitements for invading, especially from the distracted state of that kingdom. The insolence of the French ambassadors at last exasperated Henry and his people so much, that he invaded that country, where he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled those of Cressy and Poitiers in glory to the English, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catharine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry, regent of France, during her husband's life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarchy, which must at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the Dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder, in 1422.

Henry V.'s vast successes in France revived the trade of England, and at the same time encreased and established the privileges and liberties of the English commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty-four years of age, it is hard to say, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then

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greatly distracted by the divisions among its princes: but whether this would have been of service or prejudice to the growing liberties of his English subjects we cannot determine.

It required a prince equally able as Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was no more than nine months old, when in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France, as well as of England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and sometimes a helper in stables at public inns. She must notwithstanding have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of glorious actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was accidentally taken prisoner by the English, who burnt her alive for being a witch and a heretic.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the English interest in France, notwithstanding the amazing courage of Talbot, the first earl of Shrewsbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its disunion at home. The duke of Gloucester lost his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret, daughter to the needy king of Sicily, a woman of a high spirit, but an implacable disposition, while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject in England. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngest son, and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose, that of the house of Lancaster being red. It is certain, he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right, but acted at first with a most profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profest enemy to the duke of York, but being impeached in parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship by a common sailor. This was followed by Cade's insurrection, which was suppressed by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen seemed to be perfectly secure against the duke of York. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a strong party of

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of the nobility his friends, but being considered as the fomentor of Cade's rebellion, he profest the most profound reverence to Henry.

The persons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Salisbury, and his son the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greatest land estate of any subject in England, and his vast abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York, and during a fit of illness of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, assembling an army, the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St. Alban's, and the king himself was taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more declared, protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakness became every day more and more visible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the mask, and in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the King-maker. A parliament upon this being assembled, it was enacted, that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromise. She retreated northwards, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain in 1460.

It is pretty extraordinary, that though the duke of York, and his party, openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the second battle of St. Alban's, she delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northwards. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

It may be proper to observe, that this civil war was carried on with greater animosity, than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood thirsty as her opponents, and when prisoners of either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, which disoblged the great earl of Warwick so much, that he be-

came his enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward's brother, Edward was made prisoner, but escaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king Lewis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly escaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York, but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, made king Henry once more his prisoner, and defeated and killed the haughty earl of Warwick, and his brother in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son, prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Gloucester, murdered in cold blood, as he is said (but with no great shew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a prisoner in the Tower of London, a few days after. Edward being now settled on the throne, was guilty of the utmost cruelty to all the Lancastrian party, whom he put to death, wherever he could find them, so that they were threatened with utter extermination.

The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond. He was descended from John Beaufort, the eldest son of the earl of Somerset, who was the eldest son of John of Gaunt, by his last wife Catharine Swineford, but born in adultery, during her husband's life-time. This disability, however, was afterwards removed, both by the pope and by the parliament, and the descendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The said lord, John, duke of Somerset, left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, and their son was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.) who, at the time I treat of, lived in France, to secure himself from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may see, from the detail of this important genealogy, that the young earl of Richmond had not the smallest claim in blood (even supposing the illegitimacy of his ancestors had been removed) to the crown of England.

The kingdom of England was, in 1474, in a deplorable situation. The king was immersed in expensive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men, who, to support their extravagancies, he came pensioners to the French king. The parliament seemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The best blood in England was shed on scaffolds, and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealousy. Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expences of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat, with France, but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-second of his age. He was remarkable for his courage, and the beauty of his person, but in other respects he was a monster of mankind.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of, by the English, as the only means to preserve to themselves the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandize, but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which was imported into England by William Caxton, and received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign,

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but learning in general was then in a poor state in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman, who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton, are mostly re-translations or compilations from the French, or Monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English, than it did in any other European nation.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son, Edward V. was about thirteen, and his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to bastardize her issue, by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and, at last, accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners, having first put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king, and his brother, were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was afterwards well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and by offering to marry his eldest daughter, he was encouraged to invade England, at the head of about 2000 foreign troops, but they were soon joined by 7000 English and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth-field, in which Richard, after displaying most astonishing acts of personal valour, was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanley, and his brother.

There can scarcely be a doubt, that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by historians. He was exemplary in his distributive justice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whose oppressions he abolished, and was a father to the common people. He founded the society of heralds, an institution, which, in his time, was found necessary to prevent disputes among great families. During his reign, short as it was, we have repeated instances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than seventy-two different kinds being prohibited importation by one act. He was the first English king who appointed a consul for the superintendancy of English commerce abroad, one Strozzi being nominated for Pisa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Englishmen imported to or exported from thence. I shall not enter into the subject of the concern he had in the supposed murder of his two nephews, but only observe, that the parliament, by infamously bastardizing them, cut them off from the succession to the crown.

Tho' the same act of bastardy affected the daughters, as well as the sons of the late king, yet no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaster, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay no regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the most sagacious monarch that ever had reigned in England: but, at the same time, the most jealous of his power, for he shut up the earl of Warwick, son to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. a close prisoner in the Tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alledged against him but his propinquity to the house of York. He was the first who instituted that guard called Yeomen, which still subsists, and in imitation of his predecessor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries, and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, by assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were easily suppressed, as was the imposture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the imprisoned earl of Warwick. The despotic court of star chamber, owed its original to Henry, but, at the same time, it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects. They expressed their gratitude, by the great supplies and benevolences they afforded him, and as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, though its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had broken with irresistible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges, and thus the baronial powers were soon extinguished in England.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the possession of his throne, by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as such by the dukes of Burgundy, Edward's sister. We shall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon, but it is certain that many of the English, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction, and though James IV. of Scotland dismissed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldest daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and dismissed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impostor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged,

and the earl beheaded. It is said, that Perkin made a confession of his impostures before his death, but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either upon the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldest son, Arthur, prince of Wales, was married to the princess Catharine, of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying soon after, such was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, that he consented to her being married again to his second son, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after, Henry's eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was sent with a most magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, was possessed of 1,800,000 l. sterling, which is equivalent to five millions at present, so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than all the kings in Europe besides possessed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked.

I have already mentioned the vast alteration which happened in the constitution of England, during Henry VII's reign. His excessive love of money was the probable reason why he did not become master of the West Indies, he having the first offer of the discovery from Columbus. He made however amends by encouraging Cabot, who discovered North America, and we may observe, to the praise of this king, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money, without interest; when he knew, that their stock was not sufficient for those enterprizes, which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living produced by Madox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle must have been prodigiously advanced, before Henry's death; an instance of this is given in the case of lady Anne, sister to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20 s. per week, for her exhibition, sustentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; also, for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight persons) 5 l. 11 s. 8 d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and cloathing, by the year; and for the maintenance of seven horses yearly, 16 l. 9 s. 4 d. *i. e.* for each horse 2 l. 7 s. 0 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ yearly, money being still 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ times as weighty as our modern silver coin. Wheat was that year no more than 3 s. 4 d. a quarter, which answers to 5 s. of our money, consequently it was about seven times as cheap as at present; so that had all other necessaries been equally cheap, she could have lived as well as on 1260 l. 10 s. 6 d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at present.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the succession of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy, and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exercise of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe, but it is certain, that he neglected these advantages in commerce, with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not stand in need of a supply, he did not improve Cabot's discoveries, and he suffered the East and West Indies to be engrossed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conquest of all France. These projects, and his establishing what is properly called a navy royal, for the permanent defence of the nation (a most excellent measure)

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led him into incredible expences. He was on all occasions the dupe of the emperor Maximilian, the poorest prince in Europe, and early in his reign he gave himself almost entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolsey. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant, the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England, and he became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles, but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at last he was forced to lay vast burdens upon his subjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes, and the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, about 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his successors retain to this day, but about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I shall not say, how far on this occasion he might be influenced by the charms of the famous Anne Bullen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this process, ruined Wolley, who died of heart-break, after being stript of his immense power and possessions, and had introduced into the king's favour Cramer, who was afterwards archbishop of Canterbury.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation, in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty measure, had it not been for his despotic disposition, which broke out on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of his new queen's inconstancy, and after a sham trial, he cut off her head, and put to death some of her nearest relations, and he was declared arbitrary by repeated acts of parliament, which assembled only as a board to execute his pleasures. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the immense wealth that came to Henry, by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition, so that the best and most innocent blood of England was daily shed on scaffolds, and few days passed that were not marked with some illustrious victim of his tyranny. Among others was the aged countess of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to the cardinal Pole, the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves. He disliked her so much, that he scarce bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he suffered her to reside in England, on a pension of 3000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was queen Catherine Par, in whose possession he died, after narrowly escaping
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being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty encreased with his years. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and the thirty-eighth of his reign.

The state of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval security of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the despotic power he was possessed of, in many respects for the glory and interest of his subjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it must be candidly confessed, that had the reformation gone through all the forms prescribed by the laws, and the courts of justice, it probably never could have taken place, or at least not for many years; and whatever Henry's personal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby rescuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly founded the present greatness of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus, which is another name for learning itself. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houses began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the instruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the bible was ordered to be printed in English. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerset, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome. Much of the popish leaven, however, still remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward. The protector defeated the Scots at Pinkie, but the match never took place; and the factions now forming against the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who had married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies, and she dying, he made his addresses to the princess Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a handle to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block, where he lost his head.

The reader is to observe in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reign of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vast relief they had from abbey and religious houses, and being ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often suppressed by the government; and several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out

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with Scotland; and the protector, who was, upon the whole, a weak, but conscientious man, was so intent upon religion, that he was first driven from the helm of state, and then lost his head upon a scaffold, by a faction formed equally of papists and pretended protestants. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a sincere protestant, into many impolitic acts, so that upon the whole England never made a poorer figure than it did in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and other, some of them foreign, divines. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation, which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some cruel sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame, and his charitable endowments, which still exist and flourish, shew the goodness of his heart. He died of a deep consumption in 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age, and the seventh of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will, for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister to Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her seventeenth year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognized the claim of the princess Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her husband lord Guilford Dudley, son to the duke of Northumberland, who suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, and proceeded like a female fury to re-establish popery, which she did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from banishment, made him the principal instrument of her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed; not to mention a vast number of other sacrifices of both sexes, and all ranks, that suffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner, bishop of London, and Gardiner bishop of Winchester, were, under Pole, the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her protestant subjects.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praise of her reign is, that by the marriage articles provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops, which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the forty-second year of her life. "In the heat of her persecuting flames, (says a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to ashes, 5 bishops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 husbandmen, servants, and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, springing out of the mother's womb from the stake as she burned, thrown again into the fire."

Elizabeth,

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Bullen, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the established religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary queen of Scots, grand-child to Henry VII's eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and soul of the popish cause, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than twenty-five years of age, at the time of her inauguration, but her sufferings, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and she soon conquered all difficulties. Even to mention every glorious action of her reign, would far exceed my bounds, I shall therefore here only touch on the great lines of her government.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprizing facility, for in her first parliament, in 1559, the laws establishing popery were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed soon after. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scotch malecontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage, and her other misfortunes drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had been often promised a safe and an honourable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner for eighteen years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, and, without the least proof of guilt, cut off her head, an action which must have tarnished all the glories of her reign had it been a thousand times more splendid than it was.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed, in fact, the main business of her government, they exhibit different scenes of wonderful events, partly arising from her own masterly conduct, partly from the sagacity of her statesmen, and partly from the intrepidity of her forces by sea and land.

Philip, upon her accession to the throne, offered to marry her, but she dextrously avoided his addresses; and by a train of skilful negociations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She sometimes supported the protestants of France; and she sometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the same time in so good humour with her government, that it shewed no resentment when she cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amused and baffled him in every quarter; it is well known that he made use of the immense sums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the best captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. No reader can be so uninformed as to be ignorant of the consequences, that the largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they engaged;

Elizabeth,

gaged; that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days, and that the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, and that few of the Spanish ships recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, Captain Hawkins, and Captain Forb'sher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 81 ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had sent her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independency upon Spain, and then she sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the East and West Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treasures taken from the Spaniards into England.

After the death of the earl of Leicester, the young earl of Essex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz in Spain, destroyed the ships in the harbour, and did other damages to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she seized him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure, and this occasioned a sinking of her spirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, having previously named James, king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.

The above, as I have already hinted, form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign, and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She supported the protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which the king of Spain was the head. She crushed the papists in her own dominions for the same reason, and made a further reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In 1600 the English East-India company received its first formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portuguese, who were subjects to Spain; and factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the English princes had usually recourse to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was so low, that, besides the exorbitant interest of ten or twelve per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the security. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the Grand Signior had always conceived England to be a dependant province of France. About 1590 there were in London four persons only rated in the subsidy book so high as four hundred pounds. In 1567 there were found on enquiry to be 4851 strangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the successes of her reign have disguised it, for she was far from being a friend to personal liberty, and she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights

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of Englishmen. Before I close this short account of her reign, I am to observe, that through the practices of the Spaniards with the Irish Roman Catholics, the found great difficulty to keep that island in subjection, and at the time of her death her government there had gone into great disorder.

We can scarce require a stronger proof that the English began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy testified by all ranks at the accession of her successor, notwithstanding the long inveterate animosities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being destitute of natural abilities for government, but he had received wrong impressions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconstitutional powers that had been exercised by Elizabeth and the house of Tudor; and while he was boasting of an almost unlimited prerogative, there was not so much as a single regiment in England to maintain his extensive claims; a sufficient proof that he sincerely believed his pretensions to be well grounded. He made no allowances for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as I have observed, disguised her most arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal sentiments which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffused through England. It is needless, perhaps, to point out the vast increase of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the English at the same time to defend their liberties. James's first attempt of great consequence was to effect a union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the aversion of the English to that measure, he shewed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gun-powder treason, the particulars of which are well known.

I have taken notice, in several preceding parts of this work, of the vast obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince; and, in fact, he laid the foundations of all the advantages which the English have reaped from either. That his pedantry was ridiculous cannot be denied; and it is certain that he had no just ideas of the English constitution and liberties. This led him into many absurd disputes with his parliament, and has thrown a most disagreeable shade upon his memory. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, I may venture to affirm that it was productive of many blessings to England; and though his perpetual negotiations have given rise to much satire against his person and government, yet they were less expensive and destructive to his people than any wars he could have entered into. He restored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon discharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he procured from Spain at the same time an acknowledgment of their independency.

James gave his daughter the princess Elizabeth in marriage to the elector palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and he soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour after that prince had lost his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be observed that he always opposed his son-in-law's assuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinstate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the same, excepting the feeble and uncertain

uncertain assistance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing, however, is more certain than that James furnished the elector with large sums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raised a regiment of 2200 men, under Sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anspach, refused to second them against Spinola the Spanish general, and that the elector hurt his own cause by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops instead of Anspach.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His first was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raised to be first minister and earl of Somerset. He married the countess of Essex, who had obtained a divorce from her husband, and was with her found guilty of poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary as is said to a solemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign. James had at that time formed a system of policy to himself for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West-Indies. James having lost his eldest son Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popish match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his son Charles, who had succeeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the son as the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and against the king's will they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played, but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Bristol, who was then ambassador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands; but at last he agreed to his son's marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. He died before the completion of this match, and it is thought that had he lived, he would have discarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. As to the progress of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already described. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture in England. His was the golden reign for theological learning; and under him poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princess Henrietta Maria. He seems to have been but a cold lover, and he quarrelled with and sent back her favourite attendants a few days after her arrival in England. On the other hand she had a high spirit, disdained and disliked every thing that was incompatible in government with her Italian and arbitrary education, and was a disagreeable wife, notwithstanding her husband's submission and tenderness. The spirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles early

gave such indications of his partiality for Buckingham, and his own despotick temper; that the parliament was remiss in furnishing him with money for carrying on the war. In a short time Buckingham persuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots, in their quarrel with that crown. They were so ill supported, though Charles was sincere in serving them, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the protestant interest received an irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miscarriages and disgraces was thrown by, the almost unanimous voice both of the parliament and people upon the favourite; but he sheltered himself from their vengeance under the royal protection till he was murdered by one Felton, a subaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which soon after surrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots in that enlightened age considered as so many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impositions upon trade, which were refused to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the house of commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The house of commons resenting those proceedings by drawing up a protest, and denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finished. This served only to widen the breach, and the king dissolved the parliament, after which he exhibited informations against nine of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court, but their plea was overruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The commons had voted him no money even for the maintenance of his household, and presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all understood, he levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such necessaries, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Bostwick, a physician, all of them men of mean parts, but desperately resolute and fiery, sounded the trumpet of sedition, and their punishments were so severe that they increased the unpopularity of the government. Unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud archbishop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himself, both in church and state. Laud advised him to persecute the puritans, and to introduce the religion of the church of England into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connections with the discontented English, and invaded England, where Charles was so ill-served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party being sincere in observing the terms, and Charles discovering that some of their great men had offered to throw themselves under the protection of the French king, he raised a fresh army by virtue of his prerogative. All his preparations, however, were baffled by the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham, and being openly befriended by the house of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with so bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpose, that it did him no service; on the contrary it

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encouraged

encouraged the commons to rise in their demands. He had made Wentworth earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, president of the council of the north, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been at the head of the opposition, and by changing his party he became so much the object of public detestation, that they forced Charles in an illegal and imperious manner to consent to the cutting off his head; and Laud lost his soon after in like manner.

Charles, when it was too late, saw the necessity of moderation, and sought to recover the affections of his people by passing the Petition of Right, and agreed to other popular demands made by the commons. This compliance did him no service. A rebellion broke out in Ireland, where the protestants were massacred by the papists, and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them out of hatred to his English subjects. The bishops were expelled the house of peers, and the leaders of the English house of commons kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles was ill enough advised to go in person to the house of commons, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haselrig, and Mr. Stroud, should be apprehended, but they previously had made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them. The city of London took the alarm, and the accused members into its protection. The train-bands were raised, and the mobs were so unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkshire, where he raised an army to face that which the parliament, or rather the house of commons, had raised in and about London.

That the nation in general did not think their liberties in danger, or that the king was a tyrant, appears from the alacrity and numbers with which he was served, and which was composed of three fourths of the landed property of England. The parliament, however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by many of the trading towns and corporations, but its great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave, but not an enterprising commander, but he had great dependence on his nephews the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector palatine, by his sister the princess Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war the sense of honour which prevailed among the king's officers was too strong for the principles on which the parliament forces fought, but a spirit of enthusiasm catching the latter, it became too powerful for honour. The earl of Essex was made general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edge-hill in Warwickshire, in October 1642; but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles; for the parliament was so much distressed, that they invited the Scots to come to their assistance, and they accordingly invaded England anew, with about 20,000 horse and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houses met; but his enemies continued still sitting at Westminster, where they prosecuted their animosities against the royalists with great fury. The independent party, which had scarcely before been thought of, began now to unmask themselves and to figure at Westminster. They equally hated the presbyterians, who till then had conducted the rebellion, as they did the royalists, and such

was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed, for dismissing the earls of Essex, and Manchester, and the heads of the presbyterians, from the parliament's service, and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, tho' a presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with unremitting fury on both sides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise many other successes, and having defeated Sir William Waller, he pursued the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to escape by sea, but his infantry surrendered themselves prisoners to the royalists, though his cavalry delivered themselves by their valour.

The first fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marston-moor; where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken prisoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell, and though it might have been retrieved by the successes of Charles in the west, yet his whole conduct was a string of mistakes, till at last, his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were set on foot during the war, and the heads of the presbyterian party would have agreed to terms, that would have bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted, betrayed, and overruled, by the independents, who were assisted by the stiffness, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himself. In short, the independents at last succeeded, in persuading the members at Westminster, that Charles was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royalists rushed into ruin. Sir Thomas Fairfax, whose father, lord Fairfax, remained in the north, was at the head of the army, which was now new modelled, so that Charles by piecemeal lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, owing partly as usual to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark, and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians, but the best and most loyal friends Charles had thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy situation of his affairs, he escaped in disguise from Oxford to the Scotch army before Newark; upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated, by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that they put the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, not suspecting the fatal consequences.

The presbyterians now saw, more than ever, the necessity of making peace with the king, but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The latter now avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners in June 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned forty-one of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and that of the commons was reduced to 150 independents, and most of them officers of the army. In the mean while Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and some-

times cajoled by the independents, with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried, and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an escape, to put himself into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the isle of Wight. A fresh negotiation was begun and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, once more seized upon the king's person, brought him a prisoner to London, carried him before a mock court of justice, of their own erecting, and after a sham trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and there is reason to believe, that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that had he been restored to his throne, he would have become a most excellent prince. This undoubtedly was the sense of his people, at the time of his murder, as it was universally detested by all but the partisans, who brought him to the block, and were heated by enthusiasm. Many, in the course of the rebellion, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became sincere converts to his cause, in which they lost their lives and fortunes, and never did any prince die more generally lamented, than he did, by his people. We cannot reflect upon the great loss of lives, to the amount at least of one hundred thousand fighting men, during the six years of the civil war, without being inclined to think that England was more populous then, than it is now. Though the history of that period has been minutely related, by writers of all parties, who had the very best opportunities to know the true state of the nation, yet we do not find that the loss of men had any influence upon agriculture or commerce, or the exercise of the common arts of life, and provisions rather sunk than rose in their value. The surviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were successively kings of England, Henry, duke of Gloucester, who died soon after his brother's restoration; the princess Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William, prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princess Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whose daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different persuasions and principles, but many of them possessed most amazing abilities for government. They omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England, and it cannot be denied, that after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things, for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the presbyterians, and both factions hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots, at the battles of Dunbar, and Worcester. The same commonwealth passed an act of navigation, and declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible at sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated the republic, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the other English admirals, carried the terror of the English name by sea, to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten, for which reason he went without any ceremony, with a file of musqueteers, dissolved the parliament, and opprobriously drove all the members out of their house. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to about a hundred and forty persons, whom he summoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea, were fought in little more than the compass of one year, and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he must encounter unsurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he should persist in his resolution. He was however declared lord protector of the commonwealth of England, a title, under which he exercised all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to new model the government, and various were the schemes that were proposed, established, and proved abortive. Those schemes, however, were temporary, and suited to each juncture, nor have we any high idea of Cromwell's political capacity, but in his management of the army, by which he did every thing. He was openly or secretly thwarted by people of property all over England, and however dazzled historians have been with his amazing fortune and power, it appears, from the best evidences, that during the continuance of his protectorate, he was perpetually distressed for money, to keep the wheels of his government going.

His wants at last led him into the fatal error of taking part with France against Spain, in hopes that the rich Spanish prizes would supply him with ready money. He lent the French court 6000 men, and Dunkirk being taken by their assistance from the Spaniards, he took possession of it. Finding that his usurpation gave as much discontent to his own party, as terror to the royalists, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the constitution, and actually erected a house of lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted either in England, or Scotland, more despotically than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. Historians, in drawing a character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult Thurloc's, and other state papers, the imposition in a great measure vanishes. After a most uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died surrounded by enthusiasts, on the 3d of September, 1658, in the sixtieth year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had been treated with since the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell abolished, and who as it were instantaneously called forth the naval strength of the kingdom. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any fixed

plan of legislation, and his safety was owing to the different sentiments of government, that prevailed among the heads of the republic. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million, three hundred thousand pounds, of which a million went to the support of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the same year, Cromwell abolished all tenures *in capite*, by knight's service, and soccage in chief, and likewise the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewise removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to two millions, three hundred twenty-six thousand, nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by assessments, excise, and customs, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions, three hundred and sixty-two thousand pounds, four shillings.

Upon the whole it cannot be denied, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches as in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a sure symptom of encreasing commerce. The navigation act, that palladium of the English trade, was planned and established, though afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted to the vast advantage of population, and manufactures, which had suffered greatly by Laud's intolerant schemes having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations, we may add the modesty and frugality, introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increase their capitals. It appears however that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for, some time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. We know of no art or science, that was patronized by the usurper, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the person of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter, and his coins, done by Simons, exceed in beauty and workmanship any of that age. He is likewise said to have paid some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those entrusted with the care of youth at the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father Oliver, as protector, sufficiently proves the little forecast, which the latter had in matters of government, and his being almost totally unbefriended. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to make him the tool of their own government, and he was driven without the least struggle or opposition into contempt and obscurity. It is in vain for historians of any party to ascribe the restoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the usurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious subsistence) to the merits of any particular persons. It was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who found by experience, that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient constitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting such as served his ambition or interest; had the sagacity to observe this, and after temporising in various shapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in restoring Charles II. For this he was created duke

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Charles II. being restored in 1660, in the first year of his reign, seemed to be under no influence, but that of his people's happiness. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the excise for life, and in this act, coffee and tea are mentioned. By his long residence, and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England, the culture of many elegant vegetables, such as that of asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and several kinds of beans, peas, and sallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered, but neglected, by the English, during the late usurpation, was improved, and made a sugar colony. The Royal Society was instituted, and many popular acts respecting trade and colonization were passed. In short, Charles knew, and cultivated the true interests of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleasure, and sunk in indolence, failings that had the same consequences as despotism itself. He took a paternal concern in the sufferings of the citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666, and its being rebuilt with greater lustre and conveniences, is a proof of the increase of her trade; but there was no bound of Charles's love of pleasure, which led him into the most extravagant expences. He has been severely, but perhaps unjustly censured, for selling Dunkirk to the French king, to supply his necessities, after he had squandered the immense sums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000 l. sterling. In this he is more defensible, than he was in his secret connections with France. These are supposed to have brought on a war with the Dutch, but their behaviour and ingratitude to England, merited the severest chastisement.

The first symptoms of his degeneracy as a king, appeared in his giving way to the popular clamour, against the lord Clarendon, one of the wisest and most disinterested statesmen, that ever England could boast of, and sacrificing him to the sycophants of his pleasurable hours. The first Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on, with great resolution and spirit, under the duke of York, but through Charles's misapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England, by sailing up the Medway, as far as Chatham, and destroyed several capital ships of war. Soon after this a peace was concluded at Breda, between Great Britain, and the States general, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands, and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, it was called the triple alliance.

If we look into the history of those times, we shall find that the humbling the power of France, was the ruling passion of almost all the rest of Europe; but at the same time that every state at enmity with her, had particular views of its own, which defeated every plan of confederacy against the French power. The situation of Charles, in this respect, was delicate. The insults and rivalry of the Dutch, were intolerable to the trading part of his people, but his parliament thought that all considerations ought to give way to the humiliation of the French king. Charles found such opposition from his parliament, and such difficulties in raising money, that he was persuaded by his French mistress, the duchess of Portsmouth, to throw himself into the arms of the French king, who promised to supply him with money, sufficient to enable him to rule without a parliament. This has always been a capital

pital charge against Charles II. and it had, I am apt to think, too great a weight with his parliament, whose conduct, in some particulars, is not to be vindicated.

In 1671, Charles was so ill advised as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8 l. per cent. and to shut up the Exchequer. This was an indefensible step, and Charles pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almost proved fatal to that republic. In this war the English fleet, and army, acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that station. The duke of Monmouth, the eldest and favourite natural son of Charles, commanded 6000 English forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries, and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch, who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and some very unforeseen circumstances.

All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the glory which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch. The popular clamour at last obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in consideration of 200,000 l. which was paid him; but in some things Charles acted very despotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up, but in a few days after to be opened. His parliament addressed him but in vain, to make war with France, in the year 1677, for he was now entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a pensioner. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly encreased, and Charles entered into many vigorous measures for its protection and support.

This gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more furious, and untractable, against the French and the Papists; at the head of whom was the king's eldest brother, and presumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles, notwithstanding the opposition he met with in parliament, knew that he had the affections of his people, but was too indolent to take advantage of that circumstance. He dreaded the prospect of a civil war, and offered any concessions to avoid it. The conduct of his parliament on this occasion is indefensible. Many of the members were bent upon such a revolution as afterwards took place, and were secretly determined, that the duke of York never should reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some other miscreants forged a plot, charging the papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jesuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than the whole of this forgery, yet it was supported by even a frantic zeal, on the part of the parliament. The aged and innocent lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other papists, were publicly executed on perjured evidences. The queen herself escaped with difficulty: the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an infamous imposture, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force. The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill advised duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers. All England was again in a

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same, but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, recovered the affections of his people, to an almost incredible degree.

The duke of York, and his party, made a scandalous use of their victory. They trumped up on their side a plot of the protestants for killing or seizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that which had been forged against the papists. The excellent lord Russell, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death, and the king set his foot upon the neck of opposition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, as were almost all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth, and the earl of Shaftesbury, were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and to have executed some measures for the future quiet of his reign, when he died in February, 1684-5, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa, but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters, are now among the most distinguished of the British nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, I have been sufficiently explicit as to the principles, both of the king and the opposition to his government. The heads of the latter were presbyterians, and had been greatly instrumental in the civil war against the king, and the usurpations that followed. They had been raised and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being useful in bringing their party into his measures, and he would probably have succeeded, had not the remains of the old royalists, and the dissipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleasure. The presbyterians, however, availed themselves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervour of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament such a number of their friends, as rendered the reign of Charles very uneasy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them, that civil liberty, and protestantism, now exist in the English government. On the other hand, they seem to have carried their jealousy of a popish successor too far, and the people, without doors, certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been satisfied with the legal restraints and disabilities, which Charles offered to impose upon his successor. This gave such a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, masters of the laws and liberties of England.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and debauchery, but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was the nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers, however, were found, who could admire Milton, as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England so well supplied with preachers, as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witness the stile of sermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics, and natural philosophy. Charles loved, patronized and understood the arts, more than he encouraged, or rewarded them, especially those of English growth, but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedness but indolence, and want of reflection.

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If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the first English prince, who formed a body of standing forces, as guards to his person, it ought to be remembered, at the same time, that he carried the art of ship-building to the highest perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its finest improvements to his, and his brother's complete knowledge of naval affairs and architecture.

All the opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seem to have vanished, at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined protestantism. The army and people supported him, in crushing the ill formed and indeed wicked rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and, as such, had assumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, James desperately resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed him. He made the most provoking steps to render popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws; he instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, he openly received and admitted into his privy-council, the pope's emissaries, and gave them more respect than was due to the ministers of a sovereign prince. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almost beyond description, and were disapproved of by the pope himself, and all sober Roman catholics. His sending to prison, and prosecuting for a libel, seven bishops, for presenting a petition against reading his declaration, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his best protestant friends.

Many great men, who wished well to James, applied for relief to the prince of Orange, his son-in-law in Holland, who undertook it on pretence of restoring church and state to their due rights. The prince landed; his daughter Anne, princess of Denmark, her husband, and many of the best friends of James left him, and joined the prince of Orange, who soon discovered that he expected the crown. James might still have reigned, but he was surrounded with French emissaries, and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign rather than not restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen and son, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person, which he did, and thus in 1688, ended his reign in England.

This short reign affords little matter for the national progress in its true interests. James is allowed, on all hands, to have understood them, and that had it not been for his bigotry, he would have been a most excellent king of England. The writings of the English divines against popery, in this reign, are esteemed to be the most masterly pieces of controversy that ever were published on that subject.

Had it not been for the baleful influence of the Jesuits over James, the prince of Orange might have found his views upon the crown frustrated. The conduct of James gave him advantages, he could not have hoped for. Few were in the prince's secret, and when a convention of the states was called, it was plain, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princess of Orange. Even that was not done without long debates. It is well known that

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king William's chief object, was to humble the power of France, and his reign was spent in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were supported by England, at an expence she had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, thro' the experience of the two last reigns, and he gave his consent to the bill of rights, which contained all the people could claim, for the preservation of their liberties. The two last kings had made a very bad use of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be sufficient to raise and maintain a standing army. The revenue was therefore divided, part was allotted for the current national service of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament, and part, which is still called the civil list money, was given to the king, for the support of his house and dignity.

It was the just sense the people had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke the people of England to agree to the late revolution, for they never in other respects had been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity, as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England, was in the same proportion. It was therefore no wonder, if a strong party, both in the parliament and nation, was formed against the government, which was hourly increased by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expence, and the Irish continued in general, faithful to king James. Many English, who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being restored by conquest, and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne against James, who there lost all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France, however, proved superior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue, which the French feel to this day.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered every day against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal, were the heaviest taxed, and this preposterous burthen still continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances, that ever took place, was established in this reign, which was carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary securities, which form what are now called the public funds. The chief projector of this scheme, is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the moneyed part of the nation to befriend the revolution interest, because after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid, but by supporting that interest, and that the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious. How well those views have been answered, is needless to observe, as I have already mentioned the present state of public credit.

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William, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the recoining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being supported in his war with France, but at last, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryswick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had lost his queen, but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, all but an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign his fears of seeing the whole Spanish monarchy in possession of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic measure, which was the Partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houses of Bourbon and Austria. This treaty was highly resented by the parliament, and some of his ministry were impeached for advising it. It is thought that William saw his error when it was too late. His ministers were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James discovered the insincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his son king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houses passed the bill of abjuration, and an address for a war with France. The last and most glorious act of William's reign was his passing the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, on the twelfth of June 1701. His death was hastened by a fall he had from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the eighth of March 1702, new stile. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding. His notions of national government inclined towards despotism; and it was observed, that though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he favoured the Tories, as often as he could do it with safety. The rescue and preservation of religion and public liberty were the only glories of William's reign, for England under him suffered severely both by sea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the then unheard of sum of fourteen millions. I have nothing to add after this, as to the general state of England in the beginning of the eighteenth century.

Anne, princess of Denmark, being the next protestant heir to her father James II. succeeded king William in the throne. As she had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought she would have deviated from his measures, but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has since been well known by the name of the pretender, left her no choice, and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a statesman, for that earl excelled in both. No sooner was he placed at the head of the English army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen. The

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capital measure of continuing the war against France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her ministry, who were for the most part Tories, and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treasury. His son had married the earl of Marlborough's eldest daughter, and the earl could trust no other with that important department.

I shall hereafter have occasion to mention the glorious victories obtained by the earl, who was soon made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramilies gave the first most effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, the empire of Germany was saved from immediate destruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confessedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken prisoner, and sent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time the English admiral, Sir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramilies was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy there has been variously reported; it is generally supposed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners; but the consequences shewed its importance.

Phillip, duke of Anjou, had, in consequence of his predecessor's will, been recognised by king William as king of Spain, but his succession was disputed by the archduke of Austria, who took upon himself the title of Charles III. and his cause was favoured by the confederates. After the battle of Ramilies the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognised him for their sovereign; while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant, and acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken prisoners, and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, with the loss of about 20,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering successes of the English, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though some advantages were obtained at sea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment if not to the disgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, husband to the queen, was then lord high admiral, but he had trusted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant, and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the house of commons were put in very bad humour, nor did things seem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immense sums raised for the current service of the year being severely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, it appeared that England had borne the chief burden of the war; that neither the Austrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furnished their stipulated quotas,
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and that they trusted to the English parliament for making them good. A noble design, which had been planned at the court, and was to have been executed by the assistance of the fleet of England, for taking Toulon, at a vast expence, miscarried through the selfishness of the court of Vienna, whose chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the same time England felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures, and the French king, the haughty Lewis XIV. professed his readiness to agree to almost any terms the English should prescribe.

These and many other internal disputes about the prerogative, the succession, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferment in the nation and parliament. The queen stuck close to the duke of Marlborough and his friends, who finding that the Tories inclined to treat with France, put themselves at the head of the Whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents received immense emoluments. The failures of the Germans and Dutch could not however be longer dissembled, and the personal interest of the duchess of Marlborough with the queen began to be shaken by her own insolence.

The Whigs at last were forced to give way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townshend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. It soon appeared that the English plenipotentiaries were not in earnest, and that the Dutch were entirely guided by the duke of Marlborough. The French king was gradually brought to comply with all the demands of the allies, excepting that of employing his own troops against the duke of Anjou, his grandson, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued still doubtful. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his associate, and the war was continued.

The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg saved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in their favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was not destitute of sense, and faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, must prove ruinous to her and her people; and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the people was that the church was in danger, which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's case. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough, and the Whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by Tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms; but they were disregarded by the queen's allies in the British pay.

Conferences were opened for a peace at Utrecht to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries, and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. In short the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed

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of the particular cessions made by the French, especially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been indefensible had it not been for the death of the emperor Joseph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain, and the bad faith of the English allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the British parliament almost the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhausted state of the kingdom. Mr. Harley, who was created earl of Oxford, and lord high treasurer of England, was then considered as the queen's first minister, but the negotiations for the peace went through the hands of Mr. Harley and lord Bolingbroke, one of the principal secretaries of state. The ministry endeavoured to stifle the complaints of the whigs, and the remonstrances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accused of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical situation. The whigs, without attempting to answer the arguments of the Tories for peace, condemned it as shameful. The majority of the house of lords was of that party, but that of the house of commons were Tories. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exercise of her prerogative she created twelve peers at one time, which secured the approbation of the parliament for the peace. Such was the state of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their completion that the queen had by some secret influence, which never has yet been discovered, and was even concealed from her ministers, inclined to call her brother to the succession. The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the jarring of parties. The whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England, and she was obliged to dismiss her lord treasurer, when she fell into a lethargic disorder, which carried her off the first of August 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign. I have nothing to add to what I have already said of her character, but that though she was a favourite with neither party in her parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the Tories affected to idolize her, yet her people dignified her with the name of the Good queen Anne. Notwithstanding all I have said of the exhausted state of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions, so firm was the dependence of the people upon the security of parliament.

Anne had not strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important resolve into execution; and she left public measures in so indecise a state, that upon her death the succession took place in terms of the act of settlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king of Great Britain, his mother, who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the Tory ministry, most of whom he displaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; while the Scots were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily suppressed the beginning of the next year. Some deluded noblemen and gentlemen in the north of England joined a party of the Scotch rebels, but they were surrounded at Preston, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were sent prisoners to London, where some of them suffered.

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The Tories and Jacobites, however, raised mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England, but they were soon suppressed by making their ringleaders examples of justice. Lord Oxford was imprisoned for three years, but the capital prosecution of him by the Whigs for the hand he had in the peace of Utrecht, was secretly disapproved of by the king, and dropped.

After all, the nation was in such a disposition that the ministry durst not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was sitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to seven years, which is thought to have been the greatest stretch of parliamentary power ever known. Several other extraordinary measures took place about the same time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent speaker, and member of parliament, was sent to the Tower for saying that the king's speech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for composing a silly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadversion. The truth is, the Whig ministry were excessively jealous of every thing that seemed to affect their master's title, and George I. though a sagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar about their German concerns, and had not the king of Sweden been killed so critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by those northern conquerors.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance, that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the states general; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, destroyed the Spanish fleet near Syracuse. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was soon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily.

A national punishment different from plague, pestilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the sudden rise of the South-Sea Stock, one of the trading companies. This company was but of late creation, and was owing to a scheme of carrying on an exclusive trade, and making a settlement in the South seas, which had been formed in 1711. In 1720 the company obtained an act to encrease their capital stock by redeeming the public debts; and was then invested with the assiento of negroes, which had been stipulated between Great Britain and Spain. In short, it became so favourite a company, that by the twentieth of June this year, their stock rose to 800 per cent. and afterwards to 1000; but before the end of September it fell to 150, by which millions were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconsiderate avarice of the subscribers, yet the public imagined that the ministry had contributed to the calamity; and some of the directors insinuated as if the ministers and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the address to escape without censure, but the parliament passed a bill which confiscated the estates of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance; a poor reparation for the public injuries.

The Jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national discontent of the South-sea scheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day encreased. One Lyster, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high-treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction

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were apprehended on suspicion, but the storm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord bishop of Rochester, who was deprived of his see and seat in parliament, and banished for life. This must have been at best an idle plot, and the reality of it has never been discovered, so that the justice of the bishop's censure has been questioned. After the ferment of this plot had subsided, the ministry, who were all in the interest of Hanover, ventured upon several bold measures, in some of which the national interest if not honour was evidently sacrificed to that electorate. The crown of Great Britain was engaged in every continental dispute, however remote it was from her interest; and a difference still subsisting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna, it was agreed that it should be determined by a congress to be held at Cambray, under the auspices of France. This congress proved abortive, and England was involved in fresh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that in September 1725, a fresh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the West Indies to watch the Spanish plate fleets. This last was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and most of his men perished by epidemical diseases, and the hulks of his ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They lost near 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise. The king, in his speech to the parliament, publicly accused the emperor of a design to place the pretender upon the throne of Great Britain, but this was strenuously denied by baron Palmer, the imperial resident at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

A quarrel with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an opposition in the house of commons was formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more lavish in granting money, and raising enormous subsidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hesse Cassel. Such was the state of affairs in Europe, when George I. suddenly died on the eleventh of June 1727, at Osnaburgh, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. This period is too late to offer any thing new by way of observation on national improvements. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects, to which it gave rise, and for the great alteration of the system of Europe, by the concern which the English took in the affairs of the continent. The institution of the sinking fund for diminishing the national debt, is likewise owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better understood than formerly, and the state of manufactures began to shift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal distribution of the land tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to subsist in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their estates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died, and some differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought upon the accession of the latter to the crown that Sir Robert would be displaced. That might

have been the case could another person have been found equally capable, as he was, to manage the house of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none perhaps ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the house of commons itself, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, because he thought that war must be fatal to his power. The times are too recent for me to enter upon particulars. It is sufficient to say, that during his long administration he never lost a question that he was in earnest to carry. The excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an insurrection, or endangered his interest in the next general election. Having compromised all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embassies and negotiations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the subsidies paid to the German princes for the security of Hanover, and had even the address to obtain from time to time votes of credit for fulfilling his intermediate engagements, and in the mean while, to amuse the public, he suffered enquiries into the state of the jails, and other matters that did not affect his own power, to proceed.

His pacific system brought him, however, into inconveniencies both at home and abroad. He encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the British shipping in the American seas, and the French to treat the English court with insolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themselves slighted, and they interested themselves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the disgust of the people at the proposed excise scheme, about the years 1736 and 1737, increased the minority in the house of commons to 130, but some of those were as able men and as good speakers as ever had sat in a parliament, and taking advantage of the increasing complaints against the Spaniards, they gave the minister great uneasiness. Having thus shewn Walpole's administration in the unfavourable, it is but just we turn to the most advantageous light it will admit of.

He filled the courts of justice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perversion of the known laws of the kingdom. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two prosecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them, and it cannot be denied that the press of England never was more open or free than during his administration. If he managed the majority of parliament by corruption, which is the main charge against him, it is not to be denied that his enemies were often influenced by no very laudable motives, and that the attempt they made, without specifying any charge, to remove him from his majesty's councils and presence for ever, was illegal and unjust. As to his pacific system, it certainly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to support it, by the increase of her trade and the improvement of her manufactures.

With regard to the king's own personal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his minister than his favourite, and his majesty often hinted to him, as Walpole himself has been heard to acknowledge, that

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he was responsible for all the measures of government. The debates concerning the Spanish depredations, and the proofs that were brought to support the complaints of the merchants, made at last an impression even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the opposition in both houses of parliament accused the minister of having by the treaty of Seville, and other negotiations, introduced a branch of the house of Bourbon into Italy, and depressed the house of Austria, the ancient and natural ally of England. They exposed, with invincible force of eloquence and reasoning, the injustice and disgrace as well as loss arising from the Spanish depredations, and the necessity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert adhered to his pacific system, and concluded a shameful and indefensible compromise, under the title of a convention, with the court of Spain, that it produced a war with that nation.

Queen Caroline, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister, but she died when a variance subsisted between the king and his son the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the provision to which his birth entitled him, and he put himself at the head of the opposition with so much firmness, that it was generally foreseen that Walpole's power was drawing to a crisis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent with a squadron of six ships to the West Indies, where he took and demolished Porto Bello; but being a hot, impracticable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon Carthagena, in which many thousands of British lives were wantonly thrown away. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and imputed his miscarriages to the minister's starving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, so prevalent was the interest of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the minister, and after a few trying divisions he retired from the house, resigned his employments, and some days after was created earl of Orford.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour and posts of distinction upon the heads of the opposition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to the Austrian dominions) through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent causes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Grenville, an able, but a headstrong minister, whom George had made his secretary of state, and, indeed, by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, and his not succeeding his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions. This partiality created a universal flame in England, and the clamour raised against his lordship's measures was increased by the duke of Newcastle and his brother, lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other ministers, who resigned, or offered to resign their places if lord Carteret should retain his influence in the cabinet. His majesty was obliged to give way to what he thought was the voice of his people, and he indulged them with accepting the services of some gentlemen who never had been considered

as zealous friends to the house of Hanover. After various removals Mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the treasury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and consequently was considered as first minister, or rather the power of the premierhip was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcastle.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war both against the French and Spaniards, and her enemies fought to avail themselves of the general discontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, exceeded the bounds of duty. This naturally suggested to them the idea of applying to the pretender, who resided at Rome, and he agreed that his son, who was a sprightly young man, should repair to France, from whence he set sail, and narrowly escaped with a few followers in a frigate to the western coasts of Scotland, between the islands of Mull and Skey, where he discovered himself, assembled his followers, and published a manifesto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is necessary, before we relate the unaccountable success of this enterprize, to make a short retrospect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops, and it was thought that above 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt of Carthage, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negotiations in the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, which, though expensive, proved of little or no service to Great Britain, so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Lestock had suffered the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss, and soon after the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who declared war against the French in her turn. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war carried on a most lucrative trade, nor could they be brought to act against the French, till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition, and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which, indeed, had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with so bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earnest. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himself the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almost masters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege, but by the coldness of the Austrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, and misconduct some where else, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his best men, though it is generally allowed that his dispositions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England, with an immense treasure, which he had taken from the Spaniards, in his voyage round the world, and the English commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortress of Louisbourg in the island of Cape Breton.

Such was the state of affairs abroad in August 1745, when the pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprized and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. I shall only add to what I have already said of the progress and suppression of this rebellion, that it spread too great an alarm through England. The government never so thoroughly experienced as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the support of the revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for such there was at that time in England) had laid a deep scheme for distressing the Bank; but common danger abolished all distinctions, and united them in the defence of one interest, which was private property. The merchants undertook in their address to the king to support it, by receiving bank notes in payment. This seasonable measure saved public credit, but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, and the executions that followed, did not restore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, son-in-law to his majesty George II. was, by the credit of his majesty and the spirit of the people of the United Provinces, raised to be their stadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maëstricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English at sea, under the commands of the admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers, but the English arms were not so successful as could have been wished under rear admiral Boscawen in the East-Indies. In this state of affairs, the successes of the French and English during the war, may be said to have been balanced, and both ministries turned their thoughts to peace. The question is not yet decided which party had the greatest reason to desire it, the French and Spaniards for the immense losses they had sustained by sea, or the allies for the disgraces they had suffered by land.

Whatever may be in this, preliminaries for peace were signed in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix la Chapelle, in October, the basis of which was the restitution on both sides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the English in this war, from its commencement to the signing the preliminaries of peace, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French; and that they lost during the war, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. Several of the ships taken from the Spaniards were immensely rich; so that the balance upon the whole amounted to almost two millions, in favour of the English. Such is the gross calculation on both sides, but the consequences plainly proved that the losses of the French and Spaniards must have been much greater. The vast fortunes made by private persons all of a sudden, sufficiently shewed that immense sums had not been brought to the public account; but the greatest proof was, that next year the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldest stroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith, for the creditors of the government, after a small ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who sold out even made interest to have it replaced on the same security, or were paid off their principal sums out of the sinking fund. This was an era of improvements, Mr. Pelham's candour and rectitude of administration leaving him few or no enemies in parliament, and he omitted no opportunity of carrying into execution every scheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fisheries, the benefits of which were felt during the succeeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent person, however, considered the peace of Aix la Chapelle as no better than an armed cessation of hostilities. The French employed themselves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had laid a deep scheme for possessing themselves of the British back settlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the English and the native Indians, in which case our colonies must have been reduced to a narrow slip on the coasts, without the means of getting any subsistence but from the mother country. Fortunately for Great Britain they disclosed their intention by entering upon hostilities before they had power to support them.

In the mean while, a new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of a hundred thousand pounds, the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the asiento contract. In March 1750, died, universally lamented, his royal highness Frederic prince of Wales. In May 1751, an act passed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old stile was abolished, and the new stile established, to the vast conveniency of the subject. This was done by sinking eleven days in September 1752, and thereafter beginning the year on the first of January. In 1753 the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the subject is a point that is still very questionable. The public of England about this time sustained an immense loss by the death of Mr. Pelham, who was indisputably the honestest, wisest, the most popular, and therefore the most successful minister England had ever seen.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veteran troops to support those encroachments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after admiral Boscawen was ordered with eleven ships of the line, besides a frigate and two regiments, to sail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the rest of their fleet escaping up the river St. Laurence, by the straits of Belleisle. No sooner was it known that hostilities were begun, than the public of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were issued for making general reprisals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopped and brought into British ports. These orders were so effectual, that before the end of the year, above 300 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8000 of their best sailors were brought into British ports. This well-timed measure had such an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchant-men, nor to man their ships of war, for about two years after near 30,000 French seamen were found to be prisoners in England,

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In July 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciously sent from England to attack the French and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and Indians near Fort du Quesne; but major general Johnson defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

The English at this time could not be said to have any first minister; some great men agreed in nothing but in opposing the measures of the cabinet, which had been undertaken without their consent. The English navy in 1755 consisted of one ship of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 66, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four sloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; besides a great number of bomb-ketches, fireships, and tenders; a force sufficient to oppose the united maritime strength of all the powers of Europe. Whilst that of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ships then upon the stocks, amounted to no more than six ships of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, six of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by these invincible armaments, they were sunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack fort St. Philip there, that admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled if not defeated by their admiral Galissoniere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blake-ney. The English were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at those events. The loss of Minorca was more shameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the popular outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot to death at Portsmouth for cowardice.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of the administration. He had been long known to be a bold speaker, and he soon proved himself to be as spirited a minister. The miscarriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vast successes of the English privateers, both in Europe and America. The successes of the English in the East Indies, under Colonel Clive, are almost incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixia, and placed Jassier Ally Cawn in the antient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French interest, was a few days after his being defeated taken by the new nabob Jassier Ally Cawn's son, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the present amazing extent of riches and territory, which the English now possess in the East Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new system of operations against France, than which nothing could be better calculated to restore the spirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invasion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself, and the descent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It failed on the eighth of September, and admiral Hawke brought both the sea and land forces back on the sixth of October to St. Helen's without the general making an attempt to land on the coast of France.

He was tried and acquitted without the public murmuring, so great an opinion had the people of the minister, who, to do him justice, did not suffer a man or a ship belonging to the English army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a most powerful army, merely because his Britannic majesty refused to wink at their encroachments in America, the English parliament, in gratitude, voted large supplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation, but he had been so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he had been obliged to lay down his arms, and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took possession of that electorate, and its capital. At this time, a scarcity next to a famine raged in England, and the Hessian troops, who with the Hanoverians had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion intended by the French, remained still in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758 a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majesty and the king of Prussia; in consequence of which the parliament voted 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty; and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to near two millions, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, pretending that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Closterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunsvick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove them out of Hanover, and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts, by destroying their stores and shipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A sharp war ensued. The English every where performed wonders, and according to the accounts published in the London Gazette, they were every where victorious, but nothing decisive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the most glorious, perhaps, in the English annals, in which about 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The English bore the expence of the war with cheerfulness, and applauded Mr. Pitt's administration, because their glorious successes in every other part of the globe demonstrated that he was in earnest. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisbourg, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line, an acquisition that far overbalanced a check which the English received at Ticonderoga, and the loss of about 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coast of France. Frontenac in North America, Port du Quesne on the Ohio, Guadaloupe in the West Indies, and the island of Gorée on the coast of Africa, fell into the hands of the English. In America, three capital expeditions were planned, and all of them proved successful. One of them was against the French islands in the West Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The second expedition

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was against Quebec, the capital of the French Canada. The command was given, by the minister's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was opposed with far superior forces by Moncalm, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Moncalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounting incredible difficulties, he gained the heights of Abraham, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himself killed; and general Monckton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reserved for brigadier general (now lord viscount) Townshend.

General Amherst, who was the first English general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. It is to the honour of the minister that Mr. Amherst in this expedition was so well provided with every thing that could make it successful, so that there scarcely appeared any chance for its miscarriage, and thus the French empire in North America became subject to Great Britain. In the battle of Quebec general Moncalm had the same fate as general Wolfe, and the English minister suffered a monument with a pompous but not very just inscription to be erected to his memory.

The English affairs in the East Indies this year proved equally fortunate, for on the twelfth of October the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence with an account that admiral Pocock engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's, on the twenty-ninth of March, 1758, in which engagement a French man of war, called the *Bien Aime*, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that they run her on shore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occasion, and the English only twenty-nine killed, and eighty-nine wounded. That, on the third of August following, he engaged the French fleet a second time, near Pondicherry; when, after a brisk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the sail they could make, and got safe into the road of Pondicherry. The loss of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded; and that of the English only 147 killed and wounded. And that on the fourteenth of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels Laurence and Draper; and after a brisk cannonade, which lasted till the sixteenth of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raise the siege and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon. The affairs of the French being now desperate, and their credit ruined, they resolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invasion of Great Britain; but, on the 18th of August, 1759, admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon Squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the Straights of Gibraltar, took *Le Centaure* of 74, *Le Temeraire* of 74, and *Le Modeste* of 74 guns; and burnt *L'Ocean* of 80, and *Le Redoubtable* of 74 guns. The rest of the fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, and three frigates, made their escape in the night. And on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Bret fleet, commanded by

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admiral Conflans, off the island of Dumet, in the bay of Biscay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Thesee of 74, and the Superb of 70 guns, were sunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros of 74, were burnt. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the rest of the fleet, consisting of five ships of the line, and three frigates, escaped in the night. The English lost on this occasion, the Essex of 64, and the Resolution of 74 guns. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invasion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, Captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had with three sloops of war alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and actually made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by Capt. Elliot, who was the commodore of three ships, inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron. Every day's gazette added to the accounts of the successes of the English, and the utter ruin of the French finances, which that government did not blush publicly to avow. In short, Great Britain now reigned as sole mistress of the main, and had succeeded in every measure that had been projected for her own safety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued still as undecided as it was expensive, and many in England began to consider it now as foreign to the internal interests of Great Britain. The French again and again shewed dispositions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little less than eighteen millions sterling yearly, inclined the British ministry to listen to their proposals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation, but on the twenty-fifth of October 1760, George II. died suddenly, full of years and glory, and was succeeded by his grandson, now George III. eldest son to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could separate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions, and he was sometimes ill enough advised to declare so much in his speeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was just rather than generous, and in matters of œconomy, either in his state or his household, he was willing to connive at abuses, if they had the sanction of law and custom. By this means those mismanagements about his court were multiplied to an enormous degree, and even under clerks in offices amassed fortunes ten times greater than their legal salaries or perquisites could raise. He was not very accessible to conversation, and therefore it was no wonder that having left Germany after he had attained to man's estate, he still retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole's administration with great indifference, and shewed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the internal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the faults of his ministers. In his personal disposition he was passionate, but placable, fearless of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he served when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with

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the ordinary course of justice; and though his reign was distracted by party, the courts of justice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

The brighter the national glory was at the time of George II's death, the more arduous was the province of his successor, George III. Born and bred in England, he had no prepossessions but for his native country, and an excellent education gave him true notions of its interests, therefore he was not to be imposed upon by flattering appearances. He knew that neither the finances, nor the population of England could furnish men and money for supplying the necessities of the war, successful as it was, and yet he was obliged to continue it, so as to bring it to a happy period. He chose for his first minister the earl of Bute, whom he had known ever since he began to know himself, and among the first acts of his reign was to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. Those against the French West Indies still continued under General Monckton, and the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the islands of Grenada, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms, with inconceivable rapidity.

The island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgson; so did the important fortrefs of Pondicherry in the East Indies to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens.

By this time the famous family compact among all the branches of the Bourbon family had been concluded, and it was found necessary to declare war against Spain, who having been hitherto no principals in the quarrel, had scandalously abused their neutrality in favour of the French. A respectable armament was fitted out under the earl of Albemarle, and the vintals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort which his catholic majesty held in the West Indies. The capture of the *Hermione*, the cargo of which was valued at a million sterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treasure passed in triumph through Westminster to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loss of the Havannah, with the ships and treasures there taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of Manilla in the East Indies, by general Draper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of the *Trinidad*, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract those dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened their last resource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the British arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended is not for me to decide. It certainly embarrassed his Britannic majesty, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed, and the necessity of concluding one was acknowledged by all his majesty's ministers and privy counsellors excepting two. Many difficulties were surmounted, and the war in Germany was continued between the French and English with greater fury than ever. The enemy, however, at last granted such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate to the occasion. A cessation of arms took place in Germany, and in all other quarters, and on the tenth of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the most christian king, and the king of Spain, was concluded

concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d the peace was solemnly proclaimed at the usual places in Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the eighteenth been laid before the parliament, it met with the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty, the whole of the continent of North America, on this side the Mississippi, except the town of New Orleans, with a small district round it, was surrendered to us by France and Spain; in consideration of our restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to France the islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desirade; and in consideration of our granting the French two small islands on the coast of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretensions to the neutral island of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the islands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we engross the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East Indies, was dictated by the directors of the English company, which restores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they shall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they granted to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. And peace was restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

George William Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760, and married September 8, 1761, to the princess Sophia Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744; crowned September 22, 1761, and now have issue,

1. George Augustus Frederick, prince of Wales, born August 12, 1762.
 2. Prince Frederic, born August 16, 1767, elected bishop of Osnaburg Feb. 27, 1764.
 3. Prince William Henry, born August 21, 1765.
 4. Princess Charlotte, born September 29, 1766.
 5. Prince Edward, born November 3, 1767.
 6. Princess Augusta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
- Augusta, daughter to Frederic II. duke of Saxe Gotha, now princess dowager of Wales was born November 30, 1719.

Her issue by the late prince of Wales,

1. Her royal highness Augusta, born August 11, 1737, married to the hereditary prince of Brunswick Lunenburgh, January 16, 1764.
2. His present majesty.
3. Prince William Henry, duke of Gloucester, born November 25, 1743.
4. Prince Henry Frederic duke of Cumberland, born November 7, 1745.
5. Princess Caroline Matilda, born July 22, 1751; married at St. James's October 1, 1766, by proxy, to Christian VII. king of Denmark, who was born Jan. 29, 1749.

His late majesty's issue by queen Caroline now living.

1. Princess Amelia Sophia, born June 10, 1711.
2. Princess Mary, born March 5, 1723-4; married to the prince of Hesse Cassel, July 19, 1740.

W A L E S.

W A L E S.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has distinctions in language, laws, and manners, I have, in conformity with the common custom, assigned it a separate article.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, EXTENT, AND CLIMATE.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welsh or antient Britons were shut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country, but Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See ENGLAND.

Its climate is much the same as that of England.

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch are descendants, according to the best antiquaries, of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Caesar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Wallis (the G and W being promiscuously used by the antient 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.

SOIL, SEASONS, AIR, AND WATER.] The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. The seasons are pretty much the same as in Scotland and the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp but wholesome. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone, 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 Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish. Holywell contains an excellent mineral water, the virtues of which are attributed by the common people to the female martyr St. Winifred.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endless to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Carnarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery, and partly in Cardiganhire, are the most famous; and it was probably by their mountainous situation that the natives made so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } In those particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horses are smaller, but can endure vast fatigue, and their black cattle are small likewise, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. As for the other productions of Wales, see Scotland and England. Some very promising mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, have been discovered in Wales. The Welch silver may be known by its being stamped with the ostrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULA-

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The inhabitants of Wales are
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } supposed to amount to about
300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all
the necessaries, and many of the comforts of life. The land-tax of
Wales brought in some years ago about forty-three thousand seven hundred
and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if possible, more jealous
of their liberties than the English, and far more irascible, but their anger
soon abates, and they are remarkable for fidelity and attachment, espe-
cially to their own countrymen. They are very fond of carrying back
their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity, but we have no criterion for
the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which they pretend to be
coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of
their antient history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more antient, and better
attested than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for
its bards and poets, particularly Thalieffin, who lived about the year 450,
and whose works were certainly extant at the time of the reformation,
and clearly evinces that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of
the history which makes the present Welch the descendants of the antient
Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have influenced the antient
Welch with an enthusiasm for independency, for which reason Edward I.
is said to have made a general massacre of the bards, an inhumanity which
was characteristical of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called
an unmixed people, as may be proved by keeping up their antient hospi-
tality, and a strict adherence to their antient 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.] I have already mentioned the massacre of the Welch
clergy by Augustine, the popish apostle of England, because they would
not conform to the Romish ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the
dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The
Romish clergy insinuated themselves into their favour, by their pretended
power of absolving them from crimes, and the Welch, when their antient
clergy were extinct, conformed themselves to the religion of Rome.
The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for, and in many of
the country congregations they preach both in Welsh and English. Their
poverty was formerly a vast discouragement to religion and learning, but
the measures taken by the society for propagating christian knowledge has
effectually removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the
Welch. In the year 1749 a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were
employed in removing from place to place for the instruction of the
inhabitants, and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people
have distinguished themselves so much, perhaps, as the Welch have done
by acts of national munificence. They print at a vast expence bibles,
common-prayer, 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 in Wales is that of the church of England, but
their common people in many places are so tenacious of their antient cus-
toms, that they retain several of the Romish superstitions, and some antient
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families among them, are ftill Roman catholics. It is likewife faid, that Wales abounds with Romifh priefts in difguife.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was the feat of learning when England knew not the ufe of letters. It fuffered, as I have already hinted, an eclipfe, by their repeated mafacres of the clergy and bards. Wickliffifm took fhelter in Wales. when it was perfecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch difpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenfis, whose hiftory was publifhed by Camden, is thought to have been a Welchman, and Leland mentions feveral learned men of the fame country, who flourifhed before the reformation. The difcovery of the famous king Arthur's, and his wife's burying place, was owing to fome lines of Theliefin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the reformation, Wales has produced feveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter was Hugh Broughton and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller, in his Worthies. Among the former were feveral gentlemen of the name of Lluyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewife a Welchman, as was that great ftatesman and prelate, the lord keeper Williams, archbifhop of York, in the time of king Charles I. After all, I muft be of opinion, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiftory of their own country. Wales, notwithstanding all that Dr. Hicke, and other antiquaries, have faid to the contrary, furnifhed the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonftrated by Mr. Lluyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental infcriptions of undoubted authority (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua.) I muft not however omit, the excellent hiftory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With regard to modern Welchmen of learning, they are fo numerous, that it would be unjuft to particularife any. It is fufficient to fay that their clergy are now excellent fcholars, and the Welch make as good a figure in literature as any of their neighbours.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the welfern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moftly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the fineft in Europe, lies in Pembrokefhire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late confiderable fums have been granted by parliament for its fortifications. It lies under two capital difadvantages. The firft is, that by making it the rendezvous of all the English marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally deftroy the fhipping; however ftrongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The fame objection however lies to every harbour that contains fhips of war and merchantmen. The fecond, and perhaps the chief difadvantage it lies under, is the ftrong oppofition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it muft meet with in parliament, from the numerous Cornifh and Weft-country members, the benefit of whose eftates muft be greatly leffened by the difufe of Plymouth and Portfmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant fhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenfive trade. In Brecknockfhire are feveral woollen manufactures, and

Wales

Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and even Ireland:

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, I have already mentioned the land-tax, and the crown has a certain, though small property, in the product of the silver and lead-mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales for his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000 l. a year.

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 burgeois for every shire-town, except Merioneth. By the thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth of the same reign, there were ordained four several circuits, for the administration of justice in the said shires, each of which was to include three shires; so that the chief justice of Chester has under his jurisdiction the three several shires of Flint, Denbigh and Montgomery. The shires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Anglesey, are under the justices of North Wales. Those of Caermarthen, Pembrokeshire and Cardigan, have also their justices, as have likewise those of Radnor, Brecknock and Glamorgan. By the eighteenth of queen Elizabeth, one other justice-assistant was ordained to the former justices; so that now every of the said four circuits has two justices, viz. one chief justice, and a second justice assistant.

COINS.] Some curious coins of Welch princes are said to be found in the cabinets of the curious, but I do not find that they have been very serviceable in ascertaining the ancient history of the country.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } of antiquity. Several of its
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }** Wales abounds in the remains of antiquity. Several of its castles are stupendously large; and in some the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. The architecture of others are doubtful, and some appear to be partly British, and partly Roman. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-Stone; 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. To give a description of the Roman altars, antiquities and utensils, which have been discovered in Wales, would be endless; but future antiquaries may make great discoveries from them. Among the other artificial curiosities, is king Offa's dyke; which is said to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-castle in Glamorganshire, is said to have been the largest in Great-Britain, excepting Windsor, and the remains of it shew it to have been a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

The chief natural curiosities are as follow. At a small village, called Newton in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring nigh the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the sea. In Merionethshire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine

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plants. In Carnarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmanmoer, cross 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 is surrounded by the sea, is so hideous and full of danger, that one false step is of dismal consequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular measurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

FOR BISHOPRICS (See England.) We are however to observe, that in former times Wales contained more bishoprics than it does now, and about the time of the conquest of England, the religious foundations there, far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND } Wales contains no cities or towns
OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC } that are remarkable, either for po-
AND PRIVATE. } pulousness or magnificence. Beau-

maris is the chief town of Anglesey, and has a harbour for ships. Brecknock trades in cloathing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs and aldermen, who wear scarlet gowns, and other ensigns of state. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen, and part of the county is so fertile, and pleasant, that it is called Little England. As to the other towns of Wales, I shall not mention them. I am however to observe, that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country, than it is at present; and though it contains no regular fortification, yet many of its old castles are so strongly built, and so well situated, that they might be turned into strong forts, by a little expence, witness the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differs from those of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of ostrich feathers, was occasioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poitiers, and the motto is *Ieb dien, I serve*. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar saint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is wore on his day, the 1st of March, and for which various reasons have been assigned.

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 the Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people cut out so much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely subdued, tho' part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was biddled by garrisons. Though the Saxons, as I have already observed, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they 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; Povesia, 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

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being powerful enough to oppose them. They made, however, many vigorous 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 Llewelin, 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 Llewelin, prince of Wales, disdainful the subjection to which old Llewelin 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 Llewelin, but at last, in 1283, 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 ordered his queen to be delivered in Carnarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England becomes now 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.

I R E L A N D.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, EXTENT, AND CLIMATE.

THE island of Ireland is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees west longitude, and between 51 and 55° 20' north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longest day is 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and the twenty-fourth parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longest day is 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

The extent, or superficial content of this kingdom is, from the nearest computation and survey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north, to Missenhead south; and from the east part of Down, to the west part of Mayo, its greatest breadth, 160 miles, and to contain

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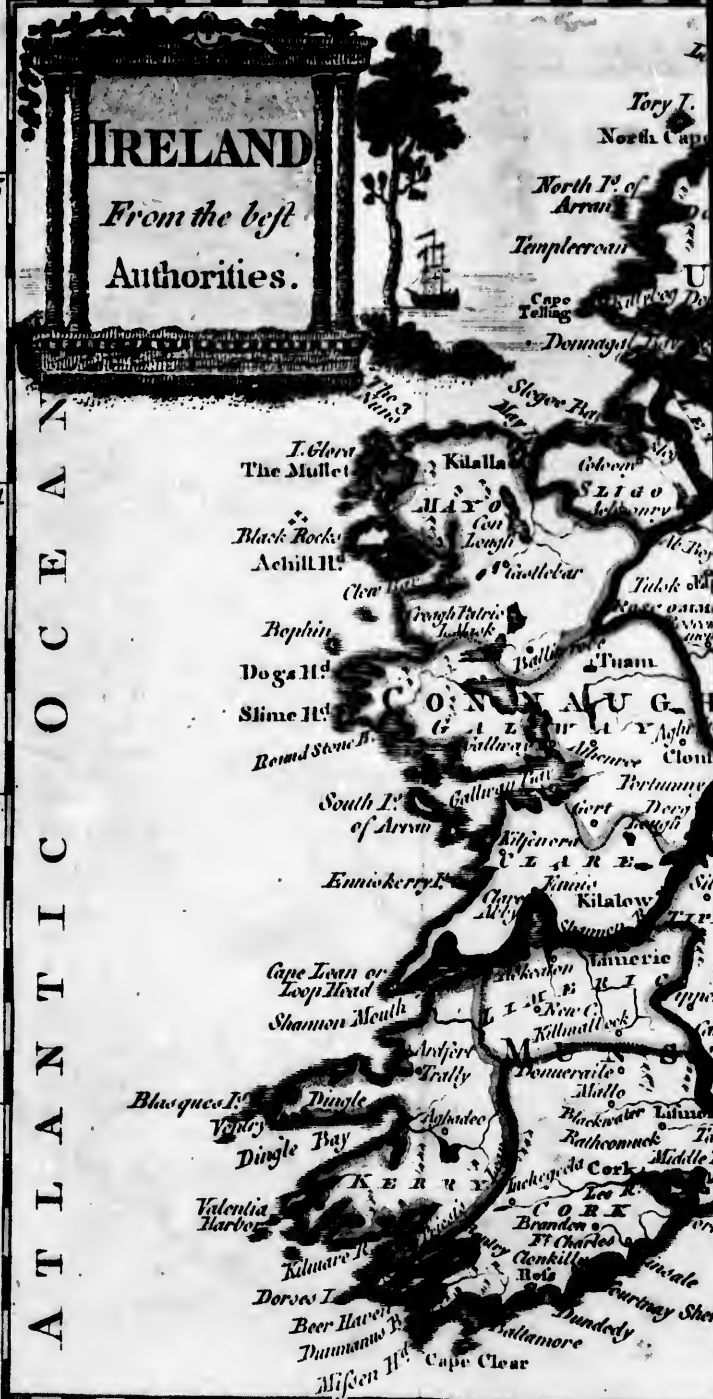
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A T L A N T I C O C E A N

IRELAND
From the best
Authorities.



Minutes of time W. from London . XI.



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11,067,712 Irish plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of English statute measure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 159 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 square miles. From the east part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned forty-five miles, but the passage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is only twenty miles.

The climate of Ireland differs little from that of England, with which it would almost perfectly agree, were the soil equally improved. Uncultivated swamps, bogs, and forests, and uninhabited banks of rivers, naturally produce fogs and an unwholesome thicknes of air, as is the case with some parts of England itself; but upon the whole the air of the cultivated part of Ireland is as mild and salubrious, and as friendly to human nature as that of England; some have thought that it is even more so.

NAME AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN.] More conjectures as to the Latin (Hibernia) Irish (Erin) as well as the English name of this island, have been formed than the subject deserves. It probably takes its rise from a Phœnician or Gallic term, signifying the farthest habitation westward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the divisions of Ireland; some dividing it into five circuits, and some into four provinces, those of Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster. I shall follow the last division as being the most common, and likewise the most antient.

	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Leinster, 12 Counties.	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
	East Meath	Trim
	West Meath	Mullinger
	King's County	Phillipstown
	Queen's County	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Kildare
	Carlogh	Carlogh
Ulster, 9 Counties.	Down	Down
	Armagh	Charlemont
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan
	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Onragh
	Fermanagh	Enniskillen
Donnegal	Donnegal	

Connaught

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	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Connaught, 6 Counties.	Letrim	Letrim
	Roscommon	Roscommon
	Mayo	Ballinrobe
	Sligo	Sligo
	Galway	Galway
	Clare	Ennis
Munster, 5 Counties.	Cork	Cork
	Kerry	Tralee
	Limerick	Limerick
	Tipperary	Clonmel
	Waterford	Waterford

To these some geographers add the circuit of Meath, containing the counties of East Meath, West Meath, and Longford, in the province of Leinster.

SOIL, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The soil of Ireland in general is fruitful, perhaps beyond that of England itself, when properly cultivated. Pasturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but till of late tillage was too much discountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in some of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raised, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vast numbers of black cattle and sheep. The Irish wool is excellent, but many have thought that the prohibition of exporting it to any other nation but England, is of detriment to both kingdoms, because it encourages the inhabitants to smuggle it into France. The prodigious, and, indeed, incredible supplies of salt provisions (fish excepted) shipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, are proofs scarcely to be exhibited in any other country, of the natural fertility of the Irish soil. As to the seasons of Ireland, they differ little from those of Great Britain, in the same latitude. I must not here forget that Ireland is remarkable for breeding and nourishing no venomous creatures.

Ireland contains a vast number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fish; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Though these loughs in the main have but few properties that are not in common with the like bodies of water in other countries, yet they have given rise to many traditionary accounts among the natives, which disfigure and disgrace their true history, and even modern geographers have been more copious on that head than either truth or the subject can admit of. The Irish are so fond of loughs, that, like the Scots, they often give that term to inlets of the sea.

Ireland abounds with rivers; the Shannon, which rises from Loch Allen in the province of Connaught, divides it from Leinster and Munster, and running through several lakes, after a course of 145 miles, falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry Point and Loop-Head. 2. The Liffy, which is called the princess of the Irish rivers, rises in mountains about ten miles south of Dublin, runs through that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour, and afterwards falls into the bay of Dublin. 3. The Boyne is obstructed by wears, but runs into the Irish sea.

4. The

4. The Erne takes its source from a lake between the counties of Longford and Cavan; in its course it forms several small islands, some of which are inhabited, and contain 8 or 900 acres; it continues its course to Ballyshannon, where the smoothness of its stream is interrupted by a huge rock, which it passes by a great fall, called the Leap, and suddenly after falls into the sea, and assails to make the harbour of Donnegal.

5. The Lurgan-water rises near the centre of the county of Down, washes Lillburn and Belfast, where it widens into a large bay called Carrickfergus Lough.

Ireland contains a number of other rivers, but geographers, and even the natives differ, not only in their importance and utility, but their names, which may be owing to the promiscuous use of the Irish and English language. It is certain, upon the whole, that the inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, and that many schemes are now on foot for that purpose; one is for cutting navigable communications between several rivers of a considerable distance in the heart of the country to Dublin, which cannot fail of being attended with the very best effects to manufactures and commerce.

[BAYS AND HARBOURS.] I have given a separate article to bays and harbours, because nature has in that respect been particularly favourable to Ireland; but they are capable of vast improvement. Waterford haven runs between Leinster and Munster, and extends eight miles almost in a straight line, from south to north. It is defended by Duncaunon fort, and having passed it about a league, the haven divides itself into two arms; that to the west leads to the city of Waterford, and is the mouth of the river Suir; and the other leads to Ross, which is here called the river of Ross, being below the junction of the Barrow and the Noer. Both these arms are capable of receiving ships of a large burden. The largest ships may anchor safely in Carlingford haven, between Leinster and Munster, but it is destitute of trade. The bay of Carlingford is safe and spacious, as is Killybegs harbour, which lies on the west of the county of Donnegal, and is capacious enough to contain a great fleet; and ships of the greatest burden can make it at any time of tide. Bantry-bay, famous for a sea engagement in king William's reign, between the French and the English, and Kilmore-bay or river, are of large extent both in breadth and length. Dunmanus-bay has every where a good anchorage. Baltimore-bay is much larger than any of the three immediately before-mentioned bays, though not stretching into the land as they do, but forming rather the figure of a half moon. The haven of Kinsale is one of the most commodious and best harbours in the kingdom, well sheltered from the winds, and defended by a strong fort called Charles Fort, because it was built in the reign of Charles II. Two forts are erected to defend Cork haven, which is also a safe and commodious harbour, narrow at the entrance, but deep and safe, and sheltered within from all winds as far as the city of Cork. The bay of Carrickfergus, five miles broad, and from 12 to 20 fathom deep, is memorable for the landing of king William in 1690, and of Thurot in 1760. I have already mentioned the bay of Dublin. Besides the above, Ireland contains many excellent harbours, some of which have been improved by parliamentary aids.

[MOUNTAINS.] The Irish language has been more happy in distinguishing the size of mountains than perhaps any other. A knock signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; a sieve marks a craggy high

high mountain, gradually ascending and continued in several ridges; a beinn or bin signifies a pinnacle or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. Ireland, however, when compared with some other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iseah, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom, of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous histories that are annexed to some of them. Many of those mountains contain in their bowels beds of mines, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief forests in Ireland lie in Leinster, the King's and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlogh. In Ulster there are great forests, and in the county of Donnegal and in the north part of Tyrone; also in the county of Fermanagh, along Loughlin Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is some good timber, and the oak is esteemed as good as any of the English growth, and as fit for ship-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late discoveries. Several contain silver and lead, and it is said that thirty pounds of their lead ore produce a pound of silver; but the richest silver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine have been discovered at Tipperary, as likewise iron ore, and excellent free-stone for building. Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke, and it contains a crystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the well known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the same as in England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moss, which are of vast service for firing, where wood and coals are scarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland, but they are now almost exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, snaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as spaniels. What I have already observed about the Irish exportation of salt provisions, sufficiently evinces the prodigious numbers of hogs, sheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are said to be more plentiful there than in England. The fish that are caught upon the coasts of Ireland are likewise in greater plenty than on those of England, and some of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Ireland is said to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I suspect that the calculation is over-charged by near half a million. As it is of great consequence to ascertain as near as possible the numbers of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we shall give them according to the best accounts, as they stood in the four provinces in 1733.

Protestant

	Protestant families.	Papist families.
In Ulster	62,620	38,459
Leinster	25,238	92,424
Munster	13,337	106,407
Connaught	4,299	44,133
Total	105,494	281,423

Which, at five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and seven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 souls. I am apt to think, when we consider the waste of war by sea and land, and the vast emigrations of the Irish to Britain, the British colonies, and other nations; that the above calculation may nearly serve for the present times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly risen on the side of protestantism; and in some late debates in the Irish parliament it has been asserted that the number of inhabitants of Ireland amount to three millions.

The old Irish, or, as they are termed by the protestants, the mere Irish, are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering sort of people. Impatient of abuse, and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections, but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and patient of hardships. Though in these respects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbarisms are more easy to be accounted for from accidental than natural causes. By far the greatest number of them are papists, and it is the interest of their priests, who govern them with an absolute sway, to keep them in the most profound ignorance. They also lie under many legal disabilities, which in their own country discourages the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes they are distinguished for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. The surnames, especially of the better sort, have generally an O or Mac, which signifies son, placed before them. Formerly the O was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves upon the antiquity of their families. Their music is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain; though of late some of the Irish airs are lively and pleasing. The old Irish is generally spoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where some of the old uncouth customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this custom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their custom of placing a dead corps before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of passengers, is practised even in the skirts of Dublin, which one could wish to see abolished. And their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, dancing to the bagpipe, but more often quarrelling among themselves, is offensive to every stranger. But, as we have already observed, these customs are chiefly confined to the more unpolished provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the least sense of law and government of any in Ireland, except their tyrannic landlords or leaseholders; for while these poor people are described as the most ignorant, we may, at least with equal justice, represent them as the most oppressed subjects in the British government, and the only people who do not enjoy the benefits of our excellent constitution. The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient

Britons, as described by Roman authors, or the present Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and straw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the same materials, serve the double purposes of accommodating the family, who live and sleep promiscuously, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or such pieces of furniture as are not in immediate use.

Their wealth consists of a cow, sometimes a horse, some poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and sometimes fish, constitute their food. For however plentifully the fields may be stocked with cattle, these poor natives seldom taste butcher's meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robust, and hearty, scarcely know the use of cloaths, and are not ashamed to gaze upon strangers or make their appearance upon the roads in this primitive manner.

In this idle and deplorable state many thousands are in a manner lost to the community and to themselves, who, if they had an equal chance with their neighbours of being instructed in the real principles of christianity, inured and encouraged to industry and labour, and obedience to their sovereign, would add considerable strength to the British government and their own. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themselves of the uncomfortable situation of the Irish at home, by alluring them to enter their service, and in this they have hitherto been assisted by priests and Jesuits, whose interest it is to infuse into the minds of their credulous disciples an aversion to the British government; but we have now the pleasing prospect of a happy reformation among these people from the numerous English protestant working schools, lately established over the kingdom, which institution will undoubtedly strike deeper at the root of popery than all the endeavours of the British monarchs to reduce them.

The descendants of the English and Scots since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II. though not the most numerous, form the wealthiest part of the nation. Of these are most of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eastern and northern coasts, where most of the trade of Ireland is carried on, especially Belfast, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulster, which, though the poorest soil, is, next to Dublin, and its neighbourhood, by far the best cultivated and most flourishing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots, in the reign of James I. and other emigrants, who fled from persecution in that country, in succeeding reigns, planted themselves, and established that great staple of Irish wealth the linen manufactory, which they have since carried on and brought to the utmost perfection. From this short review it appears that the present inhabitants are composed of three distinct classes of people; the old Irish, poor, ignorant, and depressed, who inhabit, or rather exist upon the interior and western parts; the descendants of the English, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coast facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, science, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive christianity. Thirdly, as I have already observed, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who like the others are so zealously attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require some ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are so thoroughly consolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry and better sort of the Irish nation in general differ little in language, dress, manners

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manners and customs from those of the same rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hospitality is well known, but in this they are sometimes suspected of more ostentation than real friendship.

RELIGION.] The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. I have already observed, that among the bulk of the people, in the most uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the most absurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish papists still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent protestantism from making a very rapid progress there in towns and communities. How far it may be the interest of England that some kind of balance between the two religions should be kept up, I shall not here enquire.

Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly presbyterians, anabaptists, quakers, and methodists, who are all of them connived at and tolerated. Great efforts have been made ever since the days of James I. in erecting free-schools for civilizing and converting the Irish papists to protestantism. The institution of the incorporated society for promoting English protestant working schools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly successful, as have many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish; and no country in the world can shew such public spirited efforts as have been made by the government of Ireland, since that time, for these purposes.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] If we are to believe the fabulous accounts of Ireland, learning flourished there while she was dormant in all the other parts of the globe. The truth is, that the Irish writers, in every branch of learning, arts, and sciences, are equal to those of their neighbours. Archbishop Usher does honour to literature itself. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and satire. The sprightliness of Congreve's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama: and to particularize other Irish writers of learning and genius, many of whom are living at this day, would far exceed my bounds.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] What I have said of England under this head, is in a great measure applicable to Ireland. Her chief exports consist of linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, which are encouraged by the English government. Wool and bay-yarn are by law allowed to be exported to England only, but great quantities of both are smuggled into other countries. The other exports are beef, pork, green hide, some tanned leather, calf skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead, in no great proportion, copper-ore, herrings, dried fish, rabbit skins, and furr, otter skins, goat skins, salmon, and a few other particulars.

The Irish in general complain of the vast disadvantages under which their country lies from that prohibition which does not suffer them to cultivate to the full their woollen and iron manufactures, or to make the best of their natural situation and harbours. They even complain that the benefits of their linen manufacture are now greatly abridged by the vast progress made in the same by the Scots, and repeated attempts have been made to prove that their commercial discouragements are detrimental to England herself, and beneficial to her natural enemies. Whatever truth may be in this complaint, it is certain that the Irish have carried

carried their inland manufactures, even those of luxury, to an amazing height, and that their lords lieutenants, and their court, have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, making use of no others.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Irish is fundamentally the same with the British and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which was made use of by the Scotch Highlanders, opposite the Irish coasts. It is, however, in a great measure defaced by provincial alterations, but not so altered as to render the Irish, Welch, and Highlanders unintelligible to each other. The usage of the Irish language occasions among the common people, who speak both that and the English, a disagreeable tone in speaking, which diffuses itself among the vulgar in general, and even among the better sort who do not understand Irish. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

DRESS.] With regard to dress, that of the Irish commonalty at present does not much differ from the English. The ancient habit of the Irish was a frize cloak, with a fringed or shaggy border, and their under garment a doublet and close breeches called trowsers. The women wore a mantle over a long gown, and both men and women a kind of shoe without a heel, made of half tanned leather, called a brogue, which among the common people is still in use, as in the Highlands of Scotland.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of those I know of none in Ireland, as the bankers cannot be admitted as such; neither can the Dublin society for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, which was incorporated in 1750. The linen hall, however, that is erected at Dublin, is under as just and nice regulations as any commercial house in Europe.

REVENUES.] The revenue of Ireland is supposed at present to exceed half a million sterling, of which the Irish complain greatly that about 70,000 l. is granted in pensions, and a great part to absentees. In Ireland the public revenue arises from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee, for applying it to particular purposes; but there is besides this a private revenue arising from the ancient demesne lands, from forfeitures for treason and felony, prisage of wines, lighthouse duties, and a small part of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the same unlimited property that a subject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a secret to the public.

It is a happy circumstance for the Irish, that the revenues necessary for the support of their government, and other purposes, are raised with so much ease as to be scarcely felt by the people. Their lands are not saddled with heavy taxes, nor their trade with foreign nations cramped with innumerable duties. Hence proceed the amazing low prices of almost every article of general consumption. Good claret wine is sold in the metropolis of the kingdom at two shillings a bottle, and other liquors proportionably cheap. Butcher's meat, though now on the rise, from the late great exports, is sold at two pence per pound. Turkeys at twenty pence, and other poultry at a trifling expence. Soap and candles so low as to tempt coasting vessels to smuggle them into Britain. In the province of Munster butcher's meat is sold at one penny farthing per pound; large fowls at three pence each. And that the taxation upon

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inland trade fits easy, appears from the cheapness of almost every article fabricated there. Newspapers of a large size are sold at a halfpenny, and advertisements of a moderate length are inserted for sixpence. Such was the happy situation of Great Britain before the commencement of that load of debt, contracted in consequence of our foreign connections and German wars.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland is still a distinct, though a dependent subordinate kingdom. It was only entitled the dominion or lordship of Ireland, and the king's title was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, Lord of Ireland, till the thirty-third year of king Henry VIII. when he assumed the title of king, which is recognized by act of parliament in the same reign. But, as England and Scotland are now one and the same kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; so England and Ireland are, on the other hand, distinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For after the conquest of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and sworn to by the Irish nation, assembled at the council of Lismore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, still continues in a state of dependence, it must necessarily conform to, and be obliged by such laws as the superior state thinks proper to prescribe.

But this state of dependence being almost forgotten, and ready to be disputed by the Irish nation, it became necessary, some years ago, to declare how that matter really stood: And, therefore, by statute 6th of George I. it is declared, that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inseparably united thereto; and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland.

The constitution of the Irish government, as it stands at present, with regard to distributive justice, is nearly the same with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is sent over from England by the king, whom he represents, but his power is in some measure restrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleasure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publickly read in the council-chamber, and having taken the usual oaths before the lord chancellor, the sword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of state, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a serjeant at mace, and other officers of state; and he never appears publickly without being attended by a body of horse-guards. Hence, with respect to his authority, his train and splendor, there is no viceroi in christendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majesty of a king. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the archbishops, earls, bishops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majesty is pleased to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the supreme court, which is convened by the king's writ; and generally sits once every second year. It consists, as in England, of a house of lords and commons. Of the former many are English or British peers or commons of Great Britain; a few are papists, who cannot sit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amount to about three hundred. Since the accession of his present majesty, Irish parliaments have been rendered octennial.

ostennial. The laws are made by the house of lords and commons, after which they are sent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majesty and council, they pass the great seal of England, and are returned. Thus the two houses of parliament make laws which bind the kingdom, raise taxes for the support of government, and for the maintainance of an army of 16,000 men, who are placed in barracks in several parts of the kingdom.

For the regular distribution of justice, there are also in Ireland four terms held annually for the decision of causes; and four courts of justice, the chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high-sheriffs of the several counties were formerly chosen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant. From this general view it appears that the civil and ecclesiastical institutions are almost the same in Ireland as in England.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Ireland maintains and pays an army of 16,000 men, who have been often of singular service to England. The reader, from the sketch I have already given of the population of Ireland, may easily form an estimate of the number of fighting men in the kingdom. Those parts of Ireland that are most uncultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little sense either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are absolutely necessary for keeping them in order, witness the late insurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were instigated by their priests. It does not, however, appear that the bulk of the Irish catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his descent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the pretender in the last rebellion.

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. What the antient coins of the Irish were, is at present a matter of mere curiosity and great uncertainty.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } I have already mentioned the
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } wolf-dogs in Ireland, and her
exemption from all venomous animals. The Irish gos-hawks and ger-falcons are celebrated for their shape and beauty. The moose-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this island, their horns being sometimes dug up of so great a size, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greatest natural curiosity in Ireland is the Giant's Causeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus described by Dr. Pococke, late bishop of Ossory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He says, "that he measured the most westerly point at high water, to the distance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet further upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the eastern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the east, and is like that lost in the water.

"The causeway is composed of pillars all of angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The eastern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints or stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about a foot in thickness; and what is very surprizing, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters

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of spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and sitting in the exactest manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which separate very easily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

“But this is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity, the cliffs themselves being still more surprizing. From the bottom, which is of black stone, to the height of about sixty feet, they are divided at equal distances by stripes of a reddish stone, that resembles a cement about four inches in thickness; upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another stratum ten feet thick divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone twenty feet deep, and above that a stratum of upright pillars; above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of these cliffs extends about three English miles.”

The cavities, the romantic prospects, cataracts, and other pleasing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and several pamphlets have been employed in describing them. As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or stone towers, found upon the coasts, and supposed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians, who made use of them as spy-towers or barbicans, light-houses or beacons.

UNIVERSITIES.] Ireland contains but one university (if a college can be called such) which is that of Dublin, founded by queen Elizabeth, under the title of the College of the holy and undivided Trinity, near Dublin, with a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, masters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. At present it consists of a provost, seven senior, thirteen junior fellows, and seventy scholars of the house, who have maintenance upon the foundation. The visitors are the chancellor or vice chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are four, Armagh, Cathel, Dublin, and Tuam.

The bishops are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Drumore, Elphin, Kildare, Kilalaw, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Rapho, and Waterford.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Dublin, the capital of
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Ireland, is in magnitude
and the number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions; much about the size of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marseilles, and is supposed to contain near 300,000 inhabitants. It is situated 270 miles north-west of London, and sixty miles due west from Holyhead, in North Wales, the usual station of the passage vessels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin stands about seven miles from the sea, at the bottom of a large and spacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both sides, which form spacious quays, where vessels below the first bridge load and unload before the merchant doors and warehouses. A stranger upon entering the

the bay of Dublin, which in stormy weather is extremely dangerous, is agreeably surprized with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low situation, makes no great appearance. The increase of Dublin, within twenty years last past, is incredible, and it is generally supposed that 4000 houses have been added to the city and suburbs since the reign of queen Anne. This city in its appearance bears a near resemblance to London. The houses are of brick; the old streets are narrow and mean, but the new streets are more elegant and better planned than those of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville street, which is sometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houses are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal distance from the sides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for sea vessels as far as the custom-house, or centre of the city, is but small, when compared to the Thames at London. Over it are two handsome bridges, lately built of stone, in imitation of that at Westminster, and three others that have little to recommend them. Hitherto the centre of Dublin towards the custom-house was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purposes; but of late a new street has been opened, leading from Essex bridge to the castle, where the lord lieutenant resides. A new exchange is building, the first stone of which was laid by lord Townshend, the then lord lieutenant, and several other useful undertakings and embellishments are in agitation.

The barracks are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river. They consist of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horse; from hence the castle and city guards are relieved daily. They are said to be the largest and completest building of the kind in Europe.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for sale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the trustees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are composed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbishop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national institution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwise would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thousands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stevens Green is a most extensive square, being one mile in circumference. It is partly laid out in gravel walks, like St. James's park, with trees on each side, in which may be seen, in fine weather, a resort of as much beauty, gaiety, and finery, as at any of the public places in England. Many of the houses round the green are very stately, but a want of uniformity is observable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another spacious square near Stevens Green, now laid out and partly built. The houses being lofty, uniform, and carried on with stone as far as the first floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath.

The front of Trinity college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland stone in the finest taste.

The parliament house was begun in 1729, and finished in 1739, at the expence of 40,000 l. This superb pile is in general of the Ionic order, and is at this day justly accounted one of the foremost architectural beauties. The portico in particular is, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts have also many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. But one of the greatest and most laudable undertakings that this age can boast of, is the building a stone wall about the breadth of a moderate street, a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to shelter vessels in stormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord mayor, &c. the same as in London—Every third year, the lord mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchises. Upon this occasion the citizens vie with each other, in show and ostentation, which is sometimes productive of disagreeable consequences to many of their families. In Dublin are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which serve as a kind of nursery to those in London. In this city are 18 parish churches, 8 chapels, three churches for French, and one for Dutch protestants, 7 presbyterian meeting houses, 1 for methodists, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hospital, like that at Chelsea, for invalids; a lying-in hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics built at the expence of the famous dean Swift; and sundry other hospitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner. And indeed whatever way a stranger turns himself in this city, he will perceive a spirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament, and public utility in Ireland, keep pace with those erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it must be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively speaking, has expended such sums as the grants of the Irish parliament, which has been, and continues to be, the life and soul of whatever is carried on; witness the many noble erections, churches, hospitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, one of which is now cutting across the kingdom to Dublin, and many other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been matter of surprize, that with all this spirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be classed among the second order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn that deserves that name. This may, in some measure, be accounted for by the long, and sometimes dangerous passage from Chester or Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from visiting that island; but as it is now proposed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the passage is short and safe, the roads of Ireland may by this means become more frequented, especially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France and Italy, a traveller meets with views the most luxuriant and rich, he is sometimes cloyed with a sameness that runs through the whole; but in those countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whose tops look down upon the clouds, the extensive lakes, enriched with bushy islands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous

feathered

feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleasing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently present themselves in various forms and shapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleasing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough or unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles south-west of Dublin, and contains above 8100 houses, inhabited chiefly by protestants. Small vessels come up to its quay, and stand about seven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter shipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbados, and all the Carribee islands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and shipping. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the west side of the town is a ciadel. Limeric is a handsome, populous, commercial, strong city, and lies on both sides the Shannon.

Belfast, a large seaport and trading town at the mouth of the Lurgan water. Downpatrick has a flourishing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) is by some deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and cattle, but little commerce. These places lie opposite the north parts of England, and Galloway in Scotland. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is most usually called) stands on Lough-Foyl, is a strong little city, having some linen manufactures, with some commerce and shipping. And this extreme north part of Ireland is situated so near to Scotland, that they are in sight of each others coasts. Donnegal, the county town of the same name (otherwise called the county of Tyrconnel) is a place of some trade; as is likewise Enniskilling. All which last mentioned places, and many more (though less considerable ones) are chiefly, and most industriously, employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vast annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewise to render the money constantly drawn from Ireland into England by her absentees, less grievous to her. Kinsale is a populous and strong town, with an excellent harbour, and considerable commerce and shipping: And it is, moreover, occasionally a station for the navy royal; for which end this port is furnished with proper naval officers and storekeepers.

Though Ireland contains no strong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has several forts and garrisons, that serve as comfortable sinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore fort, Cork, Limeric, Kinsale, Duncannon, Ross-Castle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of those forts is furnished with deputy governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary provisions from the government.

It cannot be pretended that Ireland is as yet furnished with many public edifices, that can compare with those that are to be found in countries where sovereigns, and their courts reside, but it has many elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taste and public spirit of the inhabitants.

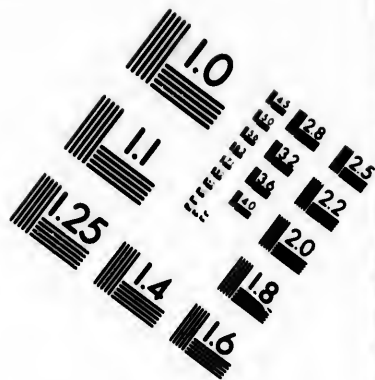
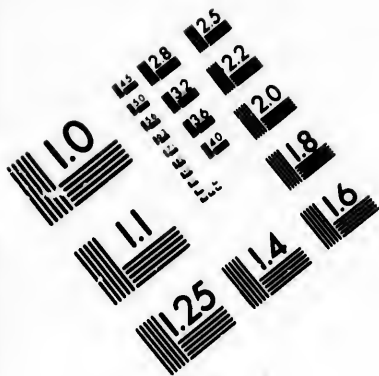
The parliament house, castle, Essex-bridge, and several edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent, and elegant pieces of architecture, and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be seen in Ireland. The Irish nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with those of England in the magnificent structure of their houses, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjust, where there are so many equal in taste and magnificence, to particularize any. In speaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I must not forget the numerous barracks, where the soldiers are lodged, equally to the ease and convenience of the inhabitants.

[HISTORY.] The Irish monks have formed a more regular plan of ancient history, for their own country, than is to be met with in other countries, and with such plausibility, that it has been adopted by men of considerable learning. They have carried up a succession of great, wise, and learned kings, almost to the time of the flood, and they have made Ireland flourish in all the arts and sciences, especially those of government, long before they were known in Egypt, or Greece. Writers, however, after the Augustan age, have mentioned the Irish, as being no better than the worst of the American savages, and the most creditable of the modern historians, speak of them as being, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, no better than a nation of Barbarians, though it may be admitted that before this period, some of their monks and clergy, who had travelled into other parts of Europe, were holy and learned men.

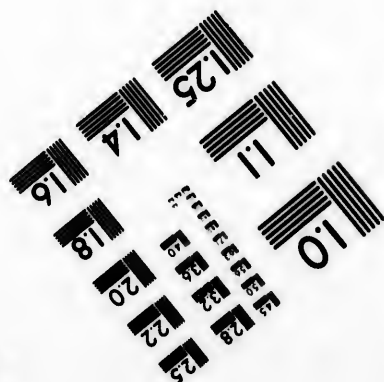
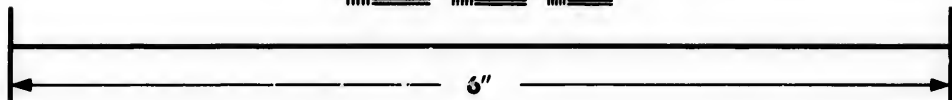
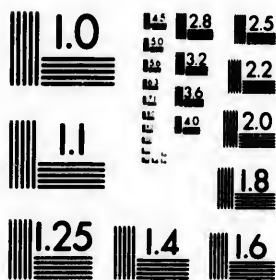
That the northern parts of Ireland were peopled from the west of Scotland, as being a far more inviting soil, is more than probable, and it is likely that emigrations from other parts of Europe, might mingle with the aboriginal Irish; but history gives us no sure lights, as to those matters. Sir James Ware, the best of the Irish antiquaries, and a man of great learning and candour, speaks with high contempt of the Irish, before they were converted to Christianity, by St. Patric, a Scotchman, who died in 493. After this they were occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England, but in the year 795 and 798 the Danes and Normans, or as they were called, the Easterlings, invaded the coasts of Ireland, and were the first who erected stone edifices in that kingdom. The habitations of the Irish, till that time, were of hurdles covered with straw and rushes, and a very few of solid timber. The natives, however, defended themselves bravely against the Easterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford and Cork, but they resided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Irish, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, seem to have called to their assistance, the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a considerable maritime power, and this might have given occasion for his clergy to call him King of great part of Ireland. It is certain, that Dublin was about that time a flourishing city, and that the native Irish gave the Easterlings several defeats; though supported by their countrymen from the continent, the Isle of Man, and the Hebrides.

Though the use of letters had been by this time introduced into Ireland, yet its history is still very confused. We know, however, that it was divided amongst several petty princes, and that Henry II. of England, provoked at their piracies, and their assisting his enemies, by the instigation of the Pope, had resolved to subdue them. A fair pretext offered about 1168. Dermot Mac Murrrough, king of Leinster, and an oppressive





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tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O Roirk. A confederacy being formed against him, under Roderic O'Connor, (who it seems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promised to restore him upon taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England for himself, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cause to the English barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. Those noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the same principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conquest of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and next year Strongbow arriving with a strong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The descendants of the Danes continued still possessed of Dublin, which, after some ineffectual opposition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the English soldiers, but Mac Turkil the Danish king escaped to his shipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, seized upon his estates in England and Wales, and recalled his subjects from Ireland. The Irish, about the same time, to the amount of about 60,000, besieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Irish friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Irish to raise the siege with great loss, and going over to England he appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hand all the Irish cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's absence, Mac Turkil returning with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the siege; and in him ended the race of the Easterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his English nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulster, but the great king Roderic O'Connor, submitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that consequently he was the paramount sovereign of Ireland. He that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the estates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his English nobility. He then settled a civil administration at Dublin, as near as possible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having first settled an English colony from Bristol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free customs, says their charters, which the citizens of Bristol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flourish. Thus the conquest of Ireland was effected by the English almost with as much ease as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards, and for much the same reasons, the rude, and unarmed state of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of Lord of Ireland to his son John, who, in 1185, went over in person to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill use of their power, and rendered themselves hateful to the Irish, who were otherwise very well disposed towards the English. Richard I. was too much taken up with the crusades to pay much regard to the affairs of Ireland, but king John, after his accession, made amends

For his former behaviour towards the Irish. He enlarged his father's plan, of introducing into Ireland English laws and officers, and he crested that part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster which was within the English pale, into twelve counties. I find, however, that the descendants of the antient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal subjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exercised all acts of sovereignty within their own states; and indeed this was pretty much the case so late as the reign of James I. The unsettled reign of Henry III. his wars, and captivity, gave the Irish a very mean opinion of the English government during his reign; but they seem to have continued quiet under his son Edward I. Gaveston, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland, but the successes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almost proved fatal to the English interest in Ireland, and suggested to the Irish the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the English governors and armies, and being supported by his brother in person, he was actually crowned king of Dundalk, and narrowly missed being master of Dublin. The younger Bruce seems to have been violent in the exercise of his sovereignty, and he was at last defeated and killed by Bermingham the English general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and passed several excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not suppressed without great loss and disgrace on the side of the English. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the English inhabitants had no inconsiderable share. A succession of vigorous, brave governors, however, at last quieted the insurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, son to Edward III. having married the heiress of Ulster, was sent over to govern Ireland, and, if possible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progress, but did not entirely accomplish it. It appears, at this time, that the Irish were in a very flourishing condition, and that one of the greatest grievances they complained of was, that the English sent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his despotic schemes in England must be abortive without farther support, passed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men well armed and appointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish looked upon his presence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In short, he behaved so as to entirely win their affections. In 1399, Richard being then despotic in England, undertook a fresh expedition into Ireland to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Irish. His army again struck the natives with consternation, and they threw themselves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition that the duke of Lancaster landed in England, and Richard, upon his return, finding himself deserted, and that he could not depend upon the Irish, surrendered his crown to his rival.

The Irish, after Richard's death, still retained a warm affection for the house of York, and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown,

embraced its cause. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile them to his title, as duke of Lancaster, and the Irish readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldest son of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them somewhat cautious at first of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithstanding his plausible pretences to be the duke of York, second son of Edward IV. He was, however, at last recognized as king by the Irish, and in the preceding pages the reader may learn the event of his history. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Irish nobility to take a fresh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the desired effect, during the administration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against each other, but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and who was won over by the emperor, but was at last hanged at Tyburn. After this, the house of Austria found their account in their quarrels with England, to form a strong party among the Irish.

About the year 1542 James V. king of Scotland, formed some pretensions on the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a strong party among the Irish themselves. It is hard to say, had he lived, what the consequence of his claim might have been. Henry understood that the Irish had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Irish, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to speak the truth, it was somewhat surprizing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect submission of the native Irish to Henry's government than ever had been known, and even O'Neil, who pretended to be successor to the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The Pope, however, and the princes of the house of Austria, by remitting money, and sometimes sending over troops to the Irish, still kept up their interest in that kingdom, and drew from them vast numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good soldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpressible difficulties to the English government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable that the reformation took place in the English part of Ireland with little or no opposition. The Irish seem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary, but they proved thorns in the side of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual disputes she had with the Roman Catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneasiness, and the Pope, and the house of Austria always found new resources against her in Ireland. The Spaniards possessed themselves of Kinfales; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Essex, are well known in the English history.

The lord-deputy Mountjoy, who succeeded Essex, was the first Englishman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Irish before Kinfales, and bringing Tyrone prisoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth.

both in 1602. This lenity, shewn to such an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehensions Elizabeth had from the popish interest in Ireland. James I. confirmed the possessions of the Irish; but such was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to seize the castle of Dublin; but their plot being discovered, their chiefs fled beyond seas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608, they instigated Sir Calim O'Dogharty to a fresh rebellion, by promising him speedy supplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the dispute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Irish rebels which passed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, vested in the crown 511,465 acres, in the several counties of Donnegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that protestant plantation in the north of Ireland, which now, from the most rebellious province of the kingdom, is the most quiet and reformed.

Those prodigious attainders, however just and necessary they might be, operated fatally for the English in the reign of Charles I. The Irish Roman-catholics in general, were influenced by their priests to hope not only to repossess the lands of their forefathers, but to restore the popish religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and detestable conspiracy for massacring all the English protestants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy dissensions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being discovered by the English government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They however partly executed, in 1641, their horrid scheme of massacre: but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm protestant writers, some of whom have mounted the number of the sufferers to 40,000; other accounts speak of 10,000 or 12,000, and some have even diminished that number. What followed in consequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Irish papists upon themselves, belongs to the history of England. It is certain that they smarted so severely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popish successor and brother, even after the Revolution took place, found an asylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that by the assistance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own pusillanimity co-operated with his disappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his son-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that William ever gained in person. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undisciplined rabble, but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It must be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too soon for a brave man. The forfeitures that fell to the crown on account of the Irish rebellion, and the Revolution, are almost incredible; and had the acts of parliament which gave them away been strictly enforced, Ireland must have been peopled with British inhabitants. But many political reasons occurred for not driving the Irish to despair. The friends of the Revolution and the protestant religion were sufficiently gratified out of the forfeited estates. Too many of the Roman-catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance should be preserved between the Roman-catholic and the protestant interest.

It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorously into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wisdom of the above considerations. The lenity of the measures pursued in regard to the Irish Roman-catholics, and the great pains taken for the instruction of their children, with the progress which knowledge and the arts have made in that country, have diminished the popish interest so much, that the Irish protestants have of late disputed many points of their dependency. The spirit of industry has enabled the Irish to know their own strength and importance, to which some accidental circumstances have concurred. All her ports are now opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great-Britain. In 1757, the scarcity of provisions in England occasioned a statute for permitting the importation of salt beef, pork, and butter, from Ireland; and also of tallow and live cattle. This statute was temporary, and prolonged to the 24th of December 1761; but by a statute of the second of his present majesty, it was enacted, "For the more easily victualling of his majesty's ships, transports, &c. in his service," salted beef, pork, and butter, are permitted to be imported from Ireland duty free, and for none other purpose, for one year, to end on the 24th of December 1762.

How far the late act for rendering parliaments in Ireland octennial, may operate to its benefit, is as yet impossible to be determined: in all appearance, it will create a very material alteration in the civil policy of that kingdom, and will prove to be by no means for the benefit of that independency upon England which is so much the idol of the Irish patriots. It is likewise to be apprehended, that the octennial returns of general elections, may have a fatal effect upon the morals of the labouring people, as is too often seen in England, where industry flourishes most in those places (witness Manchester, Birmingham, and Sheffield) which send no member to the British parliament.

I might here conclude the geography and history of Great-Britain and Ireland, were it not that several smaller islands are under the allegiance of the crown of England, and having local privileges and distinctions, could not be comprehended under a more general head. In treating of them therefore I shall deviate from my common method, but observe brevity as much as the subject will permit.

ISLE OF MAN.

THIS is not the Mona mentioned by Tacitus. Some think that it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among) because lying in St. George's Channel, it is at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona seems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached island. Its length from north to south is about 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 Britannic 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.

fulle. The ridge of mountains which as it were divides the island, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good pasturage. The better sort of inhabitants have good sizeable horses, and a small kind, which is 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, which has the best market and best trade in the island, as well as 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 inexpresible prejudice of his majesty's revenue; and this necessarily leads me to touch upon the history of the island.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the seas which I have before mentioned, this island was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected, from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great-Britain and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in history; and though we have no regular account of their succession, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a spirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the superiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It seems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exercised the superiority over the island; though we find it still possessed by the posterity of its Danish princes, in the reign of Edward III. who dispossessed the last queen of the island, and bestowed it on his favourite, Mountague, earl of Salisbury. His family being forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the patronage of the bishopric, first upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whose posterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the sister of the last lord Derby. Reasons of state rendering it necessary for the crown of Great-Britain to purchase the customs and the island from the Athol family, the bargain was completed in the reign of his present majesty, by 70,000*l.* being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, 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 dukes formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, however, retain still many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The king has now the nomination of the bishop, who is called bishop of Soder and Man; and he 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. 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 are said to 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 splendor of its ancient possessors.

I forbear to mention in this place the isles of Anglesey and Wight, the first being annexed to Wales, and the other to Hampshire.

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 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. 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, which contains above 400 houses, 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 recognize 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

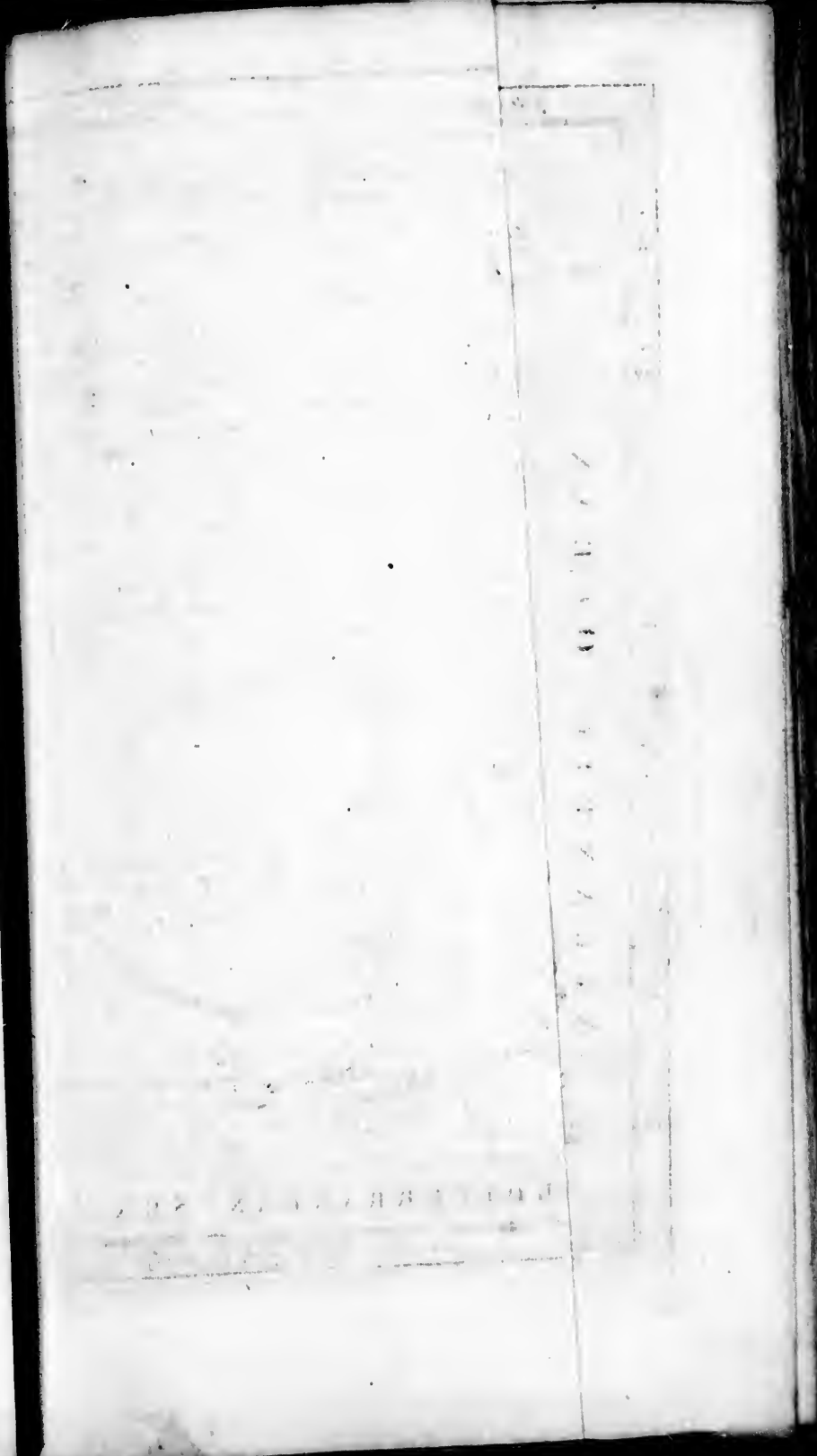
The ecclesiastical livings are considerable and is spoken by with a mixture of the Prayer Book have who are said to be and hospitable. The island is thatched; and the products for exportation are exchange with foreign for from other islands called the Channel separated from Man

use an antiquary. The ruins and monuments of the island are partly of stone and partly of wood to indicate the splen-

desey and Wight, Hampshire. These are islands; these are islands which they lie much nearer, are within the bay of St. Michael's Mount. The distance from the mainland is four leagues; the same and

is within the bay, in the second degree west of Norfolk, the south island part is well cultivated an incredible well cultivated, but neglect tillage and improvement of the soil. The honey is good and the fish and other commodities are common to the island,

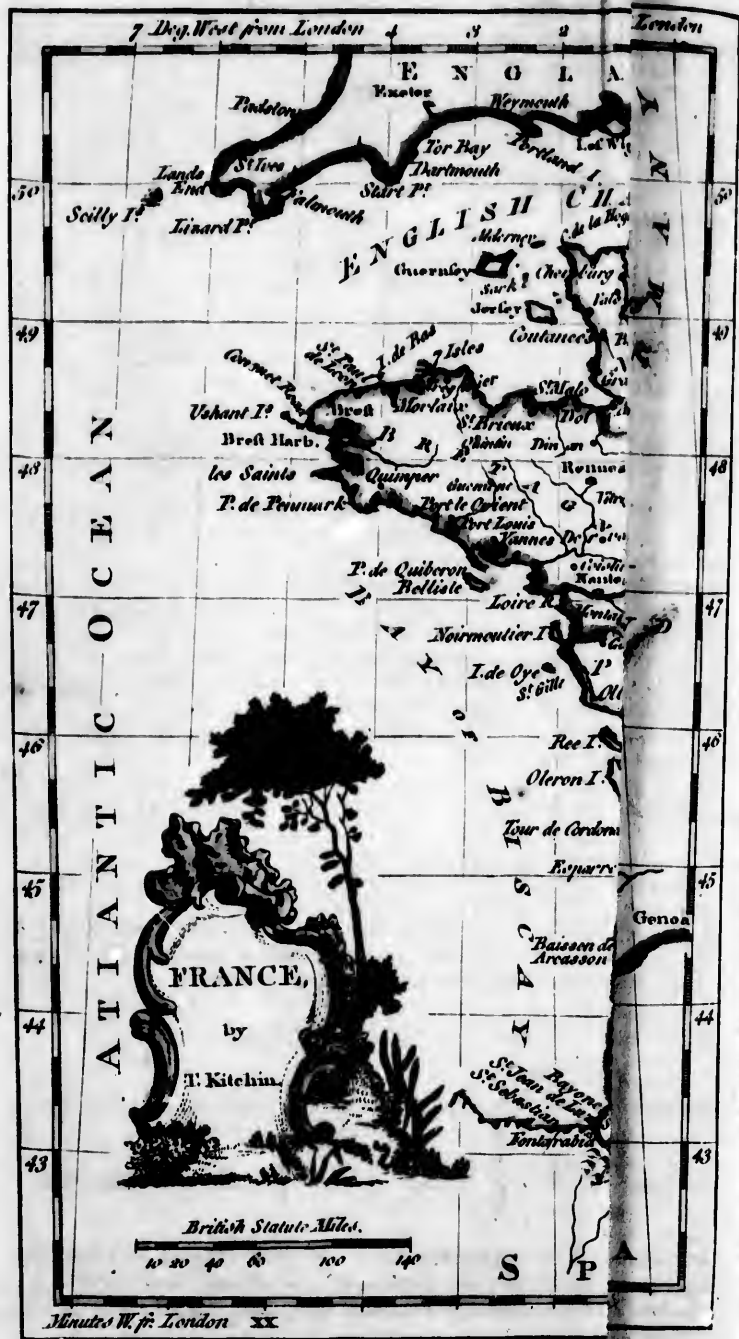
the air is so salubrious that there is no business for the island, and are different, which con- vince. The present Norman family, who gave protection to the island in the time when no other language of the island was English, but they carry





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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 bailey, 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; but has only ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark 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, 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, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island is healthy, and the soil 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 conveniences of life. The inhabitants of the three last mentioned islands are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England, though formerly the inhabitants were Calvinists.

F R A N C E.

As some part of France lies as far north as the southernmost corner of England, we shall now proceed to that kingdom; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	5	W	}	Lon.	}	Being	{	600 miles in length.
		and							
		8	E.	}					
Between	{	42		}	N. Lat.	}	}	{	500 miles in breadth.
		and							
		51		}					

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the English channel and the Netherlands, on the north; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, east; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, south; and by the Bay of Biscay, west.

This



This kingdom is divided, and the dimensions of the several parts distinctly specified in the following table, by Mr. Templeman.

DIVISIONS ANTIENT AND MODERN.

Countries Names.		Square Miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	Dist. fr. London.	Dist. fr. Paris.
France.							
	Orleannois	22,050	230	180	Orleans	230	58
	Guienne	12,800	216	120	Bordeaux	230	266
	Gascoigna	8,800	125	90	Aux or Augh	470	315
	Languedoc	13,175	200	115	Thoulouse	466	310
	Lyonnois	12,500	175	130	Lyon	411	268
	Champagne	10,000	140	110	Rheims	204	74
	Bretagne	9,100	170	105	Rennes	210	160
Papists	Normandy	8,200	155	85	Rouen	86	60
	Provence	6,300	95	92	Aix	540	340
	Burgundy	6,700	150	86	Dijon	325	145
	Dauphine	5,820	107	90	Grenoble	488	245
	Isle of France	5,200	100	85	PARIS	203	
	French Compté	4,000	100	60	Besançon	340	170
	Picardy	3,650	120	87	Amiens	140	65
	Rouffillon	1,400	50	44	Perpignan	533	388
Total		131,095					

In former times it was divided into twelve provinces, viz. Normandy, Picardy, the Isle of France, Champaign, Bretagne, Orleannois, Burgundy, Lyonnois, Guienne, Languedoc, Dauphine, and Provence. These had their several parliaments, who gave their consent for the enacting the laws of their civil government. But they have been dissolved ever since the year 1614; and the kingdom, ever since, is divided into thirty-six provinces, which ordinarily go under the name of generalities. But, in all these, there are only twelve parliaments subsisting, viz. 1. Pau. 2. Dijon. 3. Rennes. 4. Grenoble. 5. Besançon. 6. Bordeaux. 7. Paris. 8. Toulouse. 9. Metz. 10. Rouen. 11. Aix. 12. Doway.

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Franks, a German nation, who conquered the Gauls, the antient inhabitants. By its situation, it is the most compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpose both of power and commerce; and since the beginning of the 15th century, their inhabitants have fully availed themselves of their natural advantages. Did not the province of Brittany stretch above 100 miles farther into the ocean than any other part of the kingdom, its form would be almost square, and the breadth and length pretty nearly equal, being near 600 miles over either way. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholesome; but some late authors think it is not near so salubrious as is pretended; and it must be acknowledged, that the French have been but too successful in giving the inhabitants of Great-Britain false prepossessions in favour of their own country. It must be owned, that their weather is more clear and settled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intensely cold, and the inhabitants not so well supplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent soil, which produces corn, wine, and oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than those of England; but neither their pasturage or tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure; but the chief misfortune attending the French soil is, that the inhabitants having but a precarious security in their own property, do not apply themselves sufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. Nature, however, has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vast plenty.

The French have of late endeavoured to supply the loss arising from their precarious title to their lands, by instituting academies of agriculture, and proposing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but those expedients, however successful they may be in particular instances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. It must at the same time be admitted, that the French exceed perhaps the English themselves in the theory of agriculture. 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 conveniences of life. I shall afterwards speak of their canals and mineral waters.

Before I leave this head it may be proper to observe, that the soil, as well as the air of France, is different in different parts of the kingdom. The upper part of Provence is proper for corn; the lower, for high-flavoured fruits. Some soils produce timber, and others little more than just as much rye and chestnuts as serve to subsist the poor inhabitants. The soil of Burgundy is justly called the mother of wine and corn; and Picardy is said to be the national granary or magazine for corn, flax, and fruit; and so on of the rest of the kingdom, where even their wine differs in qualities according to the difference of the soil. We shall be obliged to resume this subject.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, 1. The Alps, which divide France from Italy. 2. The Pyrences, which divide France from Spain. 3. Vauge, which divides Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace. 4. Mount Jura, which divides Franche-Compte from Switzerland. 5. The Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and, 6. 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 500 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. To these we may add, the Soane, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, runs in and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay. The Rhine, which rises in Swisserland, 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

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Year.	Dist. fr. Paris.
230	58
230	266
470	315
466	310
411	208
204	74
210	160
86	60
540	340
325	143
488	245
203	
340	170
40	65
333	388

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and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, falls 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 wonderfully 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 1666, 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, Yper, 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 Isoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Britany 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 that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and freestone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for soups than those of England. As to all kinds of seasoning and sallads, they are more plentiful, and in some places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture. The province of Gastmois produces great quantities of saffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only to be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, ash, and other timber common in England, is found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort on the coast of Sain-toign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which when burnt makes excellent pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English both in the

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management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horses are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than those of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former is not so well served, even on their sea-coasts, with salt-water fish.

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 Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchilmoir 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 national utility.

MINERAL WATERS AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS. } The waters of Baresges, 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. The best judges think that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental success, with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alsace, cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagucis, not far from Baresges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters, and those of St. Amant cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, therefore I must omit them, as well as many remarkable springs; but there is one 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.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } If we believe some French writers, France contains 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but the calculation is certainly overtrained by at least 4,000,000, and of the remainder near 200,000 are ecclesiastics. I shall not dispute the populousness of France in former times, but it is certain that the numbers of her natives, and those too the most useful to the public, have, during the last and present century, been greatly reduced, first, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, and other religious persecutions; secondly, by her perpetual wars; thirdly, by her emigrants to her colonies. Some writers make perhaps the numbers too low, when they fix them at 13,000,000. It is evident however that there is a great defect of population in the interior provinces.

The French, in their persons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The nobility and gentry accomplish themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which, they excel all their neighbours in skill and gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb-bridle, in that exercise; and accommodate themselves to the English

manner.

manner. The landlords are as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the English; but the other ranks of life are despicable, when compared to the riches, elegance, and opulence, not only of the English nobility and gentry in general, but to the middling people.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the subject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character, and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impells them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character, however, is conspicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers, for the common soldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroism. Hence it has been observed, with great justice, of the French and English, that the French officers will lead, if their soldiers will follow, and the English soldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This same principle of vanity is of admirable use to the government, because the lower ranks, when they see their superiors elated, as in the time of the last war with England, under the most disgraceful losses, never think that they are unfortunate; thence proceeds the passive submission of the French under all their calamities. For this reason the common people are kept in profound ignorance, and frequently made to believe, that every thing goes well abroad at times, when the very reverse happens; of this we have a striking instance in their ordering bonfires, and other rejoicings at Paris, after the memorable battle of Minden, though 8000 English obtained a complete victory over their whole army.

The French may be characterized as being well mannered, rather than well bred. They are indiscriminately complaisant and officious, but they seldom know how to adjust their behaviour to the situation and character of those they converse with. All is a repeated round of politeness, which for want of discernment becomes affected, often ridiculous, and always disgusting to sentimental people.

The French have been censured for insincerity; but this is a fault which they possess in no greater degree than their neighbours, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have just as much virtue as other European nations, and have given as many proofs of generosity, and disinterestedness; but this is far from being the character of their government, which has prepossessed the English against the whole nation, and when the French are no longer formidable, they will be no longer thought faithless.

It is doing the French no more than justice to acknowledge that they have given a polish to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other nations. They have long possessed the lead in taste, fashion and dress, but it seems now to be in the wane, and they begin to think, that the English are not barbarians. This alteration of opinion has not however taken its rise from their wits, their learned men, their courtiers, nor the middle ranks of life. The superior orders of men in France are of a very different cast from those below them. They see with indignation the frivolousness of their court, and however complying they may

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they appear in public, when retired, they keep themselves sacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themselves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They saw during the late war the management of their armies, their finances and fleets, with silent indignation, and their researches were favourable to the English. The conclusion of the late peace, and the visits which they have since paid to England, have improved that good opinion, the courtiers themselves have fallen in with it, and what some years ago would have been thought incredible, people of fashion in France now study the English language, and imitate them in their customs, amusements, dress, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, are sacred among the French of any education; and to say the truth, the writings of such men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raise the name of Great Britain, to that degree, in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more universal, and even a necessary study among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and customs of the French, without giving a more minute view of some distinguishing peculiarities observable among that whimsical people in private life, and this from the remarks of an ingenious and well informed writer of the present age.

The natural levity of the French is reinforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is by some priest or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence by the masters of those sciences. He becomes a compleat connoisseur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hands and instructions of his barber and valet de chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irresistible. But he piques himself upon being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases, ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address, which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bedchamber, while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coiffure, he insists upon adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissors, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed friseur. He squires her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her,

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renders himself necessary to her occasions. In short, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petite maitres*, from the *marquis* who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbier*, (barber's boy) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has descended, as I said before, to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very furthest verge of folly and extravagance; that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally supposed that part of the fair sex, in some other countries, make use of *fard* and vermilion for very different purposes, namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not enquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shews, at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *fard*, or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaistered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or fallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly, and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dare assume.

The French affect freedom and wit, but their conversation is commonly confined to fashionable dresses and diversions. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair, degenerates into gross foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which, to people not used to their manners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent as we are apt to imagine; about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world, they bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with the best grace; but in prosperity they are intolerably insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and instructive companion, and indeed the most rational species of all the French gentry.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is Roman Catholic, in which their kings have been so constant, that they have obtained the title of Most Christian. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to shake off the Romish yoke, and made a very great progress in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the secret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the Pope, was inwardly

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trembling under the power of the Jesuits, a set that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Though the French clergy are more exempt than some others from the papal authority, their church confining the Pope's power entirely to things relating to salvation, yet they are in general great enemies to any thing that looks like reformation in religion; and possessed as they are of immense property, there must be a thorough coalition in opinion between the king and his parliaments, before any ecclesiastical reformation can take place, a prospect which seems at present very distant, notwithstanding the differences between the Pope and his most christian majesty. In the southern parts of France the clergy and magistrates are as intolerant as ever, and the persecutions of the protestants, who are very numerous in those provinces, still continue. In short, the common people of France discover no disposition towards a reformation in religion, which, if ever it takes place, must probably be effected by the spirit of the parliaments. I shall not enter into the antiquated disputes between the Molinists and the Jansenists, nor the different sects of Quietists and Bourignons that prevail among the Roman Catholics themselves, nor into the disputes that prevail between the parliament and the clergy about the intolerant bull Unigenitus. The state of religion in France is a strong proof of the passive disposition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in compliance to the Pope, have depopulated their kingdom, as I have already hinted, of its most useful inhabitants. It must at the same time be owned, that the Hugonots, or the reformed, while they subsisted in a manner as a separate state within France, did not shew any remarkable proofs of their moderation, either in religion or government.

In the whole kingdom there are 17 archbishops, 113 bishops, 770 abbeys for men, 317 abbeys and priories for women, besides a great number of lesser convents, and 250 commanderies of the order of Malta; but many of the abbeys and nunneries have been lately suppressed, and the revenues seized by the king. The ecclesiastics of all sorts are computed at near 200,000, and their revenues at about six millions sterling. The king nominates all archbishops, bishops, abbots, and priors, and can tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate: Accordingly, not many years since, he demanded the twentieth penny of the clergy, and, to ascertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their estates and incomes; to avoid which, they voluntarily made an offer of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, over and above the usual free gift, which they pay every five years.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics in France are seventeen; 1. Lyons, whose archbishop is count and primate of France, has under him four suffragans. 2. The archbishop of Sens, who is primate of France and Germany, has under him three suffragans. 3. The archbishop of Paris, is duke and peer of the realm, and has under him four suffragans. 4. Rheims, whose archbishop is duke and peer, and legate of the holy see, has eight suffragans. 5. The archbishop of Rouen is primate of Normandy, and has six suffragans. 6. Tours, has eleven. 7. Bourges, has five. 8. Abby, has five. 9. Bourdeaux, has nine. 10. Ansch, has ten. 11. Toulouse, has seven. 12. Narbonne, has ten. 13. Arles, has four. 14. Aix, has five. 15. Vienne, has six. 16. Besançon, has three. 17. Ambrun, has six. To these must be added, Metz, Toul, and Verdun in Lorraine, suffragans to the archbishop of Treves.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He succeeded so far as to render it the most universal of all the living tongues, a circumstance that tended equally to his greatness and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the school of the arts, sciences, and politeness. The French language, at present, is chiefly composed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives, introduced by the Franks. It is at present on the decay, its corner stones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were loosened; and in the present mode of writing and expressing themselves, the modern French abandon that grammatical standard, which alone can render a language classical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the English, but they are well adapted to subjects void of elevation or passion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nostre pere qui es au ciel, ton nom soit sanctifie; ton regne vienne, ta volonte soit fait sur le terre comme dans le ciel; donne nous a l'avenir chaque jour notre pain; pardonne nous nos offenses comme nous pardonnons a ceux qui nous ont offenses; ne nous mets pas dans la tentation, mais delivre nous du mal; puisque le regne, la puissance, & la gloire t'appartiennent pour jamais. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire was not of that kind which improves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regulates the affections. It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study of the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, whose labours are well known, and highly esteemed all over Europe. The two Stephens, in particular, are names which every real scholar mentions with respect. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Françoise was formed for this purpose; and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians have done great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldom very successful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the present case. The Academy published a dictionary for improving the French language: it was universally despised. Furetiere, a single academician, publishes another: it meets with universal approbation. 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 12,000l. 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, the first distinguished for tenderness, 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

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the rules of the drama, are, next to the Greek tragedians; the most perfect masters in this species of writing. 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, though a close imitator of the antients, is not deficient in genius. But France has not as 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 humourous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors: and no nation ever produced more agreeable writers in the miscellaneous way; among whom we may place D'Argens as one of the most considerable. The genius, however, of their religion and government is 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, whose interest it is to keep mankind ignorant upon matters of religion and morality, and the influence of the court and ministry, who have 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 upon those subjects as the English. But some uncommon geniusses have appeared among them, whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government, however despotic, no religion, however superstitious, could curb or restrain. Who is ignorant of Pascal, or 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. Since the beginning of the present century, the French have vied with the English in natural philosophy. Many of them are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who with all the precision of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer. The French painters, Le Brun, Poussin, and Le Sueur, are admirable. Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in England, or in any other nation. 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 our superiors in architecture, though we now bid fair for surpassing them in this art.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] Those literary institutions have received an irreparable loss by the expulsion of the jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France. It is not within my plan to describe the different governments and constitutions of every university or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont Mouson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournois, and Valence.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The famous Colbert, minister to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him therē was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading, as she then did as a war-

like people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that undaunted perseverance that is necessary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, understand them better. It is to be considered, at the same time, that France, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of a great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the most respectable power upon the continent of Europe. I have already enumerated her natural commodities, to which may be added her manufactures of salt-petre and silk. In the city of Tours, under Lewis XIV. 8000 looms, and 800 mills were constantly employed in the silk manufacture. The city of Lyons formerly employed 18,000 looms, but after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000. The French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, are said to be little inferior to those of England and Holland, assisted by the clandestine importation of English wool. Abbeville is also noted for its manufactures of linen, sail-cloth, and soap. Auvergne for fine thread, lace, and stuffs, and for paper, accounted the finest in Europe. Nismes, for fine serges and stuffs; Cambrai for cambricks, and St. Quintin for lawns, silver stuffs, embroideries, sewing-silk, fattins, crapes, laces, toys, millinery wares, tapestries, plush, hats, parchment, hardware, pot-ash, pitch, oil of olives, turpentine, lintseed and almonds, brandy, raisins, and other commodities.

I have already mentioned the infinite advantage arising to her inland commerce by her rivers and navigable canals.

As to her foreign trade, it may be said to extend all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loser by its cession of Canada and part of Louisiana at the late peace. The French have still possessions in the East Indies, of which Pondicherry and Mauritius are the principal; and had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engrossed more territory and revenues than are now in possession of the English, but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their East India company seems now to be at its last gasp. We cannot answer for the consequences if that trade should be thrown open. They may be more fatal to England than beneficial to France. At present, (says Mr. Anderson) "her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons.—To Germany, through Metz and Straßburgh.—To the Netherlands, through Lille.—To Spain, (a most profitable one) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports, in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations of Europe, to France's very great advantage, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Asia and Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro trade from Guinea supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence."

In the year 1739 France may be said to have been in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain, and dreaded by all the rest of Europe, her fleets covered the ocean, but she trusted too much to her own self-importance. Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took no care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; so that the greater it was, it became the more valuable prey to the English when war broke

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broke out. It is, however, the happiness of France that her wounds are soon closed, and it is hard to say how soon she may recover all she has lost. In the mean while, the most valuable part of St. Domingo, in the West Indies, which she possesses by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a most improveable acquisition, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the West Indies she likewise possesses the important sugar islands of Martinico and Guadaloupe. Her possessions in North America, since the late war, are only a small tract upon the Mississippi.

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 have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces, which, however, must be very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The institutions of public trading companies to New France, and the East and West Indies, formerly cost the French crown immense sums, but we know none of them now subsisting, though no doubt their West India trade, which is still very considerable, especially in sugar, is under proper regulations, prescribed by their councils of commerce.

DRESS.] The French dress of both sexes is so well known that it is needless to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures. With regard to the English, they possess one capital superiority, which is, that the cloaths of both sexes, and their ornaments, are at least one third cheaper.

When a stranger arrives in Paris he finds it necessary to send for the tailor, peruquier, hatter, shoemaker, and every other tradesman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He must even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the risk of his life, suit his cloaths to the mode of the season. For example, though the weather should be never so cold, he must wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-saison*, without presuming to put on a warm dress before the day which fashion has fixed for that purpose; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuse a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if possible, still more subject to the caprices of fashion. All their saks and negligees must be altered and new trimmed. They must have new caps, new laces, new shoes, and their hair new cut. They must have their taffaties for the summer, their flowered silks for the spring and autumn, their sattins and damasks for winter. The men too must provide themselves with a camblet suit trimmed with silver for spring and autumn, with silk cloaths for summer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he must wear his bag-wig *a la pigeon*. This variety of dress is absolutely indispensible for all those who pretend to any rank above the meer vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, use powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their superiors in the fripperies of fashion. The common people of the country, however, still retain, without any material deviation,

the old fashioned modes of dress, the large hat and most enormous jack-boots, with suitable spurs, and this contrast is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, physicians, and merchants, generally dress in black; and it has been observed that the French nation, in their modes of dress, are in some measure governed by commercial circumstances.

REVENUES.] Nothing certain can be said concerning the revenues of a prince who can command the purses of all his subjects. In 1716, the whole specie of France in gold and silver was computed to be about seventeen millions sterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions sterling, or 2,000 millions of livres, yet by laying hold of almost all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raising or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France published a general state of the public debts, by which it appeared the king scarcely owed 340 millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery, we can form no idea but that of despotism of the means by which so great a reduction was effected. The French court has not since that time blushed to own, to wit towards the conclusion of the late war, and also in this present year 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his ministers have pursued measures pretty much similar to those practised by the regent to recruit the royal finances.

Some writers say that the annual revenues of France, ordinary and extraordinary, by the account of their own financiers, (including Lorraine) do not amount to clear six millions sterling, which is not equal to the natural revenue of England alone. Though I am apt to think that this calculation of the French revenues is rather too low, and that they may be fixed at seven millions; yet we are not to form our ideas of them from the great armaments, garrisons, and fortifications maintained by the French king, because their expence is inconsiderable to him, compared to what they would be to a king of Great Britain; and the like observation holds good in all the other departments of public expence in both kingdoms. The French themselves, it is true, magnify the revenues of their crown sometimes to twelve millions sterling, or above; but their natural vanity gives them no right to any credit on such a head; and though it is not at all impossible that the French king, in time of war, may raise such a sum upon his subjects, and discharge it by repaying them with one third of the debt, yet that is not to be accounted as a stated national revenue, and tends only to prove the misery of the subject, and the injustice of the crown.

In France taxes are raised by the taillé, or land-tax. The taillon, which the nobility are obliged to pay as well as the commons, is only another land-tax; by aids, which we call customs on merchandize; by gabels, which is a tax upon salt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of estates and employments; by the sale of all offices of justice; by a tenth, or free gift of the clergy, exclusive of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, which that body has of late advanced to the king.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The constitution of France, in feudal times, was very unfavourable to monarchy, but the oppressions of the great landholders by degrees grew so irksome to the subjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the aristocratical government. Aristocracy however still subsisted in some degree to the beginning of the last century,

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century, chiefly through the necessity which the Hugonots were under to have princes of the blood, and men of great quality for their leaders; but Richlieu, in the time of Lewis XIII. gave it a mortal blow, and all the civil disputes in France since has been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments, but the latter were seldom or never attended with any sanguinary effects.

The present parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great Britain. It was originally instituted to serve as a kind of a law assitant to the assembly of the states, which was composed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom, and ever since it continued to be a law, and at last, a money court, and the members have had the courage of late to claim a kind of a negative power to the royal edicts, which they pretend can be of no validity till registered by them. His most christian majesty has often tried to invalidate their acts and to intimidate their persons, but, despotic as he is, he has never ventured to inflict any farther punishment than a slight banishment or imprisonment for their most provoking acts of disobedience.

This ridiculous situation between power and privilege shews the infirmity of the French constitution, as the king dares not punish, and his parliament will not obey; but it discovers at the same time, that the nation in general thinks the parliament its natural guardian against the court.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which is appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a superintendent, who pretty much resembles the lord lieutenants in England, but their executive powers are far more extensive. Distributive justice in France is administered by parliaments, chamber of accounts, courts of aid, presidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen, those of Paris, Toulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Remes, Pau, Mets, Befançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of these parliaments however are now united into one. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national busineses. It is divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber is appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civil judges in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle Criminel receives and decides appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. Besides these three capital chambers, there are five of requests for receiving the depositions of witnesses, and determining causes, pretty much in the same manner as our bills and answers in chancery and the exchequer.

The next court of judicature in France is the chamber of accounts, where all matters of public finances are examined, treaties of peace and grants registered, and the vassalages due from the royal fiefs are received. The chambers are in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpellier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Lisle, Aire, and Dole.

The third court of judicature is the court of aid, where all matters that relate to the royal revenue, and the raising of money are determined.

The fourth are the presidial courts, which are composed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magistrates of little towns and villages.

The next court are the generalities, who proportion the taxes to be raised in their districts, according to the sum that is appointed to be levied.

levied. They likewise take cognizance of matters relating to the crown lands, and certain branches of the revenue. Those courts are in number twenty-three, each consisting of twenty-three persons, and they are distributed over the kingdom for the more convenient dispatch of business.

Subject to these generalities are the courts of elections, which settle the smaller proportions of taxes that are to be paid by parishes, and inferior districts, and how much each individual in the same is to pay. This is done by a collector, who returns the assessments to the court of generalities. Besides the above courts, the French have intendants of justice, police, and finances, whose powers, when properly executed are of great service to the peace of the community. They have likewise provosts, senescals, bailiffs, and other officers, whom we have no room to enumerate.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures, and extensive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines, and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety, he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

True it is, that in a country so extensive and fruitful, her government finds immense resources in men and money; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, these resources, great as they are, by a wrong application have proved the ruin of the people. The most obvious causes of this national poverty took their rise from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render more miserable the nations around them, that man must be devoid of humanity whose breast is not raised with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries and desolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a sacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, from their late attack upon Corsica, that their own misfortunes have not taught them wisdom or humanity, for while they thus grasp after foreign conquest, their own country exhibits a picture of misery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a most dismal and solitary appearance. The shops are mean beyond description; and the passengers, that saunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty streets, appear

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appear to be chiefly composed of priests and devotees, passing to
 or from mass, hair-dressers, and beggars. That this is the appearance
 of their towns and many of their cities, I appeal to the observation of
 any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it possible to mention
 a people more indigent than those citizens, we might describe the
 farmers and peasantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural
 advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and most
 extensive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley.
 Amidst this profusion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exist
 upon the gleanings; and his cattle, which are seldom numerous, pick a
 subsistence in the summer months from the skirts of his fields. Here the
 farmer, meagre, dispirited, and depressed, exhibits a spectacle of indig-
 ence hardly credible. And to see him plowing the ground with a lean
 cow, an ass, and a goat yoked together, excites in an English traveller
 that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country
 while he feels for the man.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France are let out for a time to the
 best bidder, or, as it is there called, farmed; and these harpies, the
 farmers general, and their underlings, make no scruple of fleecing the
 people most unmercifully; and the residue, if any do remain, goes to
 satisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn are obliged,
 as well as the laity, to advance the government immense sums, under
 the names of tenths and free gifts, exclusive of which, as I have observed
 elsewhere, they are now taxed with a certain sum, to be paid annually.
 As oppressions are at present exercised in full vigour, and taxes in-
 creasing, there is the greatest probability that the bulk of the French
 nation will long remain that poor, unhappy, and miserable people we
 have been representing them, which in truth is a happy circumstance for
 the liberties and the peace of Europe.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] In time of peace, the crown
 of France maintains about 200,000 men, but, as I have already hinted,
 at a very small expence. In the time of war 400,000 have been brought
 to the field; but those which are raised from the militia are very indiffe-
 rent troops. In the reign of Lewis XIV. the French had at one time
 100 ships of the line, which was almost equal to the marine force of
 all Europe besides. The French have, however, at sea been generally
 defeated by the English. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened
 in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine which it never has recovered.
 The present king, Lewis XV. has more than once made prodigious
 efforts towards re-establishing his navy, but his officers and seamen are so
 much inferior to those of England, that he seemed during the late war to
 have built ships of force for the service of Great Britain, so frequent were
 the captures made by the English. At present, viz. 1769, we are told,
 that including 50 gun ships, the French navy amounts to sixty-four ships
 of the line, and twenty-five frigates, besides smaller vessels.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Few countries, if we except
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Italy, can boast of more valua-
 ble 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 broken open were
 found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other
 parts

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 itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found at Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nismes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nismes, 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 tires 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 Nismes, but the chief is 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 Carree. The architecture and sculpture of this building is 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 Arles in Provence is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and 7 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 Nismes, 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.

I have already mentioned several remarkable springs and mountains which may be considered as natural curiosities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been already mentioned, and some subterraneous passages and holes, especially at St. Aubin in Brittany and Niont in Dauphiny, are really stupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] These are numerous in France, of which we shall only mention 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 garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambrick, and camblets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French have been obliged to demolish, but is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

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Moving southward, we come to the Isle of France, the capital of which, and the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so often described, that it may appear superfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deserves, to all the capitals in the world, in every respect, not excepting even population. Many of the English have been imposed upon in this respect; and I have already hinted at the reasons, particularly the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the most populous parishes about London. Another mistake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of dissenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not register the births of their children, is amazing; and many of the poorer sort cannot afford the expence of such registration. Another peculiarity existing in London is, that most of the Londoners, who can afford the expence, when they find themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris therefore, where the registers are more exact and accessible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of London; and by the best accounts, it does not amount to 700,000, which is not two thirds of the numbers inhabiting London and Westminster and the contiguous parishes.

Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are more shewy, and some of its streets, squares, hospitals, and churches, more superbly decorated; but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must be owned, is the paradise of splendor and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelines is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour 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, 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 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. The houses are built of stone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedness, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London: it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort: over it are many stone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eye of strangers, are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy over other nations

nations, is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapestry, their libraries, and collections of paintings that are open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, however, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanness of their streets, elegance of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is said disagrees with strangers, as do likewise their small wines. In the houses of Paris, most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented, with tester and curtains; but bugs are here a most intolerable nuisance, which frequently oblige strangers to sleep on the floor during the excessive heat in the summer. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; nor has their government made the provisions that are ever in its power for the comfort of the inferior ranks; its whole attention seeming to be directed to the conveniency and splendor of the great. The shopkeepers, an indolent loitering people, seldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dress, of velvet cap, silk night-gown, and Morocco slippers; but when they intend a visit or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the resemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery business of the shop, while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, of fashions and diversions, the invincible force of their armies, the splendor of the grand monarch, and the revolutions that they are made to believe frequently happen in England. The Parisians, however, are remarkably temperate in their living, and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine which is generally drunk, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and wine. The Parisians scarcely know the use of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happen. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that no 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 reasons, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and this is the practice in every country of Europe, England and Scotland excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them being scattered

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The palace of Versailles, in the neighbourhood of 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. 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; but some of them are in a shameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

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: yet its entrance is difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, an 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 on the ocean 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 the 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 rope-walk of stone is 320 toises in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular storehouses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, } The title assumed by the French king,
NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. } is simply, King of France and Navarre;
and by way of compliment he is called his Most Christian Majesty. His arms are three fleurs-de-lis, or, in a field argent, supported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the same arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent*.

The French nobility are of four kinds; first, the princes of the blood; secondly, dukes and counts, peers of France; thirdly, the ordinary nobility; fourthly, the nobility lately made, or those made in the present reign. The first prince of the blood, is the person who stands next to the crown after the king's sons. The knights of the Holy Ghost are ranked among the higher nobility, as are the governors and lieutenants-general of provinces.

In France there are three orders; first, that of St. Michael, instituted in 1469, and though originally composed only of thirty-six knights, was afterwards enlarged to a hundred: the knights wear a gold chain of double scolloped shells, with a medal expressing a rock, on which is represented St. Michael encountering the dragon. A person must be a knight of this order before he can enter into that of (secondly) the Holy Ghost, which is composed of a hundred persons, exclusive of the sovereign, and it is conferred only on princes of the blood, and persons of the highest rank. The ensigns of this order, which was founded in

1578, by Henry III. are a gold cross, with a white dove enamelled on one side in the middle, and on the other the image of St. Michael, appendant to a blue ribbon, passing from the right side to the left. The knights also wear, on the left breast of their coats, a silver cross, with a dove embroidered, argent. Thirdly, the order of St. Lewis, which was instituted merely for military merit, and is worn by almost every officer, and even subalterns. Its ensign is a gold cross enamelled, argent, and adorned with golden lillies; on one side of it is a coat of mail, with this inscription, LUD. M. INSTITUT. 1693; on the other is a drawn sword, with a wreath of laurel at its point, and the motto *Bell. virtutes præm.* Those called the grand croix, or great crosses, wear it on a broad flame-coloured ribbon over the shoulder, having also a gold embroidered cross on their coat. The commanders wear it in the same manner, but without the embroidered cross. The other knights wear the cross appendant to a narrow flame-coloured ribbon, fastened to a button-hole.

HISTORY.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to a British reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæsar, about forty-eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. These Salii had a rule, which the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the succession of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is well known by the name of the Salic law.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumscribed and limited.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 468; from which period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and

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and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of these dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from the northern parts of Europe, ravaged the kingdom of France; and about the year 900 obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; who afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as we shall see in the sequel of their history, which we shall now relate at greater length, as it is both more important in itself, and more interwoven with that of other nations.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects; in the first place, it carried off hundreds of thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs. Lewis VI. after a turbulent reign, was succeeded in 1137 by Lewis VII. called the Younger. This prince, being smitten with the spirit of crusading, lost a fine army in his expedition to the Holy Land. Being pious and scrupulous, and married to a woman of high spirit and great gallantry, who was heiress of Guienne and Poitou, he divorced her, and impolitically gave her back all her hereditary dominions. Eleanor immediately flung herself into the arms of Henry II. of England, the most vigorous spirited prince of the age, and in her right, besides being duke of Normandy, he became master of her provinces, which were the finest in France; so that his power in that kingdom was little inferior to that of the king.

Lewis the Younger was succeeded by his son Philip II. surnamed Augustus, a wise successful prince, who taking advantage of the civil distractions of the English, not only re-annexed some of their French dominions to his crown, but shook their throne itself. The reign of Lewis VIII. was but short. Lewis IX. commonly called St. Lewis, who succeeded his father in 1226, would have been considered as the greatest prince of his age, had he not madly engaged in a crusade, in which he was made prisoner by the infidels, who defeated his army, and obliged him to regain his liberty by a vast sum. Upon his return, he assisted his brother Charles, duke of Anjou, in seizing the kingdom of Naples; and not rendered wiser by his calamity, he died of an epidemical distemper in 1270, while he was besieging Tunis, in a fresh crusade for conquering the kingdom of Egypt, which he flattered himself would open his way to Jerusalem. This Lewis left a younger son, Robert, who was the founder of the Bourbon line now sitting on the thrones of France, Spain, and Naples. Under Philip III. surnamed the Hardy, happened the famous Sicilian vespers in 1282, in which almost all the French in Sicily were massacred, and the king of Arragon took possession of that island.

Philip

Philip IV. surnamed the Handsome, was engaged in several unfortunate wars with the English and Flemings. He endeavoured to repair his finances, by the barbarous massacre and extinction of the knights templars within his dominions. He was succeeded in 1314 by his son, Lewis X. called Hutin, or the Haughty, who dying without issue in 1316, his daughter claimed the crown, but it was adjudged, according to the Salic law, to Philip the Long, brother to Lewis X. This prince, in 1322, was succeeded by Charles IV. the third son of Philip IV. and he dying in 1328, the male line of Philip IV. became extinct.

The crown of France was claimed by Philip of Valois, a brother's son of Philip IV. His claim was disputed by Edward III. of England, Philip IV's grandson by his daughter Isabella; who pleaded, that he being a male descendant, though by a female, he could not be barred from the succession. His argument would have had great weight, but the peers of France hated the English, and adjudged their crown to Philip. I have already, in the history of England, mentioned the war which this decision occasioned, and the glorious victories obtained over the French, particularly those of Cressy and Poitiers, by Edward, and likewise the peace of Bretigni, which prevented the utter ruin of France. In this reign, the county of Dauphiny was annexed, by Humbert, its last count, to the crown, upon condition that the eldest son of France should be, for the time to come, called Dauphine. This happened in the year 1349, upon Humbert being accidentally the occasion of his infant and only son's death. In this reign likewise, the tax upon salt, called Gabel, was invented by the Jews, and has continued ever since. Philip was succeeded, in 1350, by his son John, who was made prisoner at the battle of Poitiers, and carried to England, with his young son Philip the Hardy, afterwards duke of Burgundy. During his captivity, France was almost ruined, not only by foreign, but civil wars, and the ambition of Charles of Navarre, who aspired to the crown. After the treaty of Bretigni in 1360, he returned to France; but (as some say) his ransom not being quite discharged, he came back to England, where he died. Others, with more probability, say, that his return to his captivity was owing to his passion for an English lady. His son, Charles V. surnamed the Wise, succeeded him in 1364. He was successful against the English, partly by his arms, and more by his politics; and recovered from them great part of their conquests in France, especially during the sickness, and after the death of the brave Black Prince.

The French, at this time, through their frequent wars with the English, and dissensions among themselves, had relapsed into a state of barbarism. De Guesclin, the constable of France, one of the greatest warriors of his time, could neither read nor write, and the fame was the case with almost all the great French nobility. Charles V. loved learning and learned men; and his reign is distinguished by founding a royal library, which was afterwards carried into England, but partly recovered by the French. Charles, however, notwithstanding his learning and his wisdom, was weak enough to have an astrologer, who was a Pisan, and father of the famous Christina of Pifa, without whose advice, upon consulting the stars, he undertook nothing of consequence.

Charles V. died in 1380, as he was preparing to drive the English entirely out of France; and was succeeded by his son, Charles VI. by some surnamed the Simple. His reign proved unfortunate to France; for after giving great specimens of his spirit and courage, he fell into a

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frenzy; during which the kingdom was shattered to pieces by a contest for the regency, between the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy. The national misfortunes were completed by the invasion of France under Henry V. of England, who, as has been already mentioned, totally defeated the French at the battle of Agincourt, and married the French king's daughter, in whose right he was to succeed to the crown. This destination was partly effected through the spite conceived by the queen of France against her own son, the dauphin, who had murdered the duke of Burgundy, and was declared incapable of succeeding to the crown: France was once more delivered from impending ruin, by the deaths of Henry V. and Charles VI. in 1422.

The dauphin, who now assumed the title of Charles VII. was then at a very low pass, and had he not been supported by the Scots, he must have been driven out of the kingdom. The proclaiming Henry VI. of England, an infant then in his cradle, king of France, opened the eyes of the French; and Charles, with great difficulty, united them against the English. The latter were now so well commanded by the duke of Bedford, brother to Henry V. of England, Talbot, and other great English generals, that all the efforts of Charles against the English must have been ineffectual, had he not found a young woman who had formerly served as oyster to several inns, and persuaded her to feign a divine commission for driving the English out of France. She has since been known by the names of Joan of Arc, and the Maid of Orleans; and acted her part with such judgment and courage, that the French thought themselves invincible under her banners. After raising the siege of Orleans, and giving the English several severe blows, she fell into their hands, and they most barbarously put her to death, after a sham trial for witchcraft and heresy. Her valour, notwithstanding, had retrieved the affairs of Charles so much, that he drove the English out of all France about the year 1451, so that nothing remained to them there but Calais and the county of Guisnes. Charles died in the year 1461, of grief, it is said, for the behaviour of his son, who succeeded under the name of

Lewis XI. This prince was a compound of meanness, cunning; treachery, cowardice, and suspicion. He applied himself to abolish the remains of the feudal powers in France, particularly in the persons of the dukes of Burgundy and Britany. He succeeded in almost all his designs by the dint of arms, money, perjury, corruption; and cruelty. He re-annexed Provence, Anjou, and Main, to his crown; and was the first prince who sold all the hereditary, and other offices in his kingdom; He bribed Edward IV. of England, and his court, into a peace; but towards the latter end of his life, he was the most miserable being existing, for fear of death. He raised the most abject and profligate of his domestics to places of power and profit in the government, lest they should poison or murder him; and he died in the year 1483.

His son, Charles VIII. annexed Britany to the crown of France, by marrying Anne, the heirs of that duchy. This prince had a passion for war, and undertook the conquest of Naples in right of the house of Anjou; but though he succeeded, he lost that crown almost as soon as he won it, through a strong confederacy which was formed against him by the other powers of Europe to prevent his return to France. He died in 1498, without male issue, and was succeeded by the duke of Orleans, Lewis XII. This prince, to secure Britany to his crown, married his predecessor's

predecessor's widow; and after a variety of fruitless expeditions against Milan and Naples, most of them disgraceful to the French, he finished the war with England, and married Mary, the beautiful sister of Henry VIII. but being then stricken in years, he survived his nuptials only a few months, for he died in 1515. He was succeeded, in virtue of the Salic law, by Francis I. count of Angoulesme. I have already mentioned this prince as being the great patron and father of the arts and sciences in France. Though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swifs, whom till then were deemed invincible, yet he was an unfortunate warrior. He was a candidate for the imperial crown, but lost it, Charles V. being chosen. He made some dazzling expeditions against Spain; but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disoblged the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St. Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who never since had any footing in France. He married his son, the dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was succeeded by his son, Francis II. a weak, sickly, inactive prince, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had adopted the cause of Hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condè, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death, for a conspiracy against the court, but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the protestants, was treacherously murdered by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was thought to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded each

At last the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre and a protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible, in one night. This project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral fell; and it is said that about 30,000 protestants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had, some time before, been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he, with some difficulty, escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the protestants could raise armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A holy league was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The protestants, under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the German princes to their assistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finished within the year, by another sham peace. The king, ever since his accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman-catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had some distant pretences. A seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother, the cardinal, were, by his majesty's orders, and, in a manner, under his eye, basely assassinated. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited the crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was, in his turn, assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre, head of the house of Bourbon, and next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his side the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, and

a Roman-catholic, to proclaim him king of France. Being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate; for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessaries. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him but that of his religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation, in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themselves of the public distractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman-catholic. This was a measure of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having, with great difficulty, obtained absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortunes. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to the protestants the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself, with wonderful attention and success, to cultivate the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and, in a great measure, secured the happiness of his people, he formed connections with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her, for protection, into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in those conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, like Clement, another young enthusiast, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. deservedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the establishment of the protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, endeavoured, by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt, or otherwise destroyed during their continuance.

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Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself was next to an enthusiast for popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's nonage, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the administration of his mother, Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most striking causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé shined like a blazing star, sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a protestant had turned a papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of Mazarine for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms, even of Cromwell, against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have already more than once mentioned, and who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a surprizing height.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness: by the latter, he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. I have often mentioned his impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, which obliged the French protestants to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufactories, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his convenience, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was so well served, that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and that of the Austrians, under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it was splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thousand lives; Germans and Flemings. Just as he was reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved by the English withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his deliverance but two years, for he died on the first of September 1715, and was succeeded by his great grandson, Lewis XV. the present king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children, might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been seized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already seen in what manner he discharged the national debt of France; but having embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared major in 1723, and the regent on the second of December that year was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to expect that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconsistent scenes of fighting and treating with the several powers of Europe, which are to be found in their respective histories. Among the first acts of the king's government was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his first minister. Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe upon the death of the king of Poland more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law Stanislaus on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of king and the revenues of Lorrain during the rest of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great Britain, in the management of which the latter was so ill seconded by her allies, that it was finished by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748. As to the war, which had the American contest for its rise, and was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it have been already mentioned, and are too recent to be recapitulated here.

NETHERLANDS.

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.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Between	{ 2 and 7 }	E. Lon.	} Being {	300 miles in length from North to South.
Between	{ 50 and 54 }	N. Lat.		200 miles in breadth, from East to West,

They are bounded by the German sea on the north; by Germany east; by Lorrain and France south; and by the British channel west.

I shall for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetitions, treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions; First, the northern, which contains the seven United Provinces; Secondly, the southern, containing the Austrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overijssel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the seven United Provinces.

SITUATION

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Between { 3 and } E. Long. } Being { 150 miles in length.
 Between { 7 and } N. Lat. } { Almost as much in breadth.
 Between { 51 and } { } { }
 Between { 54 and } { } { }

The following is the most satisfactory account we meet with of their geographical division, including the Texel, and other islands.

Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	Dist. fr. Ind.	Dist. fr. Amsterdam.	
United Provinces.							
Calvinists.	Overissel	1,900	66	50	Deventer	220	50
	Holland	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM	90	
	Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimeguen	206	52
	Friesland	810	44	34	Leuwarden	224	65
	Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen	215	52
	Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen	200	84
	Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht	180	21
	Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg	47	70
	Texel and other Islands	113					
	Total—	7,546					

AIR, SOIL, AND SEASONS.] The air of the United Provinces is foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and the brightness and cleanliness in their houses so much taken notice of. The soil is unfavourable to vegetation, but by the industry of the inhabitants in making canals it is rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces. The Rhine formerly ran in one channel by Utrecht, and Leyden, but that channel being choaked, formed three branches on entering Holland; the Waal, the Lech, and the Iffel. The Maese runs from east to west, and falls into the sea opposite to England. The Scheld rises in Picardy, and runs north-east by Cambray, Tournay, Ghent, and Antwerp, below which city it divides into two branches, the one called the Western Scheld, and the other the Oster Scheld; the first separating Flanders from Zealand, and the other running north by Bergen-op-zoom, and afterwards east, between the islands of Beveland and Showen, falls into the sea a little below. The Vecht runs through the provinces of Overissel, and falls into the Zuyder Zee. There are few harbours in the United Provinces; the best are Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing; Amsterdam, though one of the greatest ports in Europe, is situated on so shallow water that large ships loaded cannot enter it.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } These provinces are not remarkable for any peculiar vegetable
 DUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } productions. The corn growing upon the drained bogs and meadows furnish lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size, and their horses are larger

larger than common. In some places they have wild boars and wolves, and their storks and birds of passage leave the country about the middle of August, and return the following February. Their river fish is much the same as ours, but their sea fish is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deeper water. No herrings visit their coasts, and they have no oyster beds. Notwithstanding all those inconveniences, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. 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. The common people retain that frugality and perseverance under all difficulties, which enabled them to shake off the Spanish yoke. Their country, which is protected 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 laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea by their herring fisheries, for they dispose of their most valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. Their air and temperature of climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for in all other respects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. Their attention to the constitution and independency of their country is owing to the same principle, for they were never known to affect a change of government but when they thought themselves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their interest at stake, witness their sea wars with England. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and ill-mannered sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and affection for each other. Their tradesmen are not to be trusted but when they know themselves to be under the lash of the law for impositions. The warmer passions are no natives of this country, and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, conveyancy, or habit. Though a Dutchman, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality; and though they have been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for their interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery, yet they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. In all those particulars the women exactly resemble the men, especially in their natural indifference as to the softer passions. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both

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both sexes, it is owing in a great measure to the nature of their soil and climate.

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 booths, 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. The Dutch are well acquainted with bowls, billiards, chess, and tennis, and the field sports that are suitable to their country. 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 their great dexterity in skating; both men and women darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity. They seldom use more words than is necessary about their business. Every class of men are extremely frugal. Every man spends less than his income, be that what it will; smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes; and, as they are generally plodding-upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsociable. Among the middling ranks, the difference between masters and servants, by their mutual behaviour, is scarcely discernible. The rich traders and mechanics, however, begin now 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 tables, buildings, furniture and equipages.

Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in, especially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained at certain distances by innumerable ditches; and the canals, which serve as high roads, are frequently in a state of stagnation. The usual way of passing from town to town is by traffcouts or covered boats, dragged along by horses at a slow trot. This method of travelling is cheap, but extremely dull, for there is a sameness through all the provinces. In Amsterdam, which is built upon piles, are no springs of fresh or wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs.

Their dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, plain mobbs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. Those dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Presbyterian or Calvinism; none but presbyterians are admitted into any office or post in the government, excepting the army; yet all religions and sects are tolerated, and have their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the papists and Jews are very numerous.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand at the head almost of learning itself, and Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and 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 it had almost proved fatal to the government, witness the ridiculous disputes about Arminianism,

nianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burmann stand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the classics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is possessed of some poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 published poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities chiefly because their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments in universities, church, or state.

[LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French. Their Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemelin: zoit wven naem worde gebeyligh: ww'koninckrye ch kome: wven wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel usso oock op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons baden, ende vergeeft onse schulden gelyck oock wy vergevon onse schuldenaren: ende en lept ons neit in versier kingemaer: oft on van den hoosen. Amen.*

[UNIVERSITIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce, would comprehend that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a state to which they do not trade. In this they are assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and, above all, by their water carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their East-India company have had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than a hundred years, and is the most opulent and powerful of any in the world. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is said to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Asia. Here the viceroys appear in greater splendor than the stadtholder; and it is said the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependance on the mother country. They have other settlements in India, but none more pleasant, healthful, or useful, than that on the Cape of Good-Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made some dispositions to ship themselves off to their settlements in India; so great was their aversion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberless branches of trade, such as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, starch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damasks; their saw-mills for timber, for shipping and houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the great quantity of their coin and specie, assisted by their banks, most especially by that of Amsterdam; their East-India trade; and their general industry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fisheries, are in the same flourishing state now as they were in the beginning of this century; and

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and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general industry of the inhabitants.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, the capital is the East-India, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, having divided sixty per cent. and sometimes forty, about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch West-India company, the same year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. The bank of Amsterdam is thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is said, by Sir William Temple, to contain the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may seem a paradox is, that this bank is so far from paying any interest, that the money in it is worth somewhat more than current cash is in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposes, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which is kept in the vaults of the stadthouse, amounts to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those taxes consist of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland pays above half of this revenue. The taxes in these provinces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without reason that a certain author asserts, that the only thing that has escaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. For the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are said to be exceeding low. Notwithstanding the number and greatness of the taxes, every province is said to labour under very heavy debts, especially Holland; and the public credit is not in the most flourishing condition, witness the immense sums in the British funds.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces subsist in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or constitution independent of the others: this government is called the states of that province, and the delegates from them form the states general, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy is vested; but though a province should send two, or more delegates, yet such province has no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution can have the force of a law, it must be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been set aside. Every resolution of the states of a particular province must be carried unanimously.

The council of state consists likewise of deputies from the several provinces; but its constitution is different from that of the states general: it is composed of twelve persons, whereof Gelderland sends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Overissel, one; and Groningen, one. These deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but personally. Their business is to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the states general. The states of the provinces are called Noble and Mighty Lords; but those of Holland, Noble and Most Mighty

Mighty Lords; and the states general, High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands; or, their High Mightinesses. Subordinate to these two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a separate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Holland, the people have nothing to do either in chusing their representatives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy is lodged in thirty-six senators, who are chosen for life, and every vacancy among them is filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elects the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, because without a knowledge of them, it is impossible to understand the history of the United Provinces, from the death of King William to the year 1747, when the stadtholdership was made hereditary in the male and female representatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner supercedes the constitution I have already described. The stadtholder is president of the states of every province; and such is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the assembly of the states general, though he has no voice in it; in short, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than many kings; for besides the influence and revenue he derives from the stadtholdership, he has several principalities and large estates of his own. The present stadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Nassau. His titles are, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain General, and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces. He is son of the late stadtholder, William-Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751. The present stadtholder married, in 1767, the princess Frederica of Prussia.

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is said that justice is nowhere distributed with more impartiality.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces is uncertain in time of peace, but they commonly amount to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom serve in garrisons; many of them are Scots and Swis; and, in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder, under whom is the field marshal general. No nation in Europe, England excepted, can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vast quantities of timber prepared for building of ships; but the present marine force of the United Provinces is small, compared to what it once was, when equal, if not superior, to that of Great-Britain itself.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The prodigious dykes, which are seventeen ells thick, 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 Maestricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by

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by pillars twenty feet high. The stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: it stands upon thirteen thousand 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 famous university of Leyden; such as the effigies of a peasant of Prussia, who swallowed a knife of ten inches length, and is said to have lived eight years after the same 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, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world; in this respect, some have even given it the preference to London, though I cannot see with what propriety. Its conveniencies 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 planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. 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, who are computed to be about 40,000: 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 known in the annals of literature for the accommodations of the scholars who attend their universities, and the beauty and conveniencies of their public schools. 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.

ARMS.] The ensigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, or, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cut-las, and with the other a bundle of seven arrows close bound together, in allusion to the seven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ crescunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Netherlands.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	2	}	E. Lon.	}	Being	{	200 miles in length.
		and						
		7	}					
Between	{	49	}	N. Lat.	}		{	200 miles in breadth.
		and						
		51	}					

Provinces.	Chief towns.
1. Brabant	Brussels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50.
2. Antwerp	Antwerp } in the middle Mechlin }
3. Malines	
4. Limburg	Limburg, E.
5. Luxemburg	Luxemburg, S. E.
6. Namur	Namur, S.
7. Hainault	Mons, in the middle.
8. Cambresis	Cambrai, S. W.
9. Artois	Arras, S. W.
10. Flanders	Ghent, N.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the north; by Germany, east; by Lorraine, 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	Boisleduc } N. Breda } Bergen-op-Zoom } Maestricht, S. E. Grave, N. E. Lillo } N. W. Steenbergen }
2. Austrian Brabant	Brussels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50. Louvain } in the middle. Vilvorden } Landen }

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 Austria. Dalem } subject to the Dutch. Fauquemont, or } Valkenburg }
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5. Province

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Austrian Luxemburg —	} { Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45.
French Luxemburg —	

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief towns	Chief towns.
—	} { Namur, on the Sambre and Maese, E. lon. 4-50. N. lat. 50-30. Charleroy on the Sambre.

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Austrian Hainault —	} { Mons, E. lon. 3-33. N. lat. 50-34. } In the middle
French Hainault —	

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	Chief towns.
—	} { Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15. Crevecour, S. of Cambray.

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	Chief towns.
—	} { Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-50. N. lat. 50-20. St. Omer, E. of Boulogne Aire, S. of St. Omer St. Venant, E. of Aire Bethune, S. E. of Aire Terouen, S. of St. Omer.

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Dutch Flanders —	} { Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulft, N. Sas van Ghent, N.

Subdivisions.

Province

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.		
Austrian Flanders	—	}	Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51.
			Bruges
			Ostend
			Newport
			Oudenard on the Scheld.
			Courtray
			Dixmude
			Ypres, N. of Lisle
			Tournay on the Scheld
			Menin on the Lis
French Flanders	—	}	Lisle, 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 amenity of its roads and villages, and 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 pleasant country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, not a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and campaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and Brimstone, are found in Luxemburg, Limburg, and Liege, as are some marble quarries.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Austrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought 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,

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tant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman-catholic; but protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Cambrai, Maline or Mecklin; the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS. } The Society of Jesus has produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements, which are now upon the decline. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, are 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 Vanduyke 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, and St. Omer.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both those 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.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled, particularly in that species called cambricks, from Cambrai, the chief place of its manufacture. Those manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

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 expence of their government. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the crown.

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 judicatures 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 Lorraine, brother to the late, and uncle to the present emperor. The form 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.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the empress-queen are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of those

those garrisons, and the Dutch two, yet both of them are miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Some Roman monuments of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } temples and other buildings are
to be found in those provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the
like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old
edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidences of their
former grandeur.

CITIES.] This article has employed several large volumes published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly 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 a 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 now no more than a convenient harbour for traders; and Ypres, 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 flourishing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its antient manufactories; and 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, jewellers, and painters adjoining.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is *à la mode* or *à la française*; 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 diminished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In Flanders, 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, reasonable and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion sable, and languid gules.

HISTORY.] The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was called *Belgiæ Gallia* by the Romans. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and after being erected into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions, they were swallowed up by the house of Burgundy. The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. His son Philip's tyranny made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoorn, Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples joined the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquisition, in order to suppress them, and many thousands were
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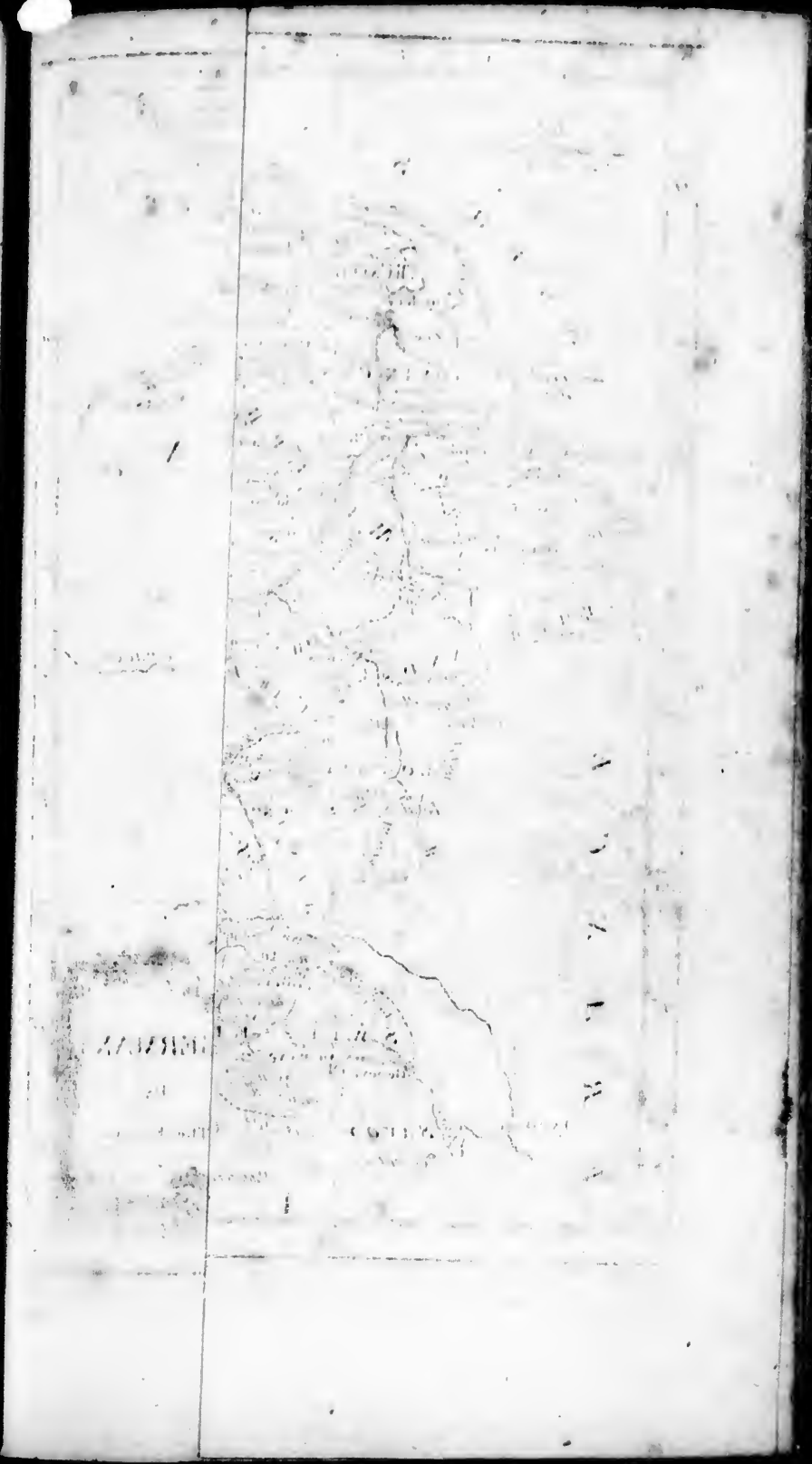
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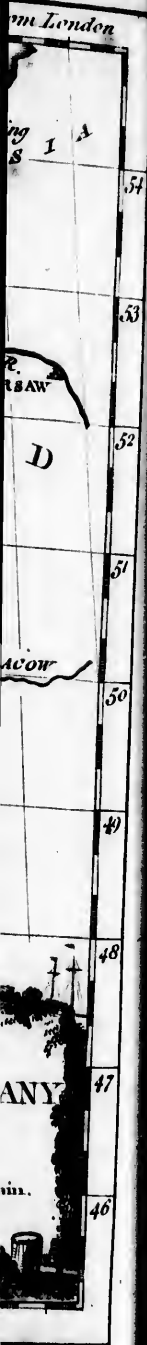
put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword, Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though these revoltors at first were so despicable as to be termed Beggars by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage was such, under the prince of Orange, and the assistance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain at last to declare them a free people, about the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independant state, under the title of *The United Provinces*. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable, and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the prince of Orange of the stadtholdership, the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great-Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy against Lewis XIV. king of France. By their sea wars with England, under Cromwell, and in the reign of Charles II. they acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power; but, as I have already mentioned, their military virtue is on the decline. The Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramilies, in the year 1706. After which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, their sovereign; and his daughter, the empress queen, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French made an entire conquest of them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and the places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

G E R M A N Y:

SITUATION AND EXTENT:

Between	{	5	{	E. Lon.	} Being {	600 miles in length.
		and				
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Between	{	45	{	N. Lat.	} Being {	500 miles in breadth.
		and				
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BOUNDARIES. **T**HE 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 divides 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 Maes.

[GRAND DIVISIONS.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I shall therefore stick to those that are most generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or southern, and the Lower, or northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles	—	—	} Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Westphalia
The circles in the middle	—	—	
The southern circles	—	—	} Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia Austria Bavaria Swabia.

I. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	
Pomerania, in the North	Prussian Pomerania, N. E.	Stetin, E. lon. 14-50. N. lat. 53-30.	
	Swedish Pomerania, N. W.	Stralsund	
Brandenburg in the middle, subject to its own elector the king of Prussia.	Altmark, west	Stendel	
	Middlemark, east	Berlin, Potsdam Francfort, Custrin.	
Saxony, Proper, in the south, subject to its own elector.	Duchy of Saxony, N.	Wittenburgh	
	Lusatia, marq. east. Misnia, marq. south	Bantzen, Gorlits Dresden, E. lon. 13-36. N. Lat. 51. Missein.	
Thuringia, langr. west	—	Erfurt, subject to the elector of Mentz.	
The duchies of	Saxe Meiningen	} Subject to their own dukes.	Meiningen
	Saxe Zeits		Zeits
	Saxe Altenburg, S. E.		Altenburg
	Saxe Weimer, west		Weimer
	Saxe-Gotha, west		Gotha
The counties of	Saxe Eifnach, S. W.	Eifnach	
	Saxe Saalfeld	Saalfeld.	
	Schwartzburg, W.	} Subject to their respective counts	Schwartzburg
Belchingen, N.	Belchingen		
The duchies of	Mansfield, N.	Mansfield.	
	Hall, middle, subject to Prussia	Hall	
Saxe Naumberg, subject to its own duke	—	Naumberg.	

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Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The counties of	{ Stolberg, north-west ——— } { Hohenstein, west — — — }	{ Stolberg { Northhausen
Principality of	Anhalt, north ———	{ Dessau, Zerbst { Bernberg, Kothen.
Bishopric of	— Saxe Hall, west — — — Voigtland, south, subject to the Elector of Saxony — — —	Hall Plowen.
Duchy of	— { Merzberg, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony — — — }	{ Merzberg.

2. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Holstein D.	{ Holstein proper, N. ——— } { Ditmarsch, west ——— } { Stormaria, south ——— } { Hamburg, a fove- reign state ——— } { Wagerland, east ——— }	{ Keil, subject to Holstein Gottorp } subject to { Meldorp } Denmark. { Gluckstadt } Hamburg, E. L. 9-40. N. L. 54. an imperial city Lubec, an imperial city
Lawenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, subject to	Hanover ———	{ Lawenburg.
Subject to the duke of Brunswick	{ D. Brunswic ——— } { Proper ——— } { D. Wolfembuttel ——— } { C. Rheinstein, south ——— } { C. Blachenberg ——— }	{ middle } { Brunswick, E. L. 10-30. N. L. 52-30. Wolfembuttel Rheinstein Blackenburg
Subject to the elec- tor of Hanover, King of Great Britain.	{ D. Calenburg ——— } { D. Grubbenhagen ——— } { Gottengen ——— }	{ Hanover } { Grubbenhagen Gottengen
Lunenburg D. sub. to Hanover.	{ D. of Lunenburg Proper ——— } { D. Zell ——— }	{ Lunenburg } { Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 32-52.
Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north	— — —	{ Bremen, E. lon. 8-20. N. lat. 53-25, an imperial city. Verden.
Mecklenburg Duchy —	{ D. Swerin, north, subject to its duke ——— } { D. Guffrow, north, subject to its duke ——— }	{ Swerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54. Guffrow.
Hildesheim bishopric, in the middle, sub- ject to its bishop	— — —	{ Hildesheim, an impe- rial city.
Magdeburg duchy, south-east, subject to the king of Prussia	— — —	{ Magdeburg.
Halberstadt, duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east	— — —	{ Halberstadt.

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
North Division	Embden, C. or East Friesland, subject to the king of Prussia	Embden, an imperial city
	Oldenburg, C. } sub. to the king of Denmark	Oldenburgh
	Delmonhurst } subject to Hanover	Delmonhurst
	Hoye }	Hoye
	Diepholt }	Diepholt.
Western Division	Munster B. subject to its bishop	Munster, E. lon. 7-10, N. lat. 52.
	Paderborn B. sub. to its bishop	Paderborn
	Osnaburg B. sub. to its bishop	Osnaburg
	Lippe, C. sub. to its own count	Lippe, Pymont
	Minden D. } sub. to Prussia	Minden
	Ravensburg C. }	Ravensburg
	Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologne	Arensburg
	Tecklenburg C. } sub. to their respective counts	Tecklinburg
	Ritberg C. }	Ritberg
	Schawenburg C. }	Schawenburg
Middle Division	Cleves D. subject to the king of Prussia	Cleef, E. lon. 5-36, N. lat. 51-40.
	Berg D. } subject to the elector Palatine	Duffeldorf
	Juliers D. }	Juliers Aix
	Mark C. subject to Prussia	Ham
	Liege B. sub. to its own bishop	Liege, E. lon. 5-36, N. lat. 50-40.
	Bentheim C. subject to Hanover	Huy
Steinfort C. subject to its count	Bentheim Steinfort	

4 UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Hesse	Hesse Cassel, landg. N. —	Cassel, E. lon. 9-20, N. lat. 51-20.
	Hesse Marpurg, landg. N. —	Marpurg
	Hesse Darmstadt, landg. S. —	Darmstat.
Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves.		
Counties in the Wetteraw south.	Hesse Hoberg —	Homberg
	Hesse Rhinefeld —	Rhinefeld
	Hesse Wanfried —	Wonfield.
	Nassau Dillenburg —	Dillenburg
	Nassau Diets —	Diets
	Nassau Hadamar —	Hadamar
	Nassau Kerberg —	Kerberg
	Nassau Siegen —	Siegen
	Nassau Idstein —	Idstein
	Nassau Weilburg —	Weilburg
	Nassau Wisbaden —	Wisbaden
	Nassau Bielsteid —	Bielstein
Nassau Otweiler —	Otweiler.	
Nassau Usingen —	Usingen.	

Each country subject to its own count of the house of Nassau.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state	—	{ Frankfort on the Maine E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city.
County of Erpach, subject to its own count	—	Erpach east.
Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state	—	{ Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city
Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts	—	{ Deuxponts in the Palat.
County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel	—	{ Catzenelbogen on the Rhine
Counties of	Waldec, subject to its own count	{ Waldec
	Solms, subject to its own count	{ Solms
	Hanau, subject to Hesse Cassel	{ Hanau
	Eysenberg, sub. to its own count	{ Eysenberg
	Soyn	{ Sayn
	Wied	{ Wied
	Wetgenstein	{ Witgenstein
	Haizfeld	{ Hatzfeld
	Wetterberg	{ Wetterberg.
Abby of Fuld, subject to its abbot	—	Fuld.
Hirschfeld — subject to Hesse Cassel	—	Hirschfeld.

5. LOWER RHINE CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Chief towns.	
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that River, subject to the elector Palatine	{ Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20. Phillisburg, Mannheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.	
Archbishoprics and Electorates of	} Subject to their respective electors.	{ Cologne
		{ Mentz
		{ Triers
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state	{ Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city.	
Duchy of Simmeren, subject to its own duke	Simmeren.	
Counties of	Rhinegravestein	{ Rhinegravestein
	Meurs, subject to Prussia	{ Meurs
	Veldenti, subject to the elector Palatine	{ Veldents
	Spanheim	{ Creutzr.ach
	Leymingen	{ Leymingen.

6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Chief towns.	
Bishoprics of	{ Wurtzburg, W. } Subject to their respective bishops	{ Wurtzburg
	{ Bemburg, N. } { Aichstat, S. }	{ Bemburg } { Aichstat.
Marquifates of	{ Cullenback, north-east } Subject to their respective margraves	{ Cullenback
	{ Onspach, S. }	{ Onspach.

Subdivisions.		Chief towns.
Principality of Henneburgh, N.	— —	Henneburgh.
Duchy of Coberg, north, subject to its duke	—	Coberg
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke	—	Hilburghausen.
Burgravate of Nuremburg, S. E. an independent state	— — — —	Nuremburg, an imperial city,
Territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W.	— — — —	Mergentheim.
Counties of	Reineck, W.	Reineck
	Bareith, E. sub. to its own margrave	Bareith
	Papenheim, S. sub. to its own count	Papenheim
	Wertheim, W.	Wertheim
	Cassel, middle	Cassel
	Schwartzzenburgh, subject to its own count	Schwartzzenburgh middle
Holach, S. W.	Holach.	

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the empress queen of Hungary.

Division.		Chief towns.
Archduchy of Austria Proper	—	Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints Ens, west.
Duchies of	Stira and Cilley, C.	Gratz, Cilley, S. E.
	Carinthia — —	Glagensfurt, Lavemund, S. E.
	Carniola — —	Laubach, Zerknits, Trieste, St. Veits, S. E.
County of Tyrol	— —	Gorits, S. E. Inspruck } S. W. on the
Bishoprics of	Brixen — —	} confines of Italy and Switzerland,
	Trent — —	

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Subdivisions.		Chief towns.
Duchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube	Subject to the elector of Bavaria.	Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landshut, Ingoldstat, N. W. Donawert; [Ratisbon] N. an imperial city.
Palatinate of Bavaria		Amberg, [Sultzbach] N. of the Danube, subject to the elector Palatine
Freiffingen, subject to its bishop	—	Freiffingen
Bishopric of Passau, subject to its own bishop	—	Passau, E. on the Danube.
Duchy of Neuberg, subject to the elector Palatine	—	Neuberg, W. on the Danube,
Archbishopric of Saltzburg, subject to its own archbishop	— — — —	Saltzburg, S. E. Hallen,

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9. SWABIA CIRCLE.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Duchy of Wurtemberg, subject to the duke of Wurtemberg	Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron
Marquises of { Baden Baden } subject to their own respective margraves.	{ BadenDourlach } { BadenWeiler } { On or near the Rhine.
Bishopric of Augsburg, subject to its own bishop	Augsburg, an imperial city, Hockitet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube.
Territory of Ulm, a sovereign state	Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city.
Bishopric of Constance, subject to its own bishop under the house of Austria	Constance, on the lake of Constance.
Principalities of { Mindelheim } Subject to their respective princes	{ Mindelheim, S. of Augsburg, } { Furstenburg; S. } { Hohenzollern, S.
Counties of { Oeting } — — — { Koneckfeck } — — — { Gemund, north } — — — { Waldburg } — — — { Waldburg, south-east } — — — { Limpurg } — — — { Limpurg, north.	
Baronies of { Kempten } — — — { Buchaw } — — — { Lindaw } — — —	{ Kempten, on the Iller } { Buchaw, S. of the Danube } { Lindaw, on the lake of Constance, imperial cities.
Imperial cities, or sovereign states	Nordlingen, north of the Danube; Memminghen, east; Rotwell, on the Neckar, and many more.
Subject to the house of Austria { Black forest, N. W. } { Rhenfield C. } { Marquisate of Burgaw } { Territory of Brisgow, on the Rhine } — — —	{ Rhenfield and Lauffenburg } { Burgaw, east. } { Friburgh and Brifac.

[NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in antient Gaul, as I have already mentioned; and the word Germany is of itself but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the most probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, signifies a warlike man. The Germans, however, went by various other names, such as *Allemanni*, *Teutones*; which last is said to have been their most ancient designation; and the Germans themselves call their country *Teuchland*.

[CLIMATE, SOIL, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of ground, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation, north, east, south, and west, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a vast effect upon the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at

at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp; towards the south it is more temperate.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture, and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is surprizingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which must necessarily change the most barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The seasons vary as much as the soil. In the south and western parts they are more regular than those that lie near the sea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eastern blasts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the seasons of Germany and those of Great Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. Many other large tracts of mountains, however, are found in different parts of the empire.

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 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 contains a vast number of cataracts and whirlpools; which interrupt the course of navigation. Its stream is rapid, and its course, without reckoning turnings or 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 Zecknitzer-see in the dutchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Besides those lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of standing water, which are next to pestilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable disorders.

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 Heraynian forest, which in Cæsar'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, bears, wolves, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants leave them and venison for their ordinary food.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Bohemia, and many places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits are found

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found in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquoise stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, allum and bitumen; besides other fossils. In several places are dug up stones, which to a strong fancy represent different animals, and sometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furnish coal-pits, and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote against poison.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is said to contain more of those than all Europe besides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and those of Pyrmont. Those of Aix la Chapelle are still more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the springs of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. Each of those, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty, and if we are to believe all they say, they cure diseases internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, likewise perform their wonders in almost all diseases. The mineral springs at the last mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are inclosed. Carlsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by many royal personages.

After all, many are of opinion that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients. It is the interest of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite institutions for the diversion of the public. The neatness, cleanliness, and conveniency of the places of public resort are inconceivable; and though at first they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themselves in a few years by the company which crowds to them from all parts of the world, many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amusement and conversation.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] These differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries I have already described; but naturalists are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century; been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the most fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its present, what we may call rude state, provisions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witness the prodigious armies which the most uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richest and most fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rhenish and the Moselle wines differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness and detensive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs. Their flesh, and the hams made of it is preferred by many, even to those of Westmoreland, for flavour and grain. The glutton of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it can master, whom they surprize artfully and devour

devour greedily, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goat, and fawns. On those the glutton feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of a torpid state, and not being able to move he is killed by the huntsmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses; but their oxen and sheep are not comparable to those of England, probably owing to the want of skill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } As the empire of Ger-
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } many is a collection of
separate states, each having a different government and police, we can say little with precision as to the number of its inhabitants; but if they are fixed at twenty millions, the number is perhaps not exaggerated. When the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population must naturally encrease among them.

The Germans in their persons are tall, fair, and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them have all the delicacy of features and shape that are so bewitching in other nations; but this must be understood of the higher ranks.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, which in fashion are the same as in France and England; but the better sort of men are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so excessively fond of paint, as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs, and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of travels; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did thirty or forty years ago; as to the peasantry and labourers, they dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and opulence. The stoves made use of in Germany are the same with those already mentioned, in the northern nations, and are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies carry them to church. In Westphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-beds; with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes; who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general the circumstances of the common people are far preferable to those of the French.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and shew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. When commanded by great generals, especially the Italians, such as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things, both against the Turks and

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the French. The imperial arms have seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards; when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two last wars the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible were they not visible, especially in watch and clock-making, jewelry, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some of which I shall have occasion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, owing to the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind. But those practices seem now to be wearing out. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been drank. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than of any other nation.

The merchants and tradesmen are very civil and obliging. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. This perhaps is one of the reasons why the German husbands are not quite so complaisant as they ought otherwise to be to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity; though they are said to be somewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premised, it may easily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high sounding title, easily enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it may treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a species of beings superior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themselves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tygers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledge with torches, and a gentleman sitting on the sledge behind guides the horse.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I shall confine myself to what is most necessary to be known. Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their superstition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand for many years against the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romish church. This was in a great measure owing to Wickliff, an Englishman, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself. He was seconded by John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe conduct, were infamously burnt at the council of Constance.

The reformation introduced by Luther, of which we have spoke in the introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses in the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practised in the church of Scotland) was introduced into Germany, and is now the religion of the king of Prussia, the landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go so far as to say that the numbers of protestants and papists in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Bohemia, Moravia, and the Palatinate, is overrun with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church government are by the protestant German princes considered in a civil rather than a religious light. The protestant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popish ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOPSSEES AND BISHOPSSEES.] These are differently represented by authors, some of whom represent Vienna as being a suffragan to the archbishopsee of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbishopric but depending immediately upon the Pope. The others are the archbishop of Mentz, who has under him twelve suffragans, but one of them, the bishop of Bamberg, is said to be exempted from his jurisdiction;—Triers has three suffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, besides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods since the reformation it has been found expedient to satisfy the claims of temporal princes, to secularize the following bishopsees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, Osnaburg, which goes alternately to the houses of Bavaria and Hanover, and is now held by his Britannic majesty's second son, and Lubec. Such of those sees as were archbishoprics are now considered as duchies, and the bishoprics as principalities.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number, thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one disputation at least. In this country there are 36 universities

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versities, of which 17 are protestant, 17 Roman Catholic, and two mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also many academies and societies for the promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *natura curiosi*; the academy of sciences at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipsic, at Duisburgh, to which we may add the Latin society at Gena. Of the public libraries, the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weimar, and the council library at Leipsic. The Germans have written largely upon the Roman and Canon Laws; Stahl, Van Sweiten, Storkh, and Hoffinan, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius of botany; Heister of anatomy and surgery; Newman, Zewmermann, Pott, and Margraff of chymistry. In philosophy, natural and moral, the reputation of Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorf, Thomafius, Otto van Gueriche, and Kepler, is great. Every prince, baron, and gentleman in Germany is a chymist or natural philosopher. Germany has also produced good political writers, geographers, and historians, of whom Bushing is the most voluminous: but they seem to have no great taste or capacity for works of wit and entertainment, as poetry, plays, romances, and novels, or what is called the belles lettres; but they have had some good critics and antiquarians. They have one great defect, however, in all their writings, namely, that they are extremely prolix, dry, voluminous, and mechanical, and know little or nothing of that valuable art in which many nations excel, namely, of enlivening their performances, and mixing the pleasant with the useful. With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themselves tolerably well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and metzotinto, as well as of gunpowder, guns and printing. For the improvement of some of these arts academies have been established in some parts of Germany; at Vienna, in particular, and Berlin are academies for painting, sculpture and architecture; at Dresden and Nurenberg are academies for painting; and at Ausburgh is the Imperial Franciscan academy of the fine arts. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians, Handel, Bach, Haffe, of whom Handel stands at the head; and it is acknowledged that he arrived at the sublime of music, but he had not the smallest idea between music and sentimental expression.

LANGUAGE. The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies so much in its dialect, that the people of one province scarcely understand those of another. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-Noster is as follows: *Unser Vater, de du bist in himmel; geheiliget wer dein name: zukomm uns dein reich: dein wille geschehe auf erden, wie in himmel; unser taglich brod gib uns heut; und vergih uns unser schuld als wir vergeben unsern sculdigern; und fuerro uns nicht in versuchung sondern elase uns von wechel. Amen.*

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.} Germany has vast advantages in point of commerce, from its situation, in the heart of Europe, and perigated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce

merce (besides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cummins, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen, yarn, ribbons, silk and cotton stuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-skins, wool, timber, both for ship-building and houses, cannon, and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, steel work, copper, brass-wire, porcelain, the finest upon earth, earthen-ware, glasses, mirrors, hog's bristles, mum, beer, tartar, smalts, zaffer, Prussian blue, printer's ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the disadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarse woollen manufactures, and several other commodities, so cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, silks, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse; linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world. They manufacture paper, tobacco, wax, clock and lock work, and the Nuremberg artificers are famous for toys and hardwares of every kind.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Asiatic company of Embden, established by his present Prussian majesty, is, exclusive of the Hanseatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but in the great cities very large extensive partnerships in trade subsist.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who as such has an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest. The Austrian revenues are immense, and are thought to amount to seven millions sterling in Germany and Italy, a sum that goes far in those countries. The late king of Prussia, whose revenues were not near so extensive as those of his present majesty, though he maintained a large army, was so good an economist that he left seven millions sterling in his coffers; and some have thought that Silesia alone brings half a million sterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a stranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes, which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and consequently the low price of provisions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that some princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot speak with any tolerable precision on a subject of such variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends so many independent states.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almost every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estates, but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whose power in the collective body or the diet, is not directorial but executive, and even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is in the diet, which is composed of the emperor, or

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in his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but by French management upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's side, to the present emperor, the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as is supposed, of heart-break, after a short uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he signs at his election; and the person, who in his life-time is chosen king of the Romans, succeeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns, but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the consent of the diet. When that consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German constitution, for George II. of England was obliged to furnish his quota against the house of Austria, and the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambassadors in all christian courts.

The electors of the empire are nine in number. Each has a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the sole election of the emperor. They are in order,

First, The archbishop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbishop of Treves, who is high chancellor of the empire in France.

Third, The archbishop of Cologne, who is the same in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire:

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia) who is great chamberlain.

The elector palatine, who is great steward; and

The elector of Hanover, who claims the part of arch-treasurer.

It is necessary for the emperor before he calls a diet to have the advice of those members; and during the vacancy of the imperial throne the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the northern; and the latter over the southern circles.

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the three ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburg, the bishops of Liege, Munster, Spire, Worms, Wirtzburg, Strasburg, Osnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Besides these are many other ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abesses, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute; and some of them very considerable, and all of them are chosen by their several chapters. The chief of the secular princes are the landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswick Wolfenbittel, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the margaves of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Curnenburgh, and many others, who have all high titles, and are

sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states; those which are imperial, or compose a part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; those which are Hanse-towns, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic-council, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. It consists of fifty judges or assessors. The president and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chuse one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly it resided at Spire; and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court for the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power encreased, the jurisdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at last, to the great disgust of the princes of the empire, it usurped upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of aulic counsellors, of whom six are protestants, besides other officers, but the emperor in fact is master of the court.

These courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. These directors are commonly as follow. For Westphalia, the bishop of Munster, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbishop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine or bishop of Worms. For Franconia, the bishop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Suabia, the duke of Wirtemberg, or bishop of Constance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbishop of Saltzburg; and for Austria, the archduke of Austria, his imperial majesty.

After, upon any great emergency, the votes of the diet are collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princess, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences; upon the whole, the constitution of the Germanic body is of itself a study of no small difficulty. But however plausibly invented the several checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the house of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been saved by France. At present a great power, the house of Brandenburg, has started up to balance the Austrian greatness; and there seems to be no great appearance of any internal commotions among the princes of the empire, a circumstance that is extremely favourable to the tranquillity of Europe, and the interest of Great Britain in particular. Before I close this head, it may be necessary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German history, I mean that of the Pragmatic Sanction. This is no other than a provision made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions

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in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported by France from political views, though the pragmatic sanction is strongly guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewise been again and again opposed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are so large as to be assigned to viceroys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are they without redress when they suffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. Whereas in France the lives and fortunes of the subject are entirely at the disposal of the grand monarch. The subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the most unhappy; for these princes, affecting the grandeur and splendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domestics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands of music, tables, dress, and furniture, are obliged to support all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vassals and dependants. With respect to the burghers and peasants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter also, in some parts, for instance, in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or only perform certain services to their superiors, and only pay taxes; whereas in the marquifate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. they may justly be denominated slaves, though in different degrees.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two last wars, very little regard was paid; in carrying them on, to the antient German constitutions, the whole management being engrossed by the head of the house of Austria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book or register, which among other letters contain the assessments of men and money, which every prince and state, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly assessments paid to the emperors when they visited Rome. Those assessments however are subject to great mutability. It is sufficient here to say, that upon a moderate computation the secular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,500, in all 453,500; of those the emperor, as head of the house of Austria, is supposed to furnish 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	_____	6000
The elector of Triers	_____	6000
The elector of Cologne	_____	6000
The bishop of Munster	_____	8000
The bishop of Liege	_____	8000
The archbishop of Saltzburg	_____	8000
The bishop of Wurzburg	_____	2000
The bishop of Bamberg	_____	5000
The bishop of Paderborn	_____	3000
The bishop of Osnabrug	_____	2500
The abbot of Fulda	_____	6000
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The other bishoprics of the empire	6000
The abbies and provostships of the empire	8000
Total of the ecclesiastical princes	74500
The emperor, for Hungary	30000
For Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia	30000
For Austria, and other dominions	30000
The king of Prussia	40000
The elector of Saxony	25000
The elector Palatine	15000
The duke of Wirtemberg	15000
The landgrave of Hesse Cassel	15000
The prince of Baden	10000
The elector of Hanover	30000
The duke of Holstein	12000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15000
The princes of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30000
The dukes of Saxony	10000
The prince of Nassau	10000
The other princes and imperial towns	50000
The secular princes	379000
The ecclesiastical princes	74500
Total	453,500

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES } I have, in describing the mineral
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } and other springs, anticipated
 great part of this article, which is of itself very copious. Every court of
 Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, antient
 and modern. The tun at Heidelberg holds 800 hogheads, and is generally
 full of the best Rhenish wine, from which foreigners are seldom suffered
 to retire sober. Vienna itself is a curiosity; for here you see the greatest
 variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks,
 Transylvanians, Slavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats,
 Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper
 habits. The imperial library at Vienna, is a great literary rarity on
 account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains upwards of eighty thou-
 sand volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew,
 Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the
 antiquity of some of them are questionable, particularly a New Testa-
 ment in Greek, said to have been written fifteen hundred years ago, in
 gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewise many thousand Greek,
 Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collection of other
 curiosities in art and nature. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals,
 castles, and above all, town-houses, in Germany, are very curious:
 they strike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and some-
 times they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture.
 The chief houses in great cities and villages have the same appearance,
 probably,

probably, as they had four hundred years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick-wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave, near Blackenburg in Hartz-forest, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles; but the most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hammelen, about thirty miles from Hannover, where at the mouth of a cave stands a monument which commemorates the loss of a hundred and thirty children, who were there swallowed up, in 1284. Though this fact is very strongly attested, it has been disputed by some critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly representing two monks in their proper habits; and of many stones which seem to be petrifications of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occasional estimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION. } This is a copious head in 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.

Tho' 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, 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 popish one. Its streets and squares are spacious; its manufacturers of all kinds are numerous, and well provided: it abounds with theatres, 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 four hundred and forty-three silk-looms, a hundred and forty-nine of half-silks, two thousand eight hundred fifty-eight looms for woollen stuffs, four hundred fifty-three for cotton, two hundred forty-eight for linen, four hundred fifty-four for lace-work, thirty-nine frames for silk stockings, and three hundred and ten 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 two hundred and ten walled towns, sixty-one market towns, and about three thousand villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief) and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings sixpence, amounts to 1,350,000 l. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil, which, if we are to believe Dr. 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 I am apt to believe the Saxon prince

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princes to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can say little more, than has been already said of all fine cities, of Dresden, the elector of Saxony's capital, 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 Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, but is of no great consideration. It contains about twelve hundred houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lies the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about 750,000 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, contains about 50,000 inhabitants, and has a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to the said 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. I shall here just mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularized bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Ems. The chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, 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, though very inconsiderable before. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally center at Breslau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by some said to bring his Prussian majesty in near a million sterling; but this sum seems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought into the house of Austria above 500,000*l*. yearly.

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. The two Austrias, and the hereditary dominions of that house, are by nature so well furnished with all materials for the luxuries, the conveniencies, and the necessities of life, that foreign importations into this city are almost totally prohibited. 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, two of which are imperial, of this capital; its squares, academics, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince

Eugene,

Engene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. The inhabitants, if we are to believe Dr. Busching, are between 180,000 and 200,000; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns, has rendered Vienna the rendezvous of all the nations round.

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 some 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; 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 present imperial majesty seems to be sensible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predecessors and their counsellors: he examines things with his own eyes, and has 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 his accession to the imperial throne; but in this he acts agreeably to the sentiments of his mother, who is the immediate possessor of those vast dominions.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER }
TITLES, ARMS AND ORDERS. } The emperor of Germany tends to be successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occasions among the powers of Europe. Austria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that house, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is vested as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering, with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. It would be equally useless as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of instituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admissible unless confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleecy, as descended from the house of Burgundy. The empress dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights, and the present empress-queen instituted the order of St. Teresa.

HISTORSY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independant race of men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independant of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. In this situation Germany remained, notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of those ex-centric and superior geniusses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over

the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the year 880, at which time the different princes assuming their original independence, rejected the Carolinian line, and placed Arnulph, king of Bavaria, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached to the popes, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their virulence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the infidels, and sometimes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the succession. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the progress of government in Germany, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raised by Charlemagne, fell asunder, all the different independant princes assumed the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, however, as they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes, independant territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus while in the other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independant barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the peoples jurisdiction. In 1440, Frederic III. duke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. His successor, Maximilian, married the heireis of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, was elected emperor in the year 1519. In his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes and French king: though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the conclusion of it, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1553 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to get his son Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian

estates

estates should revert to his second daughter, Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue. I mention this destination, as it gave rise to the opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father, Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life time. He was succeeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at last, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries out of a window in Prague. This gave rise to a war which lasted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties, but they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelic League, which was counterbalanced by a catholic league.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic, the elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, by being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague, and he himself was deprived of his electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with wonderful obstinacy; among them were the margrave of Baden Durlach; Christian, duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfeld: the last was one of the best generals of the age. Christian IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, was not fond of seeing the house of Austria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian, having put himself at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made so moderate a use of his advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipzig, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, of Sweden, was the head. I have already described his amazing victories and progress, when he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Forstenhofen, Bannier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with, France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had the siege not been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first

first checks they received in Hungary. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England should take the labouring car in the war, which was to be entirely carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male issue, he was succeeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at first made a shew as if he would continue the war, but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden in 1714, that he might attend the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the same general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and next year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leisure in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover, an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I. and so unsteady was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandizement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points, restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the purport of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the great claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very bad success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France, however, under cardinal Fleury, happened

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happened at that time to be pacific, and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers easy, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, the present empress-queen, in marriage to the Duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Prussia entered, and conquered with an irresistible army, Silesia, which he said had been wrongfully dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself and her little son; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miserable on the imperial throne, and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily and impudently rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best, and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity; but though he took Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that she might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian majesty pretended that he had discovered a secret convention which had been entered into between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themselves. Upon this his Prussian majesty, all of a sudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden; which he held till a

vacuity

treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the great duke of Tuscany for emperor. The war, however, continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed [and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles all former differences were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is the most amazing that is to be met with in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of near 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Collin, by the Austrian general Daun, and obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were beat at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterprising genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorff; but an attack made upon his army, in the night time, by count Daun, at Hoekkirchen, had almost proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did; six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipzig, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by Daun; those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, by the Austrians.

Brevity obliges me, to omit many capital scenes which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though extremely burdensome and bloody to Great-Britain. It falls more within my plan to mention the ingratitude of the empress-queen

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which he retrieved
his army, however, to
be observed that
his campaign
at Colberg, by
the king, who com-
manded; those of

passed at the
river out of
Prussia on both
sides as done that
great-Britain.
the empress-
queen

queen to his Britannic majesty, and his allies and generals, who were
threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken posses-
sion of all the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only
port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained
no mean an opinion of the Russians, but he soon found them by far the
most formidable enemies he had, as they were advancing, under count
Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted
with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair, but was, at
last, totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best
men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of
fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all
avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of
October 1756, the great marshal Keith, and forty brave generals, be-
sides those who were wounded and made prisoners. The imperial gene-
ral, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great
dependence, at Landshut, and thereby opened to the Austrians a ready
gate into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would have thought of
continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he re-
ceived seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not perhaps very easy to
account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort,
but by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their
Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under
pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he de-
feated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was
wounded. This was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ever
been engaged in, but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was at-
tended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements
which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Rus-
sians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, was on the point of com-
pleting his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of
Russia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of
October, 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great con-
sequences. The British ministry of George III. sought to finish the war
with honour, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His
Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his
losses, that the empress-queen, probably, would have completed his
destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of the other Ger-
man princes, not to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the
empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000
men to be added to her armies. The visible backwardness of her gene-
rals to execute her orders, and the successes obtained by his Prussian
majesty, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was
soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, which secured to his Prussian
majesty the possession of Silesia. Upon the death of the emperor, her
husband, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the
Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. The imperial court has
formed several arrangements of distinct sovereignties in the Austrian
family out of their Italian dominions, and seem at present to cultivate a
peaceful system both in the empire and all over Europe. His imperial
majesty, though young, has discovered great talents for government.
He has paid a visit, incognito, and with moderate attendance, to Rome,
and the principal courts of Italy, and has had a personal interview with

his

his Prussian majesty; all which circumstances indicate that he is determined to be his own master, and not to be imposed upon by his ministers.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES } THIS country is bounded to the
AND EXTENT. } north by part of Samogitia;
to the south, by Poland Proper and Masovia; to the east, by part of Lithuania; and to the west, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 100.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, } The name of Prussia is evidently
AND RIVERS. } derived from the Borussi, the an-
cient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer, and game; bears, wolves, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well stored with fishes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated by vitriol, is found on its coasts towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot-ashes. The rivers here sometimes do damage by inundations, and the principal are, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Passarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } As Prussia, since the
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } beginning of the pre-
sent century, has become a most respectable power upon the continent of Europe, I shall, for the information of my readers, deviate from my usual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole of his Prussian majesty's territories, which lie scattered in other divisions of Germany, Poland, Swisserland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which they will find in the following table.

Protestants.	Countries Names	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Dist. fr. London.	Dist. fr. Berlin.
Poland.	Prussia,	9,950	160	120	KONINGS.	350	283
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg,	10,910	215	110	Berlin,	510	
	Pomerania,	4,820	150	63	Camin,	560	96
Lo. Saxony.	Sve. Pomerania,	2,991	99	48	Stetin,	298	67
	Magdeburg,	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg,	447	70
Silesia.	Halberstat,	450	42	17	Halberstat,	420	105
	Crossen,	550	33	28	Crossen,	570	63
Westphalia.	Minden,	595	42	26	Minden,	325	190
	Ravensburg,	525	38	34	Ravensburg,	308	215
	Lingen,	120	15	11	Lingen,	272	252
	Cleves,	630	43	21	Cleves,	210	302
Netherlands.	Meurs,	35	10	6	Meurs,	250	293
	Mark,	980	52	43	Ham,	270	250
Switzerland.	Gelder,	360	34	23	Gelders,	228	302
	Neufchatel,	320	32	20	Neufchatel.	266	424
Total—		34,771					

I shall here confine myself to Prussia as a kingdom, because his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall under the description of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom were, by Dr. Busching, computed to amount to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms: and if so (for I greatly doubt their computation is exaggerated) it must then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thitherward from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number, 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, 86 seats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the other inhabitants of Germany. The same may be said of their customs and diversions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, } The religion of Prussia is, through his
AND ACADEMIES. } present majesty's wisdom, very tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, anabaptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools. An university was founded at Koningsberg in 1544, but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] His present majesty of Prussia, by the assistance of an excellent police, has brought the commerce and manufactures of this country to a very flourishing state, which is daily improving. The manufactures of Prussia consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, silk, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hemp-seed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Koningsberg.

REVENUES.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own excellent regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the seat of boors and barbarism. It is said, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arise from his demesnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum is not known, though we may conclude that it is very considerable, from the immense charges of the late war.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions, but is too wise to oppress his subjects, though he avails himself to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is 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 thirty-seven bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of councillors 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.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The regulations of this department, introduced by his majesty, have a wonderful quick operation in forming his troops and recruiting his armies. Every regiment has a particular district assigned it, where the young men proper for bearing

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th their names;

London.	Dist. fr. fr.	Dist. fr. Berlin.
350		283
510		
560	96	
298	67	
447	70	
420	105	
570	63	
325	190	
308	215	
272	252	
210	302	
230	293	
270	250	
228	302	
266	474	

arms are registered; and when occasion offers, they join their regiment, and being incorporated with veterans, they soon become well disciplined troops.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } See Germany.
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }

CITIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 parishes, and the latter 105.

Koningsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated in 54 degrees 43 minutes north latitude, on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, and is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation, I doubt, is a little exaggerated likewise, because it supposes, at an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Koningsberg has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping; its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and that 373 floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university, which contains thirty-eight professors, boasts of magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embellishments. It has a good harbour and citadel, which is called Fredericburg, and is a regular square.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Prussia are argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned, or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial sceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed, gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquissate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are two orders of knighthood; the first, that of the black eagle, instituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Koningsberg, with this motto, *SUUM CUIQUE*. The sovereign is always grand master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty.

Next to this is the order of Merit, instituted by his present majesty; the motto is *POUR LE MERITE*.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, and refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to christianity, wanted to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland, one of whom, Boleslaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent and pagans till the time of the crusades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country, when conquered. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the religious knights, who in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After this vast waste of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Casimir, king of Poland, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province.

province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand master should possess the other part; but were to acknowledge themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand master of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the east part of Prussia, (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia) but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to descend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male issue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic-William, of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by Casimir, king of Poland, from vassalage; and he and his descendants were declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederic, the son of Frederic-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, the present king of Prussia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural parts, and performed prodigious services to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which has enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources, by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the present age.

THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	12	}	E. Lon.	}	Being	{	300 miles in length.
		and						
		19						
Between	{	48	}	N. Lat.	}		{	250 miles in breadth.
		and						
		52						

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED 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; comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and 3. Moravia.

Divisions.	Chief towns.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. mostly subject to the House of Austria.	Prague, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50. Koningsgratz, E. Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia. Egra, W. Breslau, E. lon. 16-50. N. lat. 51-15.
2. Silesia, east, mostly subject to the king of Prussia.	Glogaw, N. Crossen, N. Jagendorff, S. Tropaw, S. subject to the house of Austria. Teschen, S. subject to the house of Austria.
3. Moravia, south, entirely subject to the House of Austria.	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. Brin, middle. Igla, S. W.

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia is not thought so wholesome as that of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are pretty much the same.

MOUNTAINS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS.] We have no certain account of the present population of Bohemia; about a hundred and fifty years ago, it was computed to contain three millions of inhabitants: they are thought at present not to be so numerous. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. The lower ranks are accused of being addicted to pilfering and superstition. But though the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid asserters of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other, the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit: though it is certain, their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the established religion of Bohemia, yet many of the Moravians have embraced a visionary unintelligible protestantism, if it deserves that name, which they propagate, by their zealous missionaries, through all parts of the globe; some of whom have lately made proselytes in Great-Britain: they have a meeting-house in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgratz, Breslau, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.]

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Slavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000 l. a year.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government, under the empress-queen, is despotic. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill usage, and they have a general aversion towards the Austrians. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. What gives some colour to this mistake is, that the king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

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, however, are thought not to be proportioned to its capacity, being thought not to exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and forty 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 remarkable neither for strength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned languid, and armed, or.

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 1414 John Hufs and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, were burnt at the council of Constance, tho' the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council chambers, 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 a protestant king in the person of the prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. 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; and the Bohemians, since that time, have remained subject to the house of Austria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	} 17 and	} E. Long.	} Being	{ 300 miles in length.	
					} 23
Between	} 45 and	} N. Lat.		} Being	{ 200 miles in breadth.

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Malachia, Servia, Walachia, Temeswar, and other countries) is bounded by Poland, on the north; by Transylvania and Walachia, east; by Sclavonia, south; and by Austria and Moravia, west.

The general division of Hungary, is into Upper, by some called Propper, and Lower Hungary; the former lying north, and the latter south of the Danube. Their chief towns being Presburg and Buda.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and consequently the climate, of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthy, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; 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.

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.

RIVERS.] These are the Danube, Drave, Teyffe, Me-ish, and the Temes.

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 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 work being destroyed or

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demolished, some of them however still subsist, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL } Hungary is remarkable for a fine
 PRODUCTIONS. } 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 Presburgh. Its other vegetable and animal pro-
 ductions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neigh-
 bouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tok-
 kay, are preferable to those of any other country, at least in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } It was late before the
 CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. } northern barbarians

drove the Romans out of Hungary, and some of the descendants of their
 legionary forces, are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their
 speaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got possession of
 Constantinople, we have reason to think, that Hungary was one of the
 most populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the house of
 Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair
 their works, and clear their seas, it might become so again in about a
 century hence. Both Hungaryes at present, exclusive of Transylvania,
 and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of
 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
 one arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, gives 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 hand-
 some than those of Austria, and their sables dress with the sleeves strait
 to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond
 little buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both
 men and women, in what they call the mine 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. Their 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 Hun-
 gary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufac-
 tures to the Greeks and other strangers, settled in their country, the flatness
 of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The di-
 versions 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 liber-
 ties, that rather than be tyrannized over, by the house of Austria, they
 often submitted to that of Othman; but their fidelity to the present
 empress queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her
 house, will be always remembered to their honour.

RELIGION.] The established religion of the Hungarians, is the Ro-
 man-catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are protestants or
 Greeks, and the present empress queen, out of gratitude for their ser-
 vices, has restored them to the full exercise of their civil and religious
 liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Presburg, Gran and Colocza. The bishoprics Great Waradin, Agria, Veszprin, 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 the middlemost rank speak German, and almost all of them Latin, either pure or barbarous.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the universities (if they can be properly so called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Cascham, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who are commonly Jesuits; so that the Lutherans, and Calvinists, who are more numerous than the Roman-catholics in Hungary, go to German and other universities.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Having already mentioned the natural produce of the country, all I can add is, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives, consist of metals, drugs and salt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and call their present sovereign King Teresa. 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 stadtholders 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 chafits resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this they have exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The empress queen can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 10,000; these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness has been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are still extant in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The artificial curiosities of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } this country, consist of its bridges, baths and mines. The bridge of Essek 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 distance from Belgrade, is the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, adjudged 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 Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which

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fronts the south, is eighteen fathom high, and eight broad, its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away further south than has been yet discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-six. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philosophy. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary, and some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } These are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. 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 is Gran and Comorra. Tockay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

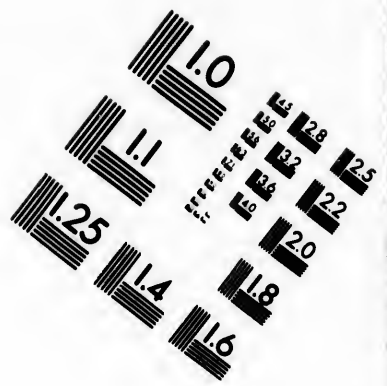
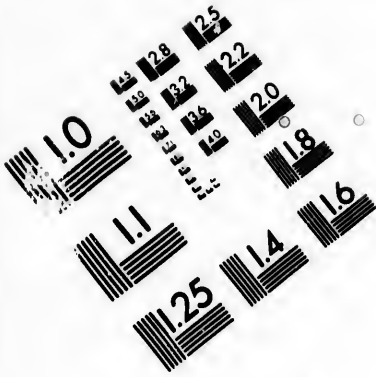
ARMS.] The empress queen, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, barwise argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country, communicated their name to it, being then part of the antient Pannonia. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, about the year 1000, when he embraced christianity. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Crontea, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the fifteenth century, Hunniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, who invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son to Hunniades, 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 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. For the rest of the Hungarian history, see Germany.

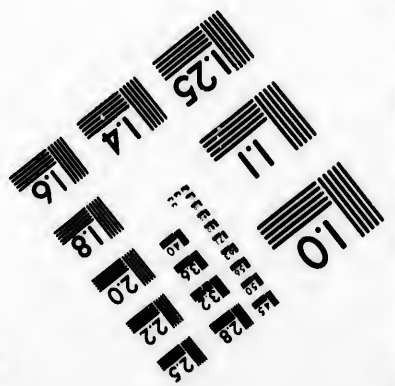
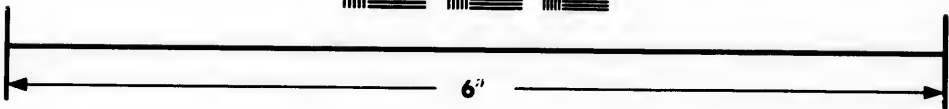
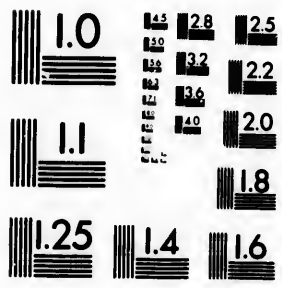
TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, AND CROATIA.

I HAVE thrown those countries under one division, for several reasons, particularly because we have no precise, or authentic account of their extent and boundaries; and it is very difficult to fix what part of them belongs to the House of Austria, and what to the Turks, or other nations. The best account therefore I can give of them is as follows: Transylvania is generally reckoned to belong to Hungary, and is bounded on the north by Upper Hungary and Poland; on the east by Moldavia and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the West by Upper and Lower Hungary. Its length is extended about a hundred and eighty miles, and its breadth a hundred and twenty, but surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals,





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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 Hermanstat, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the antient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe but a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of all their privileges. Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahomedans, 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. Hermanstat is a large, strong, and well-built city, as is Clausenburg and Wisseburg. All sorts of provisions here are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. The seat of government is at Hermanstat, 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 the sovereign, to whom of late they appear to have been entirely devoted. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the antient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. 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, thirty thousand troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regiments of one thousand five hundred 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. Hermanstat 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. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania 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.

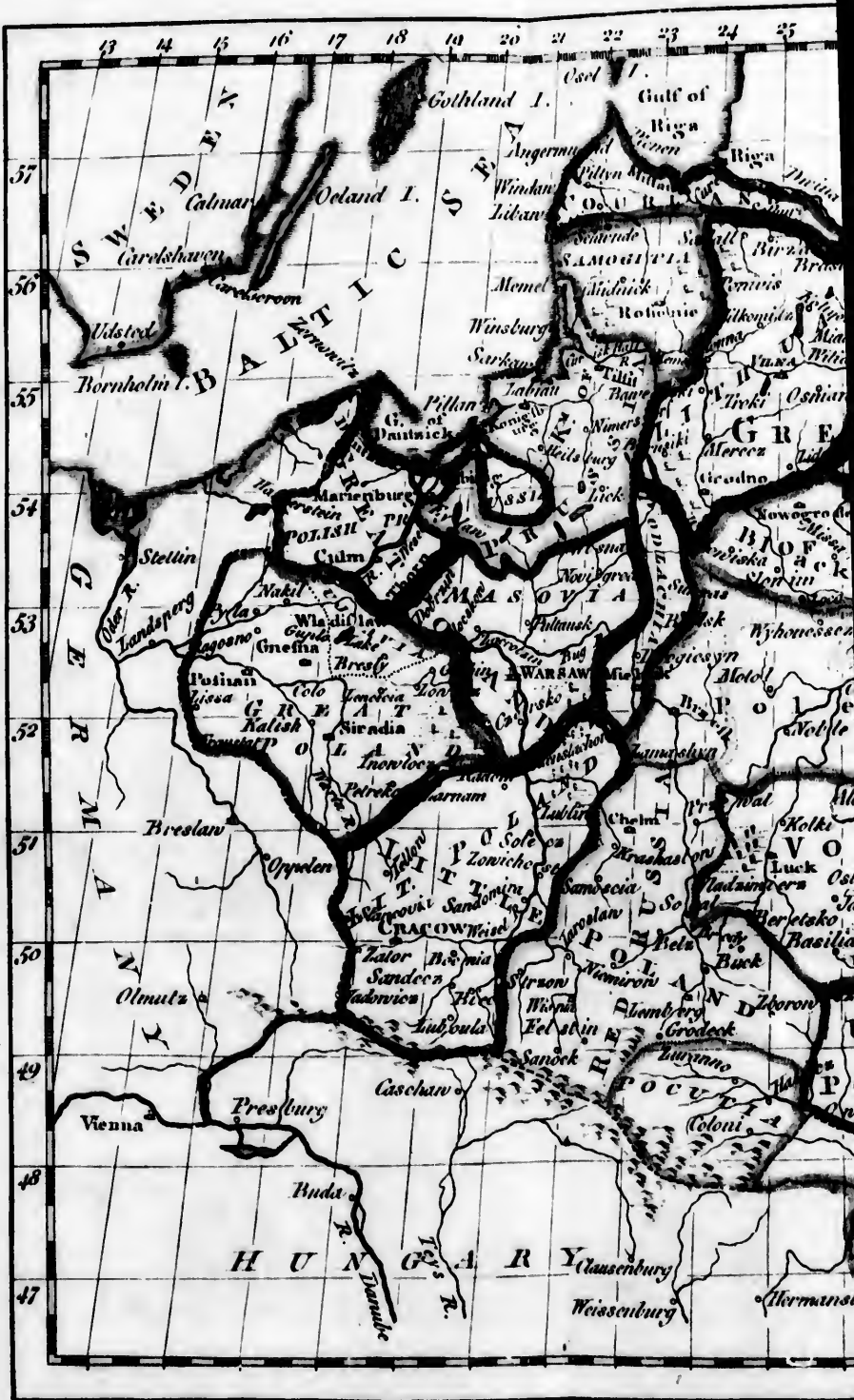
Sclavonia lies between the sixteenth and twenty-second degrees of east longitude, and the forty-fifth and forty-seventh of north-latitude. It is thought to be about two hundred miles in length, and sixty in breadth, and is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Kiria in Austria on the west. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, 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 rivers, and the strength of the country favoured their assistance, 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

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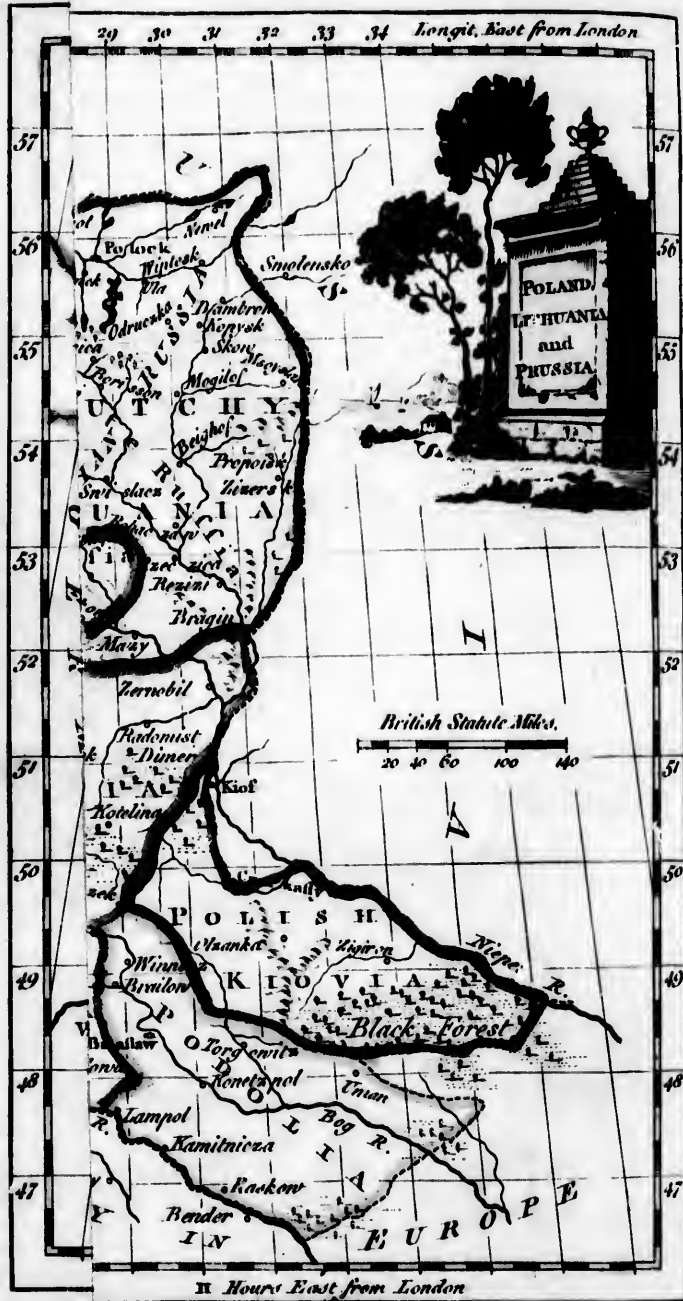


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T. Kitchin Sculp.

erved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Slavonians 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, from their ignorance, perhaps, 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. 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.

Croatia lies between the fifteenth and seventeenth degrees of east longitude, and the forty-fifth and forty-seventh of north latitude. It is eighty miles in length, and seventy in breadth. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Sclavonians and Transylvanians. They are excellent irregular troops, and as such are famous 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. Zagrab (which I have already mentioned) for instance, is thought to be the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians, seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field.

As to the other Austrian dominions, they are so intermixed with those of the Venetians, and other nations, that it is impossible to separate them, and they shall be mentioned occasionally.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{ 16 and	} E. Lon.	} Being	{ 700 miles in length.
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Between	{ 46 and	} N. Lat.	} Being	{ 680 miles in breadth.
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BOUNDARIES.] IT is very difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain with any precision, the real extent of the Polish dominions, through the uncertain possession of its extremities by the Turks, Tartars, Cossacs, and other nations. It is bounded on the north by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic; on the south with Upper Hungary, Transylvania, and Valachia; on the east with Muscovy, and Little Tartary; and on the west with Germany.

In a work like this, the reader cannot expect to be entertained with a



378 POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

vast variety of names that form the divisions of this great country. They are not well known even to the natives themselves, and a minute account of them can be of no use either to strangers or natives; but the chief obstacle to such an undertaking, arises from the different claims of the great powers of the north. The geographers, for instance, have placed the kingdom of Prussia in Poland, though it is well known that his Prussian majesty is its sole sovereign (vide ut supra). In like manner Courland is comprehended under Poland, though her Russian majesty has the entire disposal of that duchy. The best general division therefore of Poland is as follows.

Provinces.	Palatinates.	Chief Towns.
1. Great Poland, on the West.	Poznania	Pozna Kalish, Gnesna, E. Lon. 18. N. Lat. 53.
	Kalish	
	Bresty	} Compr. Cujavia.
	Wladislaw	
	Dobrzin	
	Plocsko	
	Rava	
Lencicia	Lencicia	
Saradia	Saradia	
Inowlcoz	Inowlcoz.	
2. Little Poland, on the West.	Cracow	Cracow, E. Lon. 19-30. N. Lat. 50.
	Sandomira	Sandomira
	Lublin	Lublin
3. Prussia Royal, N.W. of Wisla or Vistula, most of it sub. to Poland.		Dantzic, a free City, under the protection of Poland, E. Lon. 19. N. Lat. 54.
		Elbing
		Marienburg
		Culm
		Thorn
4. Samogitia North.		Rosienne
		Midnick
5. Lithuania, North-East.	Wilna	Wilna, E. Lon. 25-15; Lat. 55.
	Braflaw	Braflaw
	Polesko	Polesko
	Wiptesk	Wiptesk
	Troki	Troki, Grodno
	Minski	Minski
	Mscislaw	Mscislaw
Novogrodeck	Novogrodeck	
6. Warsovia, or Massovia in the Middle.		WARSAW, E. Lon. 51-5. Lat. 52-15.
	Czerko	Czerko
		Novogrod
7. Polachia, in the Middle,	Bielsk	Bielsk

Provinces.

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Provinces.

Provinces.	Palatinates.	Chief Towns.
8. Polscia, in the Middle.	Bressici —	Bressici
9. Red Ruffia, South-West.	Chelm —	Chelm
	Belz —	Belz
	Lemberg —	Lemberg
10. Podolia, South-East.	Upper Podolia —	Caminiec
	Lower Podolia —	Braslaw
11. Volhinia, South-East.	Upper Volhinia —	Dufec, or Lucke
	Lower Volhinia —	Bialgorod.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Slavonian word signifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beasts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is such as may be expected from so extensive but level a climate. In the north parts it is cold but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, is 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.

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 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 are grazing in the meadows. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt and coals; the interior parts of Poland contain forests, which furnish timber in so 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 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 a hundred, and some of them to a hundred and fifty 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 it may easily be, it communicates itself by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about thirty-five 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 Borithenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzelsy and Birals, or the White Lake, and is said to dye those who wash in it of a swarthy complexion.

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VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS }
 BY LAND AND WATER.

The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though some are peculiar to itself, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants sweep into sieves with the dew, and it serves for food dressed various ways.

The forests of Warsaw or Masovia, contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Horses, wolves, boars, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horses and asses, that the nobility of the Ukrain, 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 they seem to be the beaver kid. 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 ten or twelve in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any species of birds peculiar to itself; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and that their flesh is reckoned to be unwholesome. Poland contains no particular species of fish that we know of.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, }
 CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

From what has been said of the extent of Poland, it is impossible to form an estimate of the numbers of its inhabitants: they undoubtedly, before the breaking out of the present war, were very numerous; but they are so little known, even at present, that numbers of them, in remoter parts, continue still to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Christianity. Some have supposed Poland and Lithuania to contain fifteen millions of inhabitants, and to be at least as populous as France. When we consider that the Poles have no colonies, and sometimes enjoy long tracts of peace, and that no fewer than two millions of Jews are said to inhabit their villages, exclusive of those who live in their cities and towns, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. 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 submissive to their husbands.

The diversions of the Poles are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, skating, bull and bear-baiting.

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They usually travel on horseback: a Polish gentleman will not travel a horse's-throw without his horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never live above stairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate on the front. They content themselves with a few small beds, and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles who are poor frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving them that are rich; but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peasant boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are shut, and not opened till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself: but this is the less extraordinary, if it be considered, that these servants are esteemed his equal. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility, and the reader may figure to himself an idea of all that is furtidious, ceremonious, expensive, and showy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule, for it is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman, an old gentlewoman for their governante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of all their pomp, however, is proportioned to their estates, but each person goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, citizens, and peasants. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that arises from the public posts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another brothers. They do not value titles of honour, but think a gentleman of Poland is the highest appellation they can enjoy. They enjoy many considerable privileges, and indeed the boasted Polish liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from antient custom and prescription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals; pay no taxes; are subject to none but the king; may chuse whom they will for their king, and lay him under what restraints they please by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, can purchase lands. In short, they are almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated state; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. These great privileges make the Polish gentry powerful; many of them

have large territories, with a despotic power, as we have said, over their tenants, whom they call their subjects, and transfer or assign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Some of them have estates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles possesses above four thousand towns and villages. Some of them can raise eight or ten thousand men. The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons who have committed any crime; for none must presume to take them from thence by force. They have their horse and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their anti-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, some of them having five thousand guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate are often determined by the sword. When great men have suits at law, the diet, or rather tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the justice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raise five or six thousand men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts: for they think it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a field battle. As to the peasants, they are born slaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. A nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence and the advantage of his lord.

The peasants having no property, all their acquisitions serve only to enrich their master. They are indispensibly obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal, and frequently fatal effects, of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters, who oppress them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being exposed to the most brutal treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born slaves, and accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, they scarce entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their severe lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occasion to sacrifice themselves and their families for their master, especially if the latter take care to feed them well. They think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. I have been the more circumstantial in describing the manners and present state of the Poles, as it bears a near resemblance, in some particulars, to that of our own country and Europe in general during the feudal ages.

DRESS.] The dres of the Poles is pretty singular. They cut the hair of their heads short, and shave their beards, leaving only large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the

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leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a sash, but the sleeves sit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a sabre or cutlass, by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality wear fables, and others the skins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty suits of clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son.

Were it not for our own partiality to short dresses, we must acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majestic. Charles II. of England, thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court, and, after his restoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of English broad-cloth, but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep's-skin with the wool inward, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

The inns of this country are long stables built with boards and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge there, because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally chuse rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provisions with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

RELIGION.] No country has bred more deists and free-thinkers in religious matters than Poland: the number of protestants in their republic is very considerable, and when these are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called Dissidents. At the same time, the Polish nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman-catholic religion, even to enthusiasm, witness the present war carried on in Poland. The treaty of Oliva, which was concluded in 1660, and tolerated the dissidents, was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe, but has since been so far disregarded by the Poles, that about the year 1724, they made a public massacre, under the sanction of law, of the protestants at Thorn, for which no satisfaction has been as yet obtained. The same may be said of the other numerous provisions made for the protection of the protestants, who were persecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monasteries in Poland are by some writers said to be five hundred seventy-six, and the nunneries a hundred seventeen, besides two hundred forty-six seminaries or colleges, and thirty-one abbeys. The clergy are even possessed of two-thirds of the lands and revenues of the kingdom. The Polish clergy, in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are the most profligate of mankind. After what has been said, the reader cannot be at a loss

to account for the vast sway which the clergy at this time appear to have in Poland, in spite of treaties and capitulations. Their disaffection to their king is, however, not to be imputed entirely to religion, but to the march of the Russians into the heart of the republic.

ARCHBISHOPS AND BISHOPS.] Poland contains two archbishops; Guesna, which has for its suffragans, the bishops of Cracow, Cujavia, Culm, Lucko, Mednick, Plosko, Posna, and Wilna; and Lemburg, whose suffragans are, the bishops of Chelm, Kamienieck, and Premyzil. The archbishop of Guesna, besides being primate, and, during an interregn, prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other bishops, particularly Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system; Socinus, who has puzzled so many orthodox divines; 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 place 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 wonderfully retarded, and notwithstanding the liberal efforts of his present majesty, still continue to retard the progress of letters in this kingdom.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Poland are those of Cracow, Posna or Posen, and Wilna. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendency of fourteen grammar-schools dispersed through the city. That of Posna is rather a jesuits college than an university. We know nothing particular of Wilna; and all of them, by this time, are probably ruined.

LANGUAGE.] The Polish language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harsh and unharmonious, on account of the vast number of consonants it employs, some of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Russian and German tongues are understood in the provinces bordering on those countries.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths, and hard-wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and their other towns on the Vistula and the Baltic, of which I shall treat afterwards.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is stinted in the political exercise of his prerogative, yet his revenue is sufficient to maintain him and his household with great splendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of state, nor even his body guards. The present king had a million and half of florins settled upon him by the commission of state; and the income of his predecessors generally amounted to 140,000 l. sterling. The public revenues arise chiefly from the crown-lands, the salt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, ancient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirshan, and Roggenhus, and of the government of Cracow and district of Niepolomicz.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this subject, but it remains in a great measure still unknown. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elect him on

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back; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority has no controul over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres. Immediately after his election, he signs the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; so that in fact he is no more than president of the senate, which is composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemburg, fifteen bishops, and a hundred and thirty laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines, and castellans.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter is summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one dissenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The starosts properly are governors and judges in particular starosties or districts, though some enjoy this title without any jurisdiction at all. The palatines and castellans, besides being senators, are lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their respective palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can sit but six weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king sends them letters containing the heads of the business that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may sit in the dietine, and chuse nuncios or deputies, to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consists of the king, senators, and those deputies from provinces and towns, viz. a hundred seventy-eight for Poland and Lithuania, and seventy for Prussia; and it meets twice at Warsaw and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of state, but they are accountable only to the senate, neither can he displace them when once appointed. When he is absent from Poland, his place is supplied by the archbishop of Guesna, and if that see is vacant, by the bishop of Plofko.

The ten great officers of state in Poland, who are senators, are, the two great marshals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the treasurer of the kingdom, and the treasurer of the duchy; the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the kingdom; and the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley constitution, which new modelled with almost every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he is obliged to sign; so that nothing of it can be said with certainty, and less at this time than ever; there being now a total dissolution of all order in Poland. It must, however, be acknowledged, that in the imperfect sketch I have exhibited, we can discern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet invest him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wise people. The institutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other provisions in the republic. It laboured, however, even in its best state, under incurable disorders. The exercise of the *veto*, or the tribunitial negative, that is vested in every member of a diet or dietine, must always be destructive of order and government. It is founded, however, upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited jurisdiction which the great lords, in former ages, used to enjoy

enjoy all over Europe. The want of subordination in the executive parts of the constitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemish which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only by their own consent. After all, when we examine the best accounts of the present constitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient history of Great-Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful similarity between what these were formerly, and what Poland is at present. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwise improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their sovereign, and to maintain those unequal privileges which are so hurtful to the community. If a nobleman of great abilities, and who happened to possess an extensive territory within the kingdom, should be elected sovereign, he might perhaps, by a proper use of the prerogatives of disposing of all places of trust and profit, and of ennobling the plebeians, which are already vested in the crown, establish the succession in his own family, and deliver the Poles from those perpetual convulsions which must ever attend an elective kingdom.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Polish nobility is such, that they always appear in the field on horseback; and it is said that Poland can raise a hundred thousand, and Lithuania seventy thousand cavalry, and that with ease; but it must be understood that servants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are soon dismissed, because they must be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Polish grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it consists of thirty-six thousand men, in Poland, and twelve thousand in Lithuania, cantoned into crownlands. The plosposite consists of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the starosts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occasions, but he cannot keep them above six weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Polish hussars are the finest and most shewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancers; and both those bodies wear defensive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The rest of their cavalry are armed with muskets and heavy scimiters. After all that has been said, the Polish cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field, for though the men are brave, and their horses excellent, they are strangers to all discipline; and when drawn out, notwithstanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himself, have over them, they are oppressive and destructive to the court. It is certain, notwithstanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by discipline, and that on various occasions, particularly under John Sobieski, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. It did not suit the Saxon princes, who succeeded that hero, to encourage a martial spirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct has been since, and is now severely felt in that devoted country.

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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 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 ; but this perhaps may be questioned.

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 salts ; one extremely hard, like chrystal ; another softer, but clearer ; a third white, but brittle : these are all brackish ; but the fourth, somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow ; on one side of them there 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 form part of the royal revenue ; some having computed them at 40,000l. sterling a year. Out of some mines at Itza, about seventy miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potters 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 vast many 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 Guesna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Warsaw lies on the Vistula,
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } and almost in the center of
Poland. It is the royal residence ; but though it contains many magni-
ficent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents, 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 incon-
siderable.

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, in 53 degrees 38 minutes north latitude, and in 18 degrees 35 minutes east longitude. It is a large, beautiful, populous city ; its houses generally are five stories high ; and many of its streets are planted with chestnut-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, with a small adjacent territory about forty miles round it, 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 be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has twenty-six parishes, with many convents and hospitals. The elder inhabitants make her number amount to two hundred thousand; 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 there 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 granaries; 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: beside which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval stores, and vast variety of other articles. Dr. Busching affirms, that it appears from antient 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 of late they 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 a hundred and fifty large brass cannon, it could not, through its situation, stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminencies; and in 1734, the inhabitants discovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Stanislaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Russians, were at their gates, but even in possession of the city.

The reason why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, enjoy 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; but reserving to themselves large and ample privileges, which they still enjoy.

ORDERS.] The order of the White Eagle was instituted by Augustus II. in the year 1705. Its ensign is a cross of gold, enamelled with red, and appendant to a blue ribbon. The motto, *Pro fide, rege et lege.*

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of another, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the year 830, a peasant, one Piastus, was elected to the sovereign throne. He lived to the age of a hundred and twenty years, and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has been since elected king is called a piast. From this period to the close of the fourteenth century, we have no certain records of the history of Poland. Jagellon, who at this time mounted the throne, was grand duke of Livonia, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but was at pains to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family, until the male line extinguished in Sigismund Augustus, in 1552. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown

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of Poland. These were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian, of Austria. The French interest prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately into France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused Maximilian's interest, endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles being desirous to choose a prince, who might reside among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal house of Jagellon. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of the Cossacks, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Uckrain, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, sister of Sigismund II. for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death, but being expelled, as we have already seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden, but after long wars he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccessful wars with the Turks and the Swedes. At last a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes should keep Elbing, Memel, Branenburg and Pillan, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1632, Sigismund died, and Uladislaus his son succeeded. This prince was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to restore all the Polish dominions they had taken in Prussia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being instigated thro' the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on against the Cossacs, upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Cossacs, who are naturally a brave people, became desperate, and upon the succession of John II. brother to Uladislaus, the Cossac general Schmielinski, defeated the Poles, in two great battles, and at last forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears, that during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved as the worst of russians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; but his nobility disapproved of the peace he concluded with them. While the jealousy hereby occasioned continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they, in the year 1654, took Smolensko. This was followed with the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed most horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running the Great and Little Poland, fell into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him excepting Dantzic. The resistance made by that city, gave the Poles time to reassemble, and their king John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars, as well as Poles, so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who returned to Sweden, with no more than a

handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and English protected Dantzic, the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of the ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were however forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow, and the duchy of Severia, to the Russians.

During those transactions the Polish nobility grew very uneasy with their king. Some of them were dissatisfied with the concessions he had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke, others taxed him with want of capacity, and some with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who very possibly had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germain's in France, employing the remainder of his life in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendents of the antient kings ending in John Casimir, many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland, but the Poles chose for their king, a private gentleman of little interest, and less capacity, one Michael Wiefnowiski, because he was a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Cossacs had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the province of Podolia, and took Kamienieck, till then thought impregnable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the sultan: notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was in some measure maintained by John Sobieski, the crown general, a brave and an active commander, who had given the Turks several defeats. Michael dying in 1673; Sobieski was chosen king, and in 1676, he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland, but they kept possession of Kamienieck. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public spirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by raising the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy, for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died after a glorious reign in 1696.

Poland fell into great distractions upon Sobieski's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean while, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder, but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen dowager, in favour of her younger son prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzic. All of a sudden, Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candi-

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date, and after a sham election being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow, with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city, in 1687. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen, but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, and afterwards restored by the Czar, Peter the Great, has been already related. It was not till the year 1712, that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority, by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural son prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland, but Augustus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, against the power of Russia, and the jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died after an unquiet reign in 1733, after he had done all he could to insure the succession of Poland, to his son Augustus II. (or as he is called by some III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne, by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. I have, in other parts of this work, mentioned the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and his present Prussian majesty. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts, and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when his Prussian majesty drove him from his capital, and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski, rather on account of his personal merits, and the impatience of the Poles under the Saxon yoke, than any pre-eminence of birth or family, was unanimously chosen king of Poland. As he was eminently favoured by the Russians, the capitulation which he signed at the time of his election, and other acts of his government, were thought too favourable for the protestants and the Greek dissidents, the latter of whom claim her imperial majesty of Russia, as their protector and patrons. Her having an army lying, at that time, in Holland, gave a handle for many confederacies being formed against Poniatowski. At first they were crushed with prodigious slaughter, and to the desolation of the country, by the Russians, the king not daring to trust even the Poles of his own party, for protection. The heads of the confederacy, at last, most unnaturally put themselves under the protection of the Grand Signior, who readily embraced their cause, proclaimed war against Russia, and invaded Poland with a powerful army, and it is at this time a theatre of as much misery, blood, and devastation, as perhaps was ever known in history.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between { 6 and } E. Lon. } Being { 260 miles in length.
 Between { 45 and } N. Lat. } { 100 miles in breadth.
 Between { 48 and } { }

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. Lucern; 4. Wic; 5. Switz; 6. Underwald; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Basil or Basle; 10. Friburg; 11. Solothurn; 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.	Dist. fr. London	Dist. fr. Basil.	
Switzerland.							
Calvinists.	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne	400	39
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich	415	45
	Schaffhausen	140	23	9	Schaffhausen	405	47
Papists.	Basil	240	21	18	BASIL	375	
	Lucern	460	33	35	Lucern	422	48
	Underwald	270	23	16	Stantz	430	56
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf	442	67
	Suisse	250	27	13	Suisse	437	62
	Friburg	370	24	21	Friburg	392	50
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug	426	50
Calvin. and Papists.	Solothurn	253	31	24	Solothurn	390	23
	Appenzel	270	23	21	Apenzel	455	85
The Subjects of the Switzers.	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris	449	78
	Baden	216	26	12	Baden	408	33
	Bremgarten				415	38	
	Mellingen				Mellingen	407	33
	Rhintal	40	20	5	Rheineck	450	91
Turgow	119	18	11	Frowanfield	419	60	
Calvinists and Papists.	Lugano	850	52	30	Lugano	500	125
	Locarno				492	119	
	Mendris				514	138	
	Magia				486	112	
Total—	7533						

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS AND WATER.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow, sometimes all the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often

often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, when well cultivated, as they generally are. The country is subject to rains and tempests, for which reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switserland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a pleasing effect.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, the Aar, the Rufs, the Jun, the Rhone, the Thur and the Oglis. The lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Thun, Lucern, Zurich, Neufchatel and Bi:nde.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Sheep and cattle are the chief animal productions of this country; corn and wood, and some wine, with pot-herbs of almost every kind, are likewise found here. The produce, however, of all those articles, are no more than sufficient for the inhabitants, who are too far removed from water-carriage to be profited by the stately timber that grows in their woods. They have vast plenty of game, fish and fowl.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the best accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about two millions of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and attachment to the cause they undertake. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. All the cantons are regimented in a manner, that contributes equally to the safety and profit of the inhabitants, who supply foreign powers with excellent soldiers. They are so jealous of their liberties, that they discourage foreigners from settling among them. Their nobility and gentry disdain the profession of trade and manufactures. It is said, that in many places of Switzerland, the inhabitants, especially those towards France, begin to degenerate from the antient simplicity of their manners and dress. Their customs and diversions are of the warlike and active kind, and the magistrates of most of the cantons, impose fines upon plays, gaming, and even dancing, excepting at marriages.

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 public commotions, which seem now to have subsided. Zuing, commonly called 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.

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 Rousseau too, whose works the present age have received with so much approbation, is a citizen of Geneva.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basl contains a noble library, some valuable manuscripts, and an excellent collection of medals. The other universities are those of Bern, Lausanne and Zurich.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swisses, who border upon France, speak a bastard French, as those near Italy do a corrupted Latin, or Italian.

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London	Diff. fr. Basil.
400	39
415	45
405	47
375	
422	48
430	56
442	67
437	62
392	50
426	50
390	23
455	85
449	78
408	33
415	38
407	33
450	91
419	60
500	125
492	110
514	138
486	112

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COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning to fabricate, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make some exports.

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 three hundred thousand crowns, and those of Zurich to a hundred and fifty thousand, the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expences of government, is laid up as a common stock, and it has been said, that the Swisses are possessed of 500,000 l. sterling in the English funds, besides those in other banks.

Their 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.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated heads, though belonging to the same body, being partly monarchical, partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. The bishop of Basle, and abbot of St. Gaul, are sovereigns. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction, but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern, with other dependencies, are aristocratical; those of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. But even those aristocracies, and democracies, differ in their particular modes of government. Perhaps in fact the democratical and popular part, as well as the aristocratical, are governed by their several leaders among the nobility, gentry, or eminent citizens.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first, are the Swisses, properly so called. The second, are the Grisons, or the itates, 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 every 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. Gaul, and the cities of St. Gaul and Bienne.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons consist of thirteen thousand four hundred 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 itates and princes are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its population.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Every district of a canton in
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } this mountainous country, pre-
sents the traveller with a natural curiosity; sometimes in the shape of
wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, wonderful
hermitages, especially one two leagues from Friburg. This was formed
by**

by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for twenty-five years, and was living in 1707. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour, twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, and ceiling, all cut out of the rock. 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 eighteen miles in length, from mount Jura, to the banks of lake Lemman, 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.

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 a hundred thousand armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided in arsenals, bridges, and public edifices.

I shall here, to prevent a repetition, 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, contains thirty thousand inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situated upon the estuary 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.

HISTORY.] The present Swisses and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendents 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 their 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 redouble the hardships of the people, and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Griser, 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 arrow, and Griser asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended to his [Griser'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.

Notwith-

Notwithstanding the above story, which might be true in the whole or part, it seems to be certain that the revolt of the Swisses from the Austrian tyranny had been planned among some noble patriots for some time before. Their measures were so just, and their courage so intrepid, that they soon found a union of several cantons, which daily encreased, and 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. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swisses, I must refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

S P A I N.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between { 10 W. } Lon. } Being { 700 miles in length.
and { } }
3 E. }
Between { 36 } N. lat. } near 500 miles in breadth.
and { 44 } }

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 hills, on the north; and by the strait of the sea of Gibraltar, on the south.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	Dist. fr. London, fr.	Dist. fr. Madrid.
Spain.						
Castile, New	27,840	220	120	MADRID	690	
Andalusia	16,500	273	135	Seville	890	205
Castile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos	580	115
Aragon	13,818	190	105	Saragosa	590	96
Extremadura	12,600	180	123	Badajoz	840	180
Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compostella	635	276
Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon	580	163
Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona	622	290
Papists						
Granada	8100	200	45	Granada	850	180
Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia	712	180
Biscay and Ipuscoa	4760	140	55	Bilboa	237	184
Asturia	4600	124	55	Oviedo	562	208
Murcia	3600	87	65	Murcia	810	165
Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampelona	525	195
In the Medi- terranean.						
Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca	618	315
Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica	588	265
Total	150,263					

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 Ulterior; the Citerior, or hither part, contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, 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 of than that of Spain.

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810	195
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618	315
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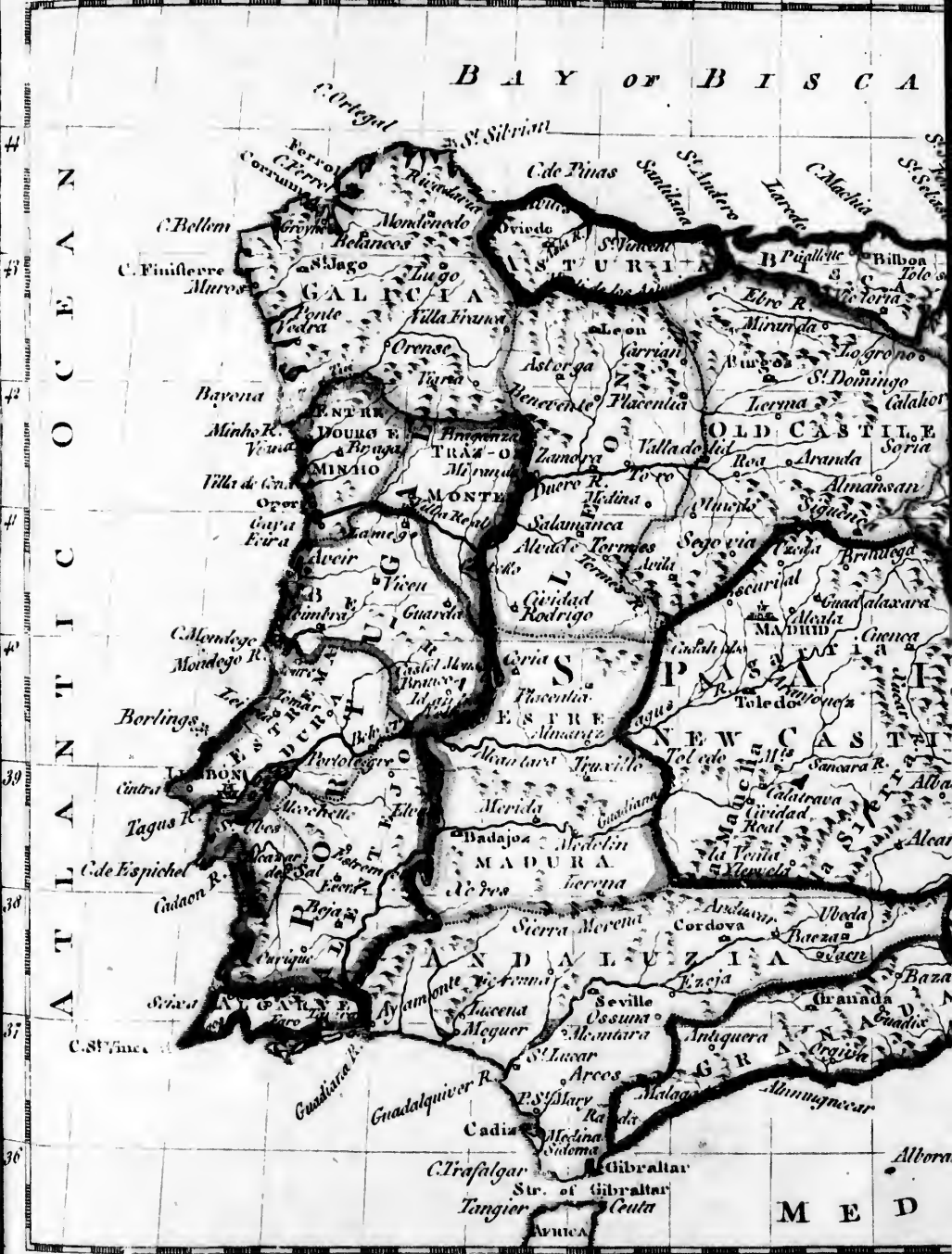
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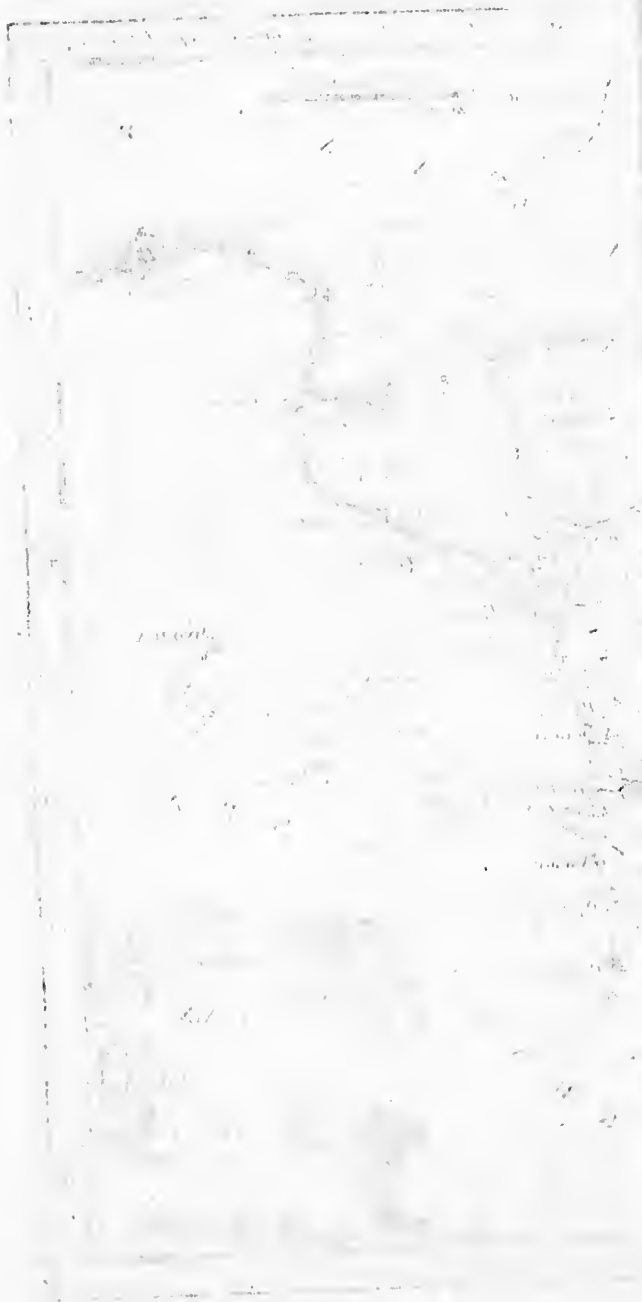
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SOIL AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoxial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessive hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, 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, and in the night make a traveller shiver.

So few writers have treated of the interior parts of Spain, that the public knew little of them till within these fifty years. The soil of Spain, it is well known, was formerly fruitful in corn, but the natives now find a scarcity of it, by their disuse of tillage, through their indolence; the causes of which I shall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. Her wines, especially her sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners; and Dr. Busching says, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export yearly wines and raisins to the amount of two hundred sixty-eight thousand seven hundred and fifty-nine pounds sterling. Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; such are the generous qualities of its soil. Even sugar canes thrive in Spain; and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. A late writer, Ustariz, a Spaniard himself, computes the number of shepherds in Spain to the amount of forty thousand; and has given us a most curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of pasture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Those sheep-walks afford the finest of wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety than Spain does of aromatic herbs, which renders the taste of their kids and sheep so exquisitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000 l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and less to industry.

The waters (especially those that are medicinal) of Spain, are little known, but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordoua. 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 Alhamar in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous; the chief are the Pyrenees, near two hundred 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. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. No Englishman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying opposite to it in Africa.

RIVERS

RIVERS AND LAKES.] These are the Douro, formerly Durius; the Ebro, the ancient Iberus; the Guadalaviar, now Turio; the Tajo, formerly celebrated by the name of the Tagus, which falls into the Mediterranean below Lisbon.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fishes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Coruña (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthage, Alicante, Altea, Valentia, Roser, and Majorca in that island. The harbour of Port-Mahon, in the island of Minorca, belongs to England. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the same kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, load-stones, jacinths, turquois-stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, allum, calamine, chrysol, marbles of several kinds, with other stones; and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts are found here. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world; and in former times, brought in a vast revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection. Even to this day, Spanish gun-barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongst the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines; and silver was in such plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Augustus Cæsar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were of that metal. These mines have now disappeared, but whether by their being exhausted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot say; though the latter cause seems to be the most probable.

**ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } The Spanish horses, especially those of
BY SEA AND LAND. } Andalusia, are thought to be the hand-
somest of any in Europe, and at the same time very fleet and serviceable.
The king does all he can to monopolize the finest breeds 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 was the
most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they
now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey that pester Spain,
which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be
found in the neighbouring countries I have already described. The
Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies,
which are here cured in great perfection.**

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Spain, formerly the most
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } populous kingdom in
Europe, 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 na-
tives, 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. Other writers have given several other causes,
but I apprehend that they are in a great measure removed by the regulations
and checks upon the clergy that have been introduced by his present catho-
lic majesty. Be that as it will, some late writers have computed the inha-
bitants of Spain at seven millions and a half; others say that they do
not exceed five millions. This calculation, I think, is under-rated, when**

we reflect on the numerous armies which Spain has raised and recruited since the beginning of this century.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians; 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 dress, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkin, their breeches, and long Toledo swords, which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dress 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 descendents. This is the true reason why so many of them are so fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of seeing a superior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the most exalted qualities. 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 seventy years past, we know of no instance 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 peace. This is the more surprizing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great-Britain.

By the best and most creditable accounts of the late war, it appears that the Spaniards in South 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, who are 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 native Spaniards of great families as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise into power by the most infamous arts, and of late times from the most abject stations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, since their accession to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his matter 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 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 the time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and

when

when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service.

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances; for though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their persons, they are commonly small and slender; but they are said to employ vast art in supplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than encrease their beauty, especially when they are turned of twenty-five. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexions, and shrivels their skin. It is at the same time universally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have said, it is more than probable that the vast pains taken by the government of Spain, may at last eradicate those customs and habits among the Spaniards that seem so ridiculous to foreigners. They are universally known to have refined notions and excellent sense; and this, if improved by study and travelling, which 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 Galicia, 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 sobriety 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, salad, 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. Their theatrical exhibitions are generally insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head appears through a trap door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades of mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-fests, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of shewing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great pains are used in settling the form and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalship.

RELIGION.

RELIGION.] The horrors of the Romish religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now almost extinguished there, by moderating the penalties of the inquisition, a tribunal disgraceful to human nature; but though disused, it is not abrogated; only the ecclesiastics and their officers can carry no sentence into execution without the royal authority. It is still in force against the Moorish and Jewish pretended converts. The Spaniards, however, embrace and practise the Roman-catholic religion with all its absurdities; and in this they have been so steady, that their king is distinguished by the epithet of Most Catholic.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbishoprics, and forty-six bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is stiled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Castile; has a revenue of 100,000 l. sterling per annum. The riches of the Spanish churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a sameness in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treasure and jewels they contain.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in some measure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which does not suffer them to apply to the study of the polite arts. 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. Calderoni and Lopez de Vega, have by some been put in competition with our Shakespear in the drama, where it must be owned they shew great genius. 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*, lived 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. 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 is perhaps to be placed at the head at once of moral and humorous satirists.

Toissatus, 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 Solis, have shewn great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive. If it should happen that the Spaniards could disengage themselves from their abstracted metaphysical turn of thinking, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts, particularly Murillo, in painting; and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects; but neither their names nor works are much known in other parts of Europe.

LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spanish language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a bastard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is at present a most majestic and expressive language; and it is remarkable, that foreigners who un-

derstand it the best, prize it the most. It makes but a poor figure even in the best translators; and Cervantes speaks as awkward English, as Shakespear does French. It may, however, be considered as a standard tongue, having retained its purity for upwards of two hundred years. Their Pater-noster runs thus; *Padro nuestro, que estas en los cielos, santificade sea tu nombre; venga tu regno; bagase tu voluntad, assien la tierra como en el cielo; da nos hoy nuestro pan cotidiano; y perdona nos nuestras deudas assi como nos otros, perdonamos a nuestros deudores; y no nos metas en tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le regno; y la potencia; y la gloria por los siglos. Amen.*

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned twenty-two universities, some make them twenty-four; as, Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Salamanca, Alcalá, Sigüenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huesca, Saragosa, Tortosa, Oñuna, Onata, Gandia, Barcelona, Murcia, Tarragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themselves, make gold and silver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium for this commerce. "Hither (says Mr. Anderson, in his History of Commerce) other European nations send their merchandize, to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered (or, as our old English phrase has it, coloured) under the names of Spanish factors. Those foreign nations have here their agents and correspondents, and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz has been said to have the finest storehouses and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treasures of Spanish America. The proper Spanish merchandize exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandize sent thither would yield a great revenue, (and consequently the profits of merchants and their agents would sink) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding those duties.

The manufactures of Spain are chiefly of silk, wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but these never can be successful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to supply their American possessions with their own commodities and merchandize.

Mean while, the good faith and facility with which the English, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themselves are, the clear profits seldom amounting to less than twenty per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that those immense riches should belong to the Spaniards rather than to any active European nation: but I shall have occasion to touch this subject in the account of America.

REVENUES.] The revenues arising to the king from old Spain, yearly amount to five millions sterling, though some say eight; and they form the surest support of his government. His American income, it is true, is immense, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked, but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequester into his own hands great part of the American treasures

belonging

belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber, and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than forty thousand; but in case of a war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to ninety-six thousand. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expence to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at present exceeds fifty ships of the line.

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 a hundred and seventy arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terragona, Toledo, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules.

The Moorish antiquities, especially the palace of Granada, are magnificent and rich: the inside is overlaid with jasper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inscriptions; the whole is executed in what we improperly call the Gothic taste, but it is really Saracen, tho' the Goths of Spain adopted it. 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 Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is said to emerge.

CHIEF CITIES.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about three hundred thousand inhabitants. All its grandeur, which the Spaniards blazon with great pomp, does not prevent its being, according to the best accounts, a dirty uncomfortable place to live in, especially for strangers. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are always covered with snow. The houses in Madrid are of brick; and are laid out chiefly for show, conveniency 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 beside 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 boasted 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, Casa de Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

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 palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizeable quarto volume, and it is said, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it three millions, three hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling. The Spaniards say, that this building, besides its palace, contains a church, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, 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 two hundred, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000 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.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the incredible sums bestowed on this palace, and on its furniture, statues, paintings, columns, vases, and the like decorations, which are most amazingly rich, and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in saying, that the fabric itself discovers a bad taste, upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St. Laurence, 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 (but by the assistance of the English forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1563. 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 has been already mentioned as the emporium of Spain. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, 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 five hundred fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the English, in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest our merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors.

Seville is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. Its manufacturers in wool and silk, who formerly amounted to sixteen thousand, are now reduced to four hundred, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America, is removed to Cadiz. Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites easily satisfied. The inferior orders, even in the greatest cities are miserably lodged, and those lodgings wretchedly furnished. The poorer sorts, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings.

ings. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bedding with him, and if perchance 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 of late some tolerable inns are opened in the cities, and through the kingdom, by Irish or Frenchmen. 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 distinguish 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 corn, 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 expence of his proud benefactor.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NO- } Spain formerly comprehended twelve
BILITY AND ORDERS. } kingdoms, all which, with several
others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about thirty-two. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his catholic majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but I THE KING. Their eldest son is called prince of Asturias, and their younger children of both sexes, are by way of distinction called infants or infantas, that is children.

The armorial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand, and the lowest on the left contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions gules for Leon; with three lillies in the center for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the golden fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king. The knights of the three military orders of St. James, Calatrava, and Alcantara, are esteemed noblemen; they were instituted in the long wars between the Christians and the Moors, as an encouragement to valour; and have large estates annexed to their respective orders, consisting chiefly of towers or territories recovered from the Moors.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the most free, is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of succession. It has even been questioned, whether his catholic majesty may not bequeath his crown upon his demise, to any branch of the royal family he pleases. It is at least certain, that the house of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain, in virtue of the last will of Charles II.

The cortes or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, especially in Castile, had greater power and privileges than that of England, are now abolished, but some faint remains of their constitution, are still discernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the controul of the king.

The privy-council, which is composed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare matters, and to digest papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four more named by the king, and in them resides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences, are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valentia and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within fifteen miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides those there are many subordinate tribunals for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who are in their respective districts almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, twenty-two counsellors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates, who have served in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years, but they are thought sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Centa, Oran, and Masulquivir, on the coast of Barbary in Africa, and in Asia, the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines and Ladrones.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca, and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to say. Minorca is indeed a Spanish island, but it was taken by the English in 1708. The Spanish inhabitants enjoy their religion, and particular privileges, to which they are entitled by treaties, and they are said to amount to 27,000.

REVOLUTIONS AND MEMORABLE EVENTS. } See Portugal; the two kingdoms being formerly under one head.

P O R T U G A L,

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	7	}	E. Lon.	}	Being	{	300 miles in length,
		and						
		10						
Between	{	37	}	N. Lat.	}			100 miles in breadth.
		and						
		42						

BOUNDARIES.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by Spain on the north and east, and on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean.

ANTIEN T 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 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.

	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The North Division contains	Entre Minho —	} Braga } Oporto and Viana } Miranda and Villa Real.
	Douro and —	
	Tralos Montes —	
The Middle Division contains	Beira	} Coimbra } Guarda Castel Rodrigo } LISBON } St. Ubes and Leira.
	Estremadura	
	Entre Tajo	
The South Division contains	Guadiana	} Ebora, or Evara } Portalegre, Elvas, Beia } Lagos } Faro, Tavira, and Silves.
	Alentejo	
	Algarva	

SOIL, AIR AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the same as in Spain, but not so high flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be friendly to the human constitution, and safe to drink. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles and millstones, and a fine mine of salt-petre, near Lisbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients. It is not so searching as that of Spain, being refreshed from the sea breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarve 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 forty-five miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative, and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province of Algarve.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal, are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Espichel, at the south entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarve. The bays are those of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, south of Lisbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarve.

ANIMALS.] The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules

are sure and servicable, both for draught and carriage; and their horses though slight are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } According to the best calculation
AND CUSTOMS. } Portugal contains near two million
of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom, 3,344 parishes, and 1,742,230 lay-persons (which is but 522 laity to each parish on a medium) besides about 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that adventurous enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious three hundred 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, and that inactivity has proved the source of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as 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 themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practised, and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese, by the expulsion of the Jesuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portuguese are neither so tall, nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate, only the Portuguese quality affect to be more gayly and richly dress. 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, moderate, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificent, 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.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Portugal is popery in the strictest sense. The Portuguese have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unless when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been of late so much curtailed, that it is difficult to describe the religious state of that country; all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increased at the expence of the religious institutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of ecclesiastics, and converted to a state-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are those of Braga, Evora and Lisbon. The first of these has ten suffragan bishops; the second two; and the last ten, including those of the Portuguese settlements

lements abroad. The patriarch of Lisbon is generally a cardinal, and a person of the highest birth.

[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 the Portuguese, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance; but what their success may be, I shall not pretend to say. 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 sixteenth century, and for some time after. Camdens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

[LANGUAGE.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their *Pater Noster* runs thus: *Padre nosso que estas nos Ceos, Santificado seio o tu nome; venha a nos ten reyno, seia feita a tua vontade, assi nos ceos, commo na terra. O paonossa de cada dia, dano lo oie n'estodia. E perdoa nos seuhor, as nossas devidas, assi como nos perdoamos a os nossos devedores. E nao nos dexes cabir em tentatio, mas libra nos do mal. Amen.*

[UNIVERSITIES.] These are Lisbon, Evora and Coimbra; but that of Lisbon scarcely deserves the name of an university.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These, within these seven or eight years, have taken a surprizing turn in Portugal. The enterprizing minister there, has projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of, as unjust and oppressive to the privileges which the British merchants formerly enjoyed by the most solemn treaties.

The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, and fruits, and most of their own materials for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk, and woollen, with a variety of straw work, and are excellent in preserving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brasil; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East India; in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North American colonies.

The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, not only of immense value, but vastly improvable. They bring gold from their plantations on the east and west coasts of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brasil, and their south American settlements.

What the value of these may be, is unknown perhaps to the Portuguese themselves, but they certainly abound in all the precious stones, and rich mines of gold and silver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spanish dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold, sent from Brasil, amounts annually to 300,000 l. sterling, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade. The little shipping the Portuguese have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave trade, and

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a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East-Indies, and their other possessions there.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above three millions and a half sterling, annually. The customs and duties on goods exported, and imported, are excessive and farmed out, but if the Portuguese ministry should succeed in all their ambitious projects, and in establishing exclusive companies, to the prejudice of the British trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear these taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandize pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are sold is 10 per cent. The king draws a considerable revenue from the several orders of knighthood, of which he is grand master. The pope, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money arising from indulgencies and licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now increased by the suppression of religious orders and institutions.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal, and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation commerce and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. The king was complimented by the pope, with the title of his most faithful majesty. That of his eldest son is prince of Brasil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed salters-wise, and pointed sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The crest is a crown, or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the first flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Avis, and the second patee, gules, for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it is frequently these words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, viz. For the King and the People.

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The titles and distinctions of their nobility are pretty much the same with those of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are four; 1. That of Christ; 2. The order of James; 3. The order of Avis. All those orders have large commanderies, and revenues annexed to them. The order of Malta has likewise twenty-three commanderies in Portugal.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portuguese government depends chiefly for protection on England, and therefore they have for many years shamefully neglected both their army and fleet. Their troops, in time of peace ought to amount to fourteen thousand, but they are without discipline or courage, and their regiments are thin. The present king, however, since the late invasion of his dominions by the French and Spaniards, has employed English and foreign officers, for disciplining his troops, and repairing his fortifications. The marine of Portugal in 1754, consisted only of twelve ships of war, who were employed only as convoys and carriers, but were quite unprovided for action. The present king is preparing to put his fleet upon a more respectable footing.

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 still almost entire and deservedly admired. The walls of

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Santareen 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. To these curiosities we may add, that his present most faithful majesty is possessed of the largest diamond, which was found in Brasil, that ever was perhaps seen in the world.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute, but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes or states, consisting like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is that their assent is necessary in every new regulation, with regard to the succession. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future disputes on that account. The succession in Portugal may devolve to the female line.

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Casa da Supplicacao is a tribunal, from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

CHIEF CITIES.] The city of Oporto, consisting of about 50,000 inhabitants, carries on a great trade with England, especially for wines. Lisbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake in 1755, but the calamity was not so dreadful as it was at first represented. It still contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its situation 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.

HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.] Spain was probably first peopled from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous, or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phenicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths.

These, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the 7th century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they cross the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and establish themselves in the southerly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the first old Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these infidels, (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors) and he took the title of king of Asturia about the year 720.

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His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean while, every adventurer was entitled to the conquests he made upon the Moors, till Spain at last was divided into twelve or fourteen kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son, Alphonso, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella, the heirs, and afterwards queen, of Castile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of 170,000 families, out of Spain. I shall, in their proper places, mention the vast acquisitions made at this time to Spain by the discovery of America, and the first expeditions of the Portuguese to the East Indies, by the discovery of the Cape of Good-Hope; but the successes of both nations were attended with disagreeable consequences.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews, in a manner depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and Jews.

Portugal, after (as has been already mentioned) being governed by a race of brave kings, fell to Sebastian, about the year 1557. He lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition into Africa; and soon after, Philip II. of Spain, united Portugal to his own dominions about the year 1580, though the Braganza family pretended to a prior right.

Philip II. was the son of Charles V. emperor of Germany, and king of Spain in right of his mother, who was daughter to Ferdinand and Isabella. The descendents of Philip, who were the eldest branch of the Austrian family, proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the antient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that in the year 1640, their nobility, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever since, Portugal has been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The Austrian race failing in Spain in the person of Charles II. Philip, duke of Anjou, second son to the dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne in 1701, by virtue of his predecessor's will. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht, 1713. After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth, of Parma, he died in 1746. He was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand VI. who, in 1759, died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by Charles III. the present king of Spain, son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma. The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had

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not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretensions to that kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to disagree at once with his wife and his brother, Peter, and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor, and father to his present Portuguese majesty. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much service in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, they had almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the great battle of Almanza in 1707. John died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son, his present majesty. In 1760, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life in a solitary place near Belem. The executions of nobility and others which followed, are shocking to humanity, especially as we know of no clear proof against the parties. From this conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the jesuits (who are supposed to have been at the bottom of the treason) from all the parts of his most faithful majesty's dominions. The present king having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown falling into a foreign family, and the next year, 1761, she was brought to bed of a son, called the prince of Beira.

In 1762, when war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his faithful majesty into their alliance, and to garrison his sea-towns against the English with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this proposal, and declared war against the Spaniards, who, without resistance, entered Portugal with a considerable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of those courts were in earnest upon this occasion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in consideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earnest, they might have been masters of Lisbon long before the arrival of the English troops to the assistance of the Portuguese.

Be that as it will, a few English battalions put an effectual stop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progress of the invasion. Portugal was saved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau in 1763. Notwithstanding this eminent service performed by the English to the Portuguese, who had been often saved before in the like manner, the latter, ever since that period, cannot be said to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The most captious distinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portuguese ministers for cramping the English trade, and depriving them of their unquestioned privileges; not to mention that his most faithful majesty is said now to have become a party in the famous family compact of the house of Bourbon.

As to Spain, her king is so warmly attached to that compact, that he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared

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clared between him and England, the latter took from him the Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish plate fleets. Many circumstances concurred to make a peace necessary to England, and upon its conclusion, the Havannah was restored to Spain.

His present catholic majesty does all he can to oblige his subjects to desist from their antient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far, that it occasioned so dangerous an insurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his minister.

I T A L Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	7	}	E. Lon.	{	Being	{	600 miles in length.
		10						
Between	{	38	}	N. Lat.	{		{	400 miles in breadth.
		47						

BOUNDARIES.] I T is bounded by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Germany, on the north; by another part of Germany, and the gulph of Venice, east; by the Mediterranean, south; and by the same sea, the Alps, and the river Var, which divide it from France, on the west.

The form of Italy, however, renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions; for some say, that according to the best accounts it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about seven hundred and fifty 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 four hundred miles, though in some parts it is scarce one hundred.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending the Venetian, (now seized upon by France) Corsica, and the Venetian islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table.

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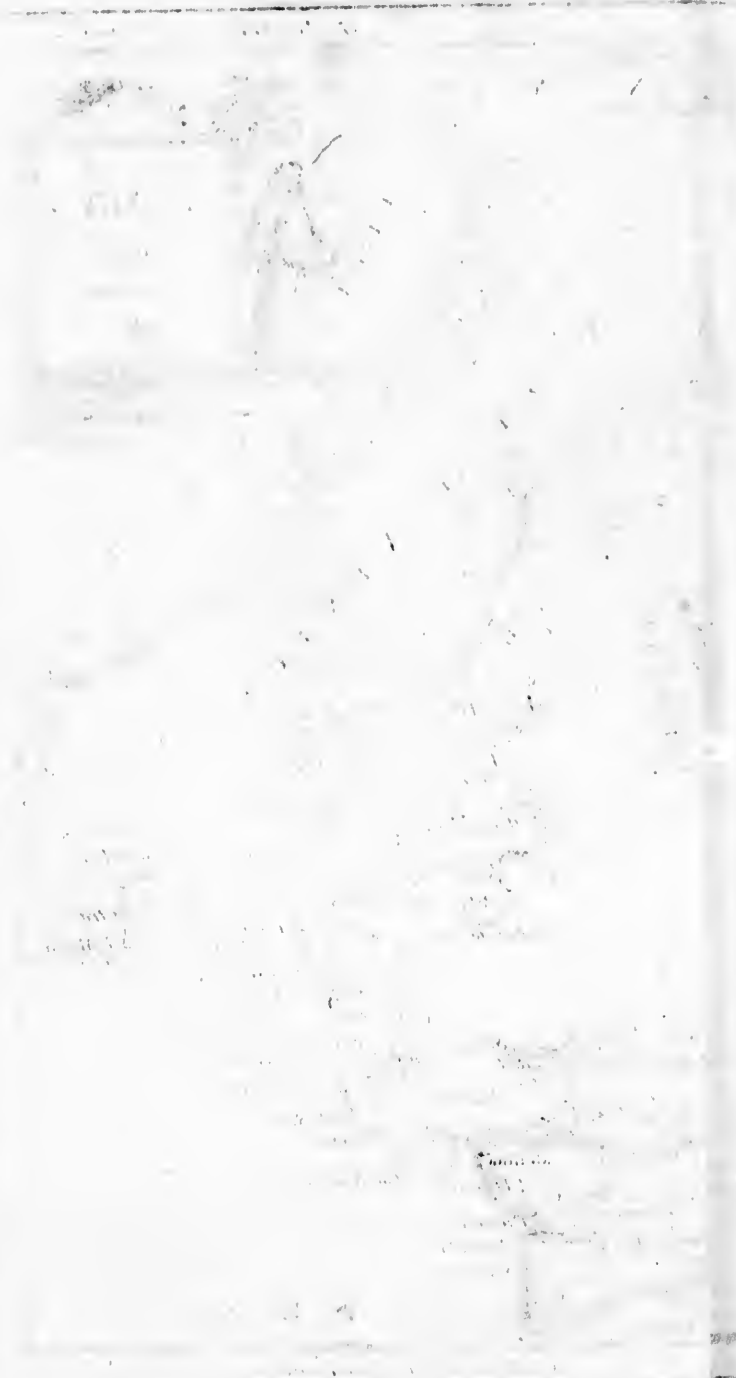
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M E D I T E R R A N E A N





	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Dist. fr. London.	Dist. fr. Rome.	
Italy.								
To the king of Sardinia.	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Turin	507	294	
	Savoy	3572	87	66	Chambery	426	81	
	Montferrat	446	40	22	Casal	546	42	
	Alessandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria	567	60	
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia	742	67	
To its own k.	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliari	707	356	
	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples	810	102	
To the emperor.	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan	581	240	
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua	648	212	
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola	663	192	
To the king of Naples	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo	794	214	
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	Rome	821		
To France	Venaissin	520	37	21	Avignon	516	375	
To the emperor.	Tuscany	6640	115	94	Florence	720	115	
	Maffa	82	16	11	Maffa	665	154	
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma	652	194	
	Modena	1560	65	39	Modena	673	177	
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino	790	90	
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco	727	275	
	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca	663	130	
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino	768	129	
	Genoa	2400	160	25	Genoa	763	213	
	To France	Corfica I.	2520	90	38	Bastia	756	120
		Venice	8434	175	95	Venice	1055	225
Islands in the Venetian dominions.	Istria P.	1245	62	32	Capo d'Istria	670	62	
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara	1000	190	
	Isles of Dalmatia	1364						
	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia	912	567	
Islands in the Venetian dominions.	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu	919	487	
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant	920	600	
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura	913	541	
	Little Cephalonia	14	7	3		914	552	
	Ithaca olim							
	Total—	75,576						

[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 was the ground duly 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 on its climate; the countries on the south being warm, those on the north mild and temperate.

rate. 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 Trebia, the Arno, 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, Iseo, and Garda, in the north; the Perugia or Trasimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

**SEAS, GULPHS 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 gulphs 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, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio, Quilacc, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trietle, Istria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the strait of Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulphs and bays in the Italian islands, are those of Fiv Bastia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio, and Fe Corsica; and the strait of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo in Sardinia. The gulphs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazarza, Syracuse, and Catania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro, and Alessia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the island of Ebba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs, some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeat, 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. Iron and copper mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and allum, tho' they are now neglected; and curious chrystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, } Besides the rich vege-
BY SEA AND LAND. }** table productions mentioned under the article of soil, Italy produces citrons, and such quantities of chestnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or sea, and those of France and Germany already mentioned.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, ? Authors are greatly
CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. }** divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality

partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy is about two million three hundred thousand. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains three hundred thousand, 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 fourteen millions of inhabitants. I am apt to believe 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 unintermitting wars, not to mention the transmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the sixteenth 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 twenty millions of inhabitants; but some calculations greatly exceed that number. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well shaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, especially of the better sort, are of very little value in Italy. Every wife has her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom they keep company, and sometimes cohabit, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. This practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and contentment under the public government. With great taciturnity they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruit, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain five descendents of the antient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

The dress of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dressed in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts: they are as yet but despicable proficient in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music at a very dear rate, by emasculating their males when young, to which their mercenary parents agree without remorse.

The Italians, the Venetians especially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many customs that are considered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their sons should throw themselves away by unsuitable marriage, or contract diseases by promiscuous amours, hire mistresses for them for a month or a year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licensed trade. The Italian courtizans or bona robas, as they are called, make a kind of profession

effion in all their cities. Masquerading and gaming, horse-races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief diversions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living. Give what scope you please to your fancy, says he, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a matras of itraw, and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and, consequently damp; for a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlit. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches: an English peer and peeress must lye in this manner, unless they carry an upholiterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indelicate customs here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; their knives are of the same colour. In these inns they make you pay largely, and send up ten times as much as you can eat. The soup, like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the least kind of sauce or herbage; another fowl, just killed, stewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are so stringy, you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal, and, generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceeding bad, and the butter so rancid, it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of our smell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infest us by day and night.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, } In the introductory,
STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. } we have particu-
rized some of the great men which antient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have shone in controversial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the History of the Council of Trent, by Fra. Paoli, is a standard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians by their several admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian, and as a political writer. His comedies are excellent; and the liberality of his sentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. The greatest modern genius of Italy in poetry is Tasso; though some have presumed to put Ariosto in competition with him. Saunazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions not yielding

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yielding to the Classics themselves. The Italian painters, sculptors, archi-
tects, and musicians, are unrivalled not only in their numbers, but
their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Const-
tinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a re-
lish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his
own ideas, assisted by the antients, struck out a new creation with his
pencil, and still stands at the head of the painting art. Michael Ange-
lo Buonaroti, united in his own person, painting, sculpture, and archi-
tecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled.
Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and archi-
tecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Coreggio, Caraccio, Ve-
ronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners.
The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At pres-
ent, Italy cannot justly boast of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

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 wor-
ship. In the introduction, we have given an account of the rise and
establishment of popery in Italy, from whence it spread over all Europe;
likewise of the causes and symptoms of its decline. The ecclesiastical go-
vernment 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 con-
sistory, the cardinals pretend to controul the pope, in matters both spiri-
tual 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 prin-
cipally endeavour to display their parts, and where many transactions
pass which hardly shew their inspiration 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 ink-
standishes 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 protes-
tant 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 same church.

" 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 interpre-
tation 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 sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the above said 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 intire, 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 indulgence was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to christian people †.

“ I do

* An English traveller speaking of a religious procession some years ago at Florence, in Italy, describes it as follows. I had occasion, says he, to see a procession, where all the noblesse of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniversary of a charitable institution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of these virgins walked in procession, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in sack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies: but the greatest object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, standing within a gilt frame, dressed in a gold stuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of false jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the fashion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cross; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the shoulders of three or four lusty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long list of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be seen in a book printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then pope. It has been translated into English, under the title of *Rame a great Custom-house for Sin*.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that stole holy or consecrated things out of a holy place, 10 s. 6 d.
 For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9 s.
 For a layman for murdering a layman, 7 s. 6 d.
 For him that killeth his father, mother, wife, or sister, 10 s. 6 d.
 For laying violent hands on a clergyman so it be without effusion of blood, 10 s. 6 d.
 For a priest that keeps a concubine; as also his dispensation for being irregular, 10 s. 6 d.
 For him that lyeth with his own mother, sister, or godmother, 7 s. 6 d.
 For him that burns his neighbour's house, 12 s.
 For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1 l. 7 s.

" 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."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbishoprics in Italy, but the suffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or suppressing them as he pleases.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical compositions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is easily mastered by a good classical scholar. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary societies there, may at last fix the Italian into a standard language. At present, the Tuscan stile and writing is most in request.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: *Padre nostro, che sei ne cieli, sia santificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volonta sia fatta, si come in cielo cosi anche in terra; dacci baggi il nostro pane cotidiano; remittici i nostri debiti, si come noi anchora remittiamo a nostri debitori; e non indurci in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perchioche tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Italy is the native country of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } all that is stupendous, great, or beautiful, either in antient or modern times. A library might be filled by descriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor does the bounds of this work admit of mentioning even

For him that forgeth letters apostolical, 1 l. 7 s.

For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2 l. 6 s.

For a king for going to the holy sepulchre without licence, 7 l. 10 s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a bastard to enter all holy orders, 18 s.

For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have christian burial, 1 l. 7 s. 6 l.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to visit the apostolic churches, 18 s.

To eat flesh and white meats in Lent, and other fasting days, 10 s. 6 d.

That a king or queen shall enjoy such indulgences, as if they went to Rome, 15 l.

For a queen to adopt a child, 300 l.

To marry in times prohibited, 2 l. 5 s.

To eat flesh in times prohibited, 1 l. 4 s.

Not to be tied to fasting days, 1 l. 4 s.

For a town to take out of the church them (murderers) that have taken sanctuary therein, 4 l. 10 s.

FACULTIES.

To absolve all delinquents, 3 l.

To dispense with irregularities, 3 l.

their general heads. All I can do is to give the reader the names of those objects that are most distinguished either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence; that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Coloseo, now stands at Rome. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. The ruins of other theatres and amphitheatres are 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, particularly that of the Pantheon, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former a hundred and seventy-five feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the first naval victory 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 two hundred miles, the second a hundred and thirty, and the third fifty miles in length, are in many places still entire; nor is the reader to expect any description of the magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, that present themselves all over the country of Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground, witness the cloacæ and catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above twenty years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Paestum 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, and sunk in an earthquake seventeen hundred years ago.

With regard to modern curiosities, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains three hundred 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, near Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. Mount Ætna is sixty miles in circumference, and at the top there is a basin of sulphur

phur six miles round, from whence sometimes issue rivers of melted minerals that run down into the sea. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and eighteen thousand people perished. Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzeli there is a valley called Solfatara, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the clefts by subterranean fires. The grotto del Canè is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. The poison of the tarantula, an insect or spider, is well known to be removed only by music and dancing; and scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are common in Apulia.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far I have been enabled to treat of Italy in general, but I am here constrained to deviate from my usual method. 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. I shall be therefore obliged to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

His Sardinian majesty takes his royal title from that island; and he is now a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. He has an order of knighthood which is called the Annunciade, instituted by the first duke of Savoy, to commemorate his brave defence of Rhodes against the infidels. The motto of the order is FERT, that is, *Fortitudo ejus Rhodum tenuit*. The collar of the order is fifteen links, to shew the fifteen mysteries of the Virgin; at the end is the portraiture of our Lady, with the history of the annunciation.

His Sardinian majesty's capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to seek their bread all over the world. They are esteemed a simple but very honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues consist of what he pleases to raise upon his subjects. His ordinary income, besides his own family provinces, cannot be less than 500,000*l.* sterling, out of which he maintains fifteen thousand men in time of peace. During a war, when assisted by foreign subsidies, he can bring to the field forty thousand men. The aggrandizement of his present Sardinian majesty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his situation and neighbourhood, he is a natural ally, for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe.

The Milanese, belonging to the house of Austria, is a most formidable state, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and amenity of the country is 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 thirty thousand men. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies, where they hold forth almost on 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 republic of Genoa is vastly degenerated from its antient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility

and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps, to save expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues and paper. The city of Genoa contains about a hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants (but some writers greatly diminish that number) among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six galleys, and about six hundred soldiers. 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, as is the soil of its territory, which reaches about a hundred and thirty-six miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is purely aristocratical, being entirely vested in the nobility.

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 seventy-two 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 antient 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 antient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They have however lately had some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seem to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the constitution of the republic, to which it is said they owe their independency, we can write little with any precision, because it is kept a mystery to all but the members, and even of them (such are its intricacies and checks) few or none know it perfectly. All we know for certain is, that like Genoa, the government is aristocratic, and that the nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to twenty-five hundred, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the 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 shut up in the city as a prisoner. The government and laws are managed by five different councils of the nobles.

As every Venetian of a noble family is himself noble, great numbers of them go about the streets begging, and generally present a silver or tin box, to strangers, to receive their alms. All the orders 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-berge, 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. The inhabitants of Venice are said to amount to two hundred thousand. 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 five hundred bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and

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 eight millions of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this the expences of the state are defrayed, and the army, which consists of sixteen thousand regular troops, always commanded by a foreign general, in time of peace, and ten thousand militia, is paid. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolencies of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them several orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the Golden Star, so called from its badge, which is conferred only on the first quality, and the military order of St. Marc, the badge of which is a medal of that apostle.

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 religions, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians live in the perpetual extremes of the most infamous debaucheries, or the most ridiculous devotion. Priests and nuns abandon themselves to the former, during the carnival, which is chiefly held in St. Marc's place, where sometimes fifteen thousand people assemble.

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 seventy thousand inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand dukes 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 city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, 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 masterpieces 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 a university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their 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, besides wine and 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, thirty thousand fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000 l. a year. The other

other principal towns of Tuscany, are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the first and last are much decayed.

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 a hundred and twenty thousand, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000 l. sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about forty thousand inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. This republic is under the protection of the house of Austria.

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 one thousand three hundred years. It is under the protection of the pope, and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above five thousand 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 soil 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 Coreggio. The present duke of Parma, is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to Don Philip, his catholic majesty's younger brother. This country was lately 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 100,000 l. sterling a year, a sum which I am apt to think is exaggerated. The city of Parma is said to contain fifty thousand inhabitants.

Mantua, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes five hundred thousand 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 sixteen thousand inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country.

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 Brunswick descended. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful, and extend in length fifty-six English miles, and in breadth about thirty. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions, however, are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, they having been alternately waited by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The ecclesiastical state, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. Its length is about two hundred and forty miles, but its breadth varies from twenty to a hundred and twenty miles. The bad effects of Popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, are here seen in the highest perfection. Those spots, which, under the masters of the world, were formed into so many terrestrial paradises,

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radises, 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 territory that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords at present a miserable subsistence to about five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling, though some 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, 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 popish 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 twenty 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 describe. 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. I am here, however, 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 disposition.

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. The splendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions, are inexpressible, and partly account for the misery of the subjects. This censure, however, 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. I 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 antient 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 antient 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, uten-
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files and furniture, her antient temples, though it must be acknowledged that the Pantheon must have been an amazing structure. The inhabitants of Rome in 1714, amounted to one hundred and forty-three thousand. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much encreased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present.

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 monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. The present pope, who has taken the name of Clement XIV. has wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

I 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 my 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 a 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 a hundred and sixty-five miles north-west, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state, contains many towns celebrated in antient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state, about the beginning of the sixteenth century; but they are now 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 antient history. Loretto, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of, in times of antiquity, is 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; great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house, from being carried to other places, and exposed as reliques 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 ballustrade, 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 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 upon Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea.

The king of Naples and Sicily, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies, is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Grecia, and the island of Sicily. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where it terminates on the ecclesiastical state. Its greatest length, from south-east to north-west, is about two hundred and eighty English miles; and its breadth, from the north-east to the south-west, from ninety-six to a hundred and twenty. 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 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 threaten the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are 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 that king, amount to above 750,000 l. sterling a year, but it is more than probable that, by the new established police pursued by the princes of the house of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majesty's annual income will considerably exceed a million sterling. He has a numerous but poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquesses, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains, at least, three hundred thousand inhabitants. Through every spot of this kingdom the traveller may be said to tread on Classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects.

The island of Sicily, once the granary of the world for corn, still continues to supply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity, but its cultivation, and consequently fertility, is greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the same with those of Italy. Palermo, its capital, is said to contain a hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants, and both that city, and Messina, carry on a brisk trade.

Sardinia, which gives a royal title to that king, lies about a hundred and fifty miles west of Leghorn, is near a hundred and sixty miles in length, from north to south, and eighty in breadth from east to west. Its capital Cagliari, is an university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy. It is thought that his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, does not exceed 5000 l. sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad from its marshes
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and morassés. 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 the Genoese continent, between the gulph of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, extending from forty-one to forty-three degrees of latitude, and from nine to ten degrees of east longitude. This island is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants have made of late under general Paoli, for their liberty, against their Genoese tyrants, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chesnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by the sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to a hundred and twenty thousand. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength, but other towns of the island, that were in possession of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

Capua, Ischia, and 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.

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 the fifteenth degree of east longitude, and forty-fifth degree, fifteen minutes, north latitude, sixty miles south of cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, twenty miles long, and twelve 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 fruit 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, when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, and 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. They are considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear crosses of a particular form, and they never have degenerated from the military glory of their predecessors. They are generally of noble families, and are ranked according to their nations. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole island is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable by the infidels.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader, for the ancient history of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans. The successors of Charlemagne claimed, and for some time possessed the sovereignty of Italy, but their civil wars at home, soon gave an opportunity to their governors, to either assume or purchase the sovereignty of the several states over which they presided. Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the courts of Maurienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, whose father (as I have already observed) became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718. The Milanese, the fairest portion in Italy, went through several hands; the Viscontis were succeeded by the Galeazzos, and the Sforzas, but fell at last into the

the hands of Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the imperialists. They were dispossessed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily, to the present king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Austria, which now possesses it, the last duke dying without male issue, but by Guastalla was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see in 1545, by pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese, terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whose son, his present catholic majesty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194 they conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for some time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Asia. They were more than once brought to the brink of destruction, by the confederacies formed against them, among the other powers of Europe, especially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of the voyage to India, by the cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent, and so late as the year 1715, they lost the Morea.

The Genoese, for some time, disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea, with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected by the French and imperialists. Their doge or first magistrate is crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title, and that island is now ceded to the French by the Genoese. The successful effort they made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in history, and serves to shew the effects of despair under oppression. At present they are possessed of revenue, barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors, who governed it by deputies, to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Gwelfs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany, to put themselves under the protection of the church, but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free common-wealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom, and the family of Medici, long before they were declared, either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the Father of his Country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue, in ready money, exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, and enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power.

Pope

Pope Pius V. gave one of his descendents Cosmo (the great patron of the arts) the title of great duke of Tuscany in 1570, and it continued in his family to the death of Gaston in 1737, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the duke of Lorraine, who was afterwards emperor. His son is now grand duke, and Tuscany assumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade, and several ships of very considerable force are now stationed on the Tuscan coasts to prevent the depredation of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives, which seems to be incorporated with their air. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy flourishing in arts and arms. But the popes still claimed Naples and Sicily, as fiefs of the Holy See, though their authority was disputed by those spirited princes. About the year 1166, the popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings. His success was so surprizing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1706, when the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples, and Don Carlos was received into the capitol, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies; this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effusion of blood was stopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples.

Upon his accession to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who lately married an archduchess of Austria.

The history of the papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power, were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand.) It is not to be expected, that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the

the reformation. Even since that æra the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes, who seem now to be recovering from their religious delusions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jesuits, who are not improperly called its janissaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples and Portugal; and is but just tolerated in other popish countries. The pope himself is treated by Roman catholic princes, with very little more ceremony than is due to him, as bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality. This humiliation it is reasonable to believe, will terminate in a total separation from the holy see of all its foreign emoluments, which even, since the beginning of the present century, were immense, and to the reducing his holiness to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions as first bishop in Christendom.

ARMS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy, are as follow. The pope, as sovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his escutcheon, gules, consisting of a long headcape, or, surmounted with a cross, pearly and garnished with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in saltier. The arms of Tuscany, or, five roundies, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-luces, or. Those of Venice, azure, a lion winged; sejant, or, holding under one of his paws, a book covered, argent. Lastly, those of Genoa, argent, a cross, gules, with a crown clofed for the island of Corfica; and for supporters, two griffins, or.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{ 17 and 40 }	E. Lon.	} Being	{ 1000 miles in length.
Between	{ 34 and 49 }	N. Lat.		
				{ 900 miles in breadth.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the north; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellepont, 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.
On the north coast of the Black Sea are the Provinces of —	Crim and Little Tartary, the ancient TauricaCherfonese	Precop. Brachiseria. Kassa.
	Budziac Tartary — Bessarabia —	Oczakow. Bendar. Belgorod.
North of the Danube are the Provinces of —	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jazy. Chotzim. Falczin.
	Wallachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergovisc.
	Bulgaria, the east part of the antient Mysia	Widin. Nicopoli. Siliftria. Scopia.
South of the Danube are	Servia, the west part of Mysia	Belgrade. Semendria. Nissa.
	Bosnia, part of the antient Illyricum	Seraio.
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont —	Romania, olim Thrace	Constantinople. Adrianople. Phillippopoli.
	Macedonia	Strymon. Contessa.
South of mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north Part of the antient Greece —	Thessaly, now Janua	Salonichi.
	Achaia and Boeotia, now Livadia	Athens. Thebes. Lepanto.
	Epirus	Chimæra. Butrinto.
On the Adriatic sea or Gulph of Venice, the antient Illyricum —	Albanea	Durazzo. Dulcigno.
	Dalmatia	Drino. Narenza.
	Ragufa republic	Ragufa.

Chief towns.
 ecop.
 achiferia.
 affa.
 czakow.
 endar.
 elgorod.
 zy.
 notzim.
 alczin.
 ergovisc.
 idin.
 icopoli.
 listria.
 opia.
 elgrade.
 emendria.
 ifsa.
 eraio.
 onstantinople.
 drianople.
 hillippopoli.
 rymon.
 onteffa.
 lonichi.
 thens.
 hebes.
 epanto.
 himera.
 urtrinto.
 urazzo.
 ulcigno.
 rino.
 arenza.
 agusa.

Divisions.

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are —

Corinthia	—
Argos	—
Sparta	—
Olympia; where the Games were held	—
Arcadia	—
Elis	—

Corinth.
Argos. Napoli de Romania.
Lacedæmon, now Mifitra, on the River Eurotus.
Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus.
Modon. Coron.
Patras. Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Penæus.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS AND WATER.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey, all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from Egypt, and the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular, and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often the 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, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Haenus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names, witness the mountains Suha, Witoska, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned, have had modern names imposed upon them, by the Barbarians in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Maeotis, or Sea of Afaph; 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 Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient history.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Nieper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country, though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

Divisions

LAKES.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the antients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave, 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, conceived by the antients to be the passage into hell, issues.

METALS AND MINERAL.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines, and its marbles are esteemed the finest of the world.

VEGETABLES AND PRODUCTIONS.] These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Thessalian, or Turkish horses, are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Babadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish and Tartan archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece, as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupedes, all over Turkey in Europe, but the Turks and Mahomedans in general, are not very fond of animal food.

**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 Isthmean games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above ten thousand inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, and to particularize them would be endless. I cannot, however, omit mentioning the temple of Minerva, thought by some to be the finest extant. The temple of the eight winds, and the lantern of Demosthenes, are still entire. 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.**

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 cruzaders, and

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and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the *crufades*, 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 wonderful art! how many manufactures are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all 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. It is frequently called *the Port*, by way of eminence. The prospect from it is noble. It abounds with antiquities. 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 itself 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. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. The best authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, and the rest are Jews and Turks. Others suppose the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000.

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 Antient GREECE.

I shall mention those islands chiefly for the use of such readers as are conversant with antient history, of which they make so distinguished a part.

Negropont, the antient Eubœa, stretches from the south-east to the north-west, and on the eastern coast of Achaia or Livadia. It is ninety miles long and twenty-five broad. Here the Turkish gallees lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself abounds in corn, wine, and fruit.

Lemnos, lies on the north part of the Egean sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, 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.

Scyros, is about sixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains.

Lesbos, or Myteline, is about fifty 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 eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about a hundred 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 about 3000 Latins. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, 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. They are not, however, renowned for their modesty or virtue; and even the Greek nuns are said to be lavish of their favours. 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. The Greeks pay a capitation tax for the exercise of their religion and laws; the rate of the highest rank is ten crowns a-head, the second three, and the meanest two and a half, yearly.

Samos, lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long and fifteen 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, besides, produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. 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 twenty 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 lies south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents 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 Diana, 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 Cytherea, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about fifty miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

Santorin, is one of the most southermost 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 popish 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 burnings soon ceased. It is about two hundred feet above the sea, and at the time of its first emerging it was about a mile broad and five miles in circumference, but it has since encreased.

Several

Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, but 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 deg. 20 minutes north latitude, about twenty miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about fifty miles long, and twenty-five broad. This island abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life, but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The colossus of brass which antiently stood at the mouth of its harbour, and was fifty fathom wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed 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 a hundred and thirty-five 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 to them in 1522, and afterwards retired to Malta.

Candia, the antient 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 two hundred miles long and sixty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, 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 till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

Cyprus, lies in the Levant sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is a hundred and fifty miles long and seventy 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 richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, and the see of a Greek archbishop. Famagusta, its antient 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 a surprizing degree, though the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250 l. a year. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, the antient 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, Strivali, Zante, Cephalonia, Santa Maura, Corfu, and others of smaller note, particularly Isola del Compare, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the antient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses.

Those islands in general are fruitful. Zante, belonging to the Venetians, has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in fruits. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, is a place of great strength, and belongs likewise to the Venetians, who concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of those and other islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character.

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 fragrant and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its 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 Allwise 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 watered 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 hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath lost much of its antient splendor, and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is become a wild 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. Hence the Tartars, who live near the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. 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,

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 antient times by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks. The government of India and China was little known to Alexander or his successors. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the 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 powerful 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 Mahometism. 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 popish 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 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 143 degrees of east longitude, and between the equator and 72 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanel 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 river 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.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religion.
Tartary.	Russian	The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on his conquests as far as he can.		Tobolfskoi	2160 N. E.	4 10 bef.	Christ. & Pagans
	Chinese			Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	Mogulean			Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	Independent			Samerсанд	2800 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans
	China			1440	1000	Pekin	4120 S. E.
	Moguls	2000	1500	Delly	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. & Pagans
	India	2000	1000	Siam or Pegu	5040 S. E.	6 44 bef.	Pagans
	Persia	1300	1100	Isfahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahometans
Turkey in Asia.	Part of Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Mahometans
	Syria	270	160	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Christ. & Mahometans
	Holy Land	210	90	Jerusalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Christ. & Mahometans
	Natolia	750	303	Bursa or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Mahometans
	Diarbick or Mesopotamia	560	310	Bagdad	2160 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with some few Christians.
	Turcomania	360	300	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.	
	Georgia	***	***	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 27 \\ \text{and} \\ 45 \end{array} \right\}$ E. Long. } Being $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1000 \text{ miles in length.} \\ \\ 870 \text{ miles in breadth.} \end{array} \right\}$

Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 28 \\ \text{and} \\ 45 \end{array} \right\}$ N. Lat. }

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. Eyraco Arabic or Chaldea — — | } | Bossora and Bagdat. |
| | | 2. Diarbec or Mesopotamia — — | | Diarbec, Orfa, and Mousfoul. |
| | | 3. Curdistan or Assyria — — | | Nineveh and Betlis. |
| | | 4. Turcomania or Armenia — — | | Erzerum and Van. |
| | | 5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imeretta, and part of Circassia — — | | Amarchia and Gonie. |

Divisions.

Diff. of time from London.	Religion.
4 10 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
8 4 bef.	Pagans
5 40 bef.	Pagans
4 36 bef.	Pagans
7 24 bef.	Pagans
5 16 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
6 44 bef.	Pagans
3 20 bef.	Mahometans
2 52 bef.	Mahometans
2 30 bef.	Christ. & M.
2 24 bef.	Christ. & M.
1 48 bef.	Mahometans
2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with some few Christians.
2 44 bef.	
3 10 bef.	

miles in length.

miles in breadth.

Circassia, on the
by Arabia and
the Hellespont,
left.

Chief Towns.

and Bagdat.

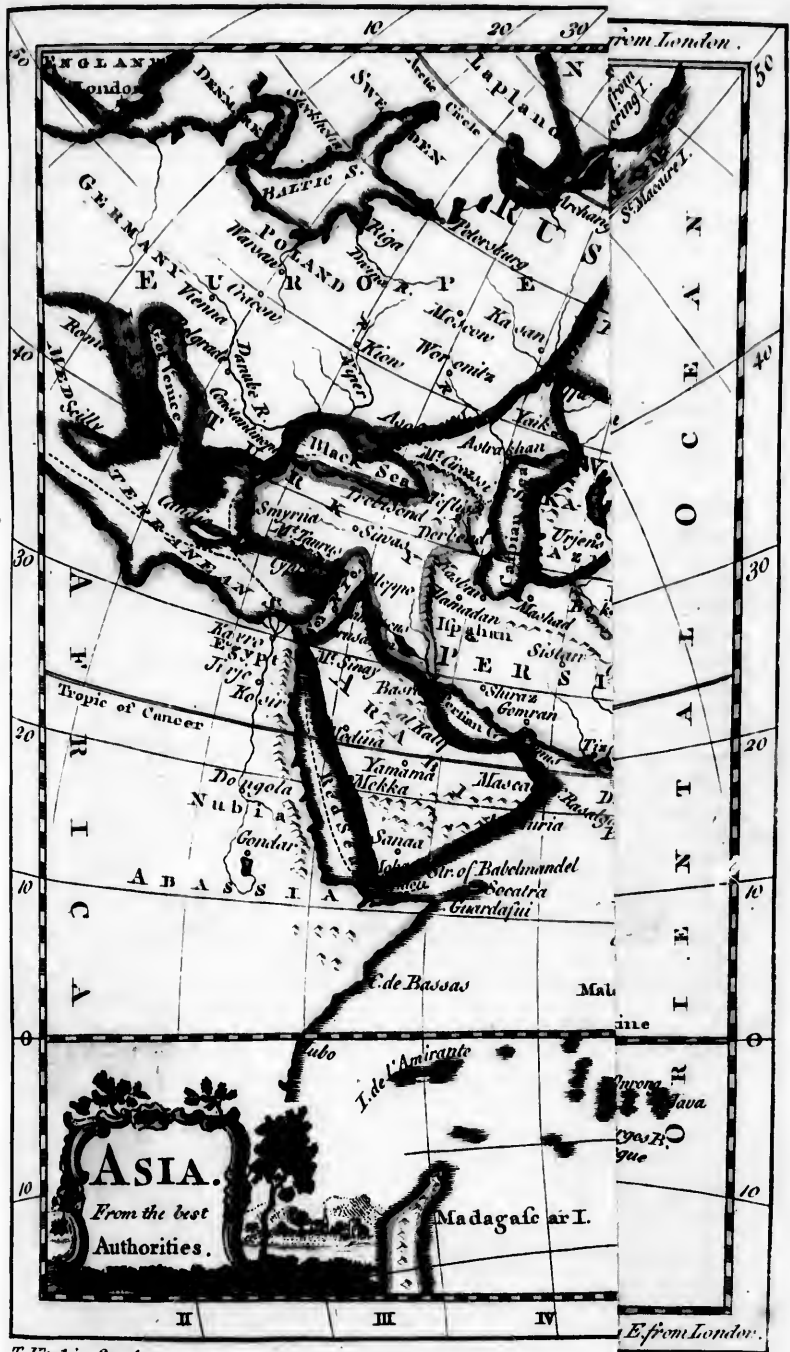
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oufoul.

eh and Bettis.

m and Van.

thia and Gonie.

Divisions.



T. Kitchin Sculp.

E. from London.



ASIA.

From the best Authorities.

Madagascar I.

II III IV V IV VI

Wichin Soudy :





Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Natalia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west,	1. Natalia Proper —	} Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
	2. Amasia — —	
	3. Aladulia — —	} Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania — —	} Satalia and Teraffo.
East of the Levant Sea	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land—	} Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains are, 1. Olympus; 2. Taurus and Anti-taurus; 3. Caucasus and Arrarat; 4. Lebanon; 5. Hermon.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, 1. Euphrates; 2. Tigris; 3. Orantes; 4. Meander; 5. Sarabat; 6. Kara; and, 7. Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the Author of nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a frightful scourge of mankind, wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from using the least precaution to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, I need scarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in those provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in largeness. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } The same may be said of their animals.

BY SEA AND LAND. } The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to those countries, but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their numerous herds of goats furnish the materials for their camlets. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their other butchers meat, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vast perfection; their ostriches are well known by their tallness, stupidity, and heaviness. The Roman epicures

epicures prized no fish except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } THE population of this great
MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND } country is by no means
DIVERSIONS. } 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.

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; but when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Though incapable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, they are not devoid of social affections for those of their own religion. But interest is their supreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, consanguinity, or friendship, are speedily dissolved. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. 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 is 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 enquiring into the reason of the disgrace

grace of the former minister. They are perfect strangers to wit and agreeable conversation. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Alcoran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may 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, sometimes 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 high rank sometimes have their beards 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 oblations, 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 Alcoran.

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

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down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the cade, 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. A man may marry as many women as he can maintain, but under the restriction of a censorial power, to prevent too great a plurality of wives. 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.] 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 imam or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms 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.

RELIGION.] The established religion is that of the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet, the author of it; some account of which the reader will see in another place. The Turks profess that of the sect of Omar; but these are split into as many sectaries as their neighbours the Christians. There is no ordination among their clergy, any person may be a priest that pleases to take the habit and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleases. Their chief priest or mufti seems to have great power in the state.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS OF CHRISTIANS.} The Turkish government having formed these into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are most profitable; but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such, as must always dispose that people to favour any revolution of government. Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbishop or bishop.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] I know of none among the Turks, who profess 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.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Slavonian, which seems to have been the mother tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is still spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoster:

Pater hemas, opios iso ees tos ouranous: hagia jhito to onoma sou: na eriti he basilia sou: to thelema sou na genetex itzon en te ge, os is ton ouranon: to pifomi hemas doxe hemas semoren: ka si chorase hēmos ta crimata hemon itzone, ka hemas schorasomen ekinous opou: mas adikounka mas ternet hema is to pirafino, alla jofen hemas apo to kaxo. Amen.

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COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These objects are little at-
tended to in the Turkish dominions. The nature of their government
destroys that happy security which is the mother of arts, industry, and
commerce; and such is the debasement of the human mind when borne
down by tyranny and oppression, that all the great advantages of com-
merce which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabi-
tants by their situation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of
Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all those countries which carried on the
commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the
navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the southern
ocean, and presents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever
looks on a map of Turkey, must admire the situation of their capital,
upon a narrow strait that separates Europe from Asia, and communicates
on the south with the Mediterranean sea, thereby opening a passage to
all the European nations as well as the coast of Africa. The same strait,
communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by
means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of
Germany, Poland, and Russia.

In this extensive empire, where all the commodities necessary for the
largest plan of industry and commerce are produced, the Turks content
themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and soap. The
most valuable of their commodities, such as silk, a variety of drugs, and
dying stuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional
value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is
extremely small, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In
their traffic with Europe the Turks are altogether passive. The English,
French, Dutch, and other Europeans, resort hither with their commo-
dities, and bring back those of Turkey in the same bottoms. They
seldom attempt any distant voyages, and are possessed only of a few
coasting vessels in the Asiatic Turkey; their chief naval armaments
lying on the side of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects
of commerce is perhaps the best security to their government. The
balance of power established among the princes of Europe, and their
jealousies of one another, secures to the infidels the possession of coun-
tries, which in the hands of the Russians, or any active state, might
indanger the commerce of their neighbours, especially the trade with
India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkish government is
commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural
in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Porter, who
resided at the Porte, in quality of ambassador, from his Britannic ma-
jesty, it appears that the rigours of that despotic government, are consi-
derably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this em-
pire there is no hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals
may be rendered fixed, and secure, by being annexed to the church,
which is done at an inconsiderable expence. Even Jews and Christians
may in this manner secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest
posterity, and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there
is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or
reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether de-
pend on the superstition of the sultan; he knows that any attempt to
violate it, would shake the foundations of his throne, which is solely
supported by the laws of religion. Were he to trespass these laws, he
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becomes an infidel, and ceases to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed by Mahomet, both as a political code, and as a religious system. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obscure; or extend and compleat what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institution of the prophet, and no member of the society, however powerful, can transgress them without censure, or violate them without punishment. The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of his majesty, who seldom calls for the head of the estate of a subject, who is not an immediate servant of the court. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government, are those who approach the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizir, or prime minister, the chaya, second in power to the vizir, the reis effendi, or secretary of state, are the most considerable. These, as well as the mufti, or high priest, the bashaws, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others are commonly raised by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Tartar, or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank, and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they are arrived. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded on very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire must be immense. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians, and other subjects, not of the Mahometan religion. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of presents. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, as we have already observed, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest, till become wealthy from the vitals of the countries they are sent to govern, their riches give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. He is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy basha receives it with the highest respect, putting it on his head, and, after he has read it, says, *the will of God and the emperor be*

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done, or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and having tied it about his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord strait, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts; the first have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands, amount to about two hundred and sixty-eight thousand troopers, effective men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and Georgians, who are commanded by their respective princes. The Kan of the Crim Tartars is obliged to furnish a hundred thousand men, and to serve in person, when the grand signior takes the field. In every war, besides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding the officers. These adventurers do not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in a war against the Christians, they shall go immediately to paradise. The forces, which receive their pay, from the treasury, are called the Spahis, or horse-guards, and are in number about twelve thousand; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement. These amount to about twenty-five thousand men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded so far sometimes as to depose the sultan. They are educated in the seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are not less than a hundred thousand foot soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction, but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is stiled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand signior's arms are, vert, a crescent argent, crested with a turbant, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

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 they are about forty 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, well made, and sprightly children, that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the signior, before they are sent to the colleges, or seminaries, where they are educated for employments, according to their genius or 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. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. These ladies are scarce 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, 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. 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.

[ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] These are so various, that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Those 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, seemed 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, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo 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 fordid 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 antient mythology. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of those 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 eras, 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 era, but without mounting to the times of the Jews, or the Phenicians, who probably knew little of the Greek stile, in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about five thousand in number, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the antient ruins. A first

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ftone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnifhed the ftones for the body of the temple, and one of the ftones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is feventy feet long, fourteen broad, and fourteen feet five inches deep, and reduced to our meafure is one thoufand one hundred and thirty-five tons. A coarfe white marble quarry, at a greater diftance, furnifhed the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or as it was called by the antients, Tadmor in the Defart, is fituated in the wilds of Arabia Petraea, about thirty-three degrees of north latitude, and two hundred miles to the fouth-eaft 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 prefented with the moft ftriking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins, but the accefs to it is through a vaft 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 a gentleman now alive, who, with his friends, paid it a vifit fome years ago, purpofely to preferve fome remembrance of fuch a curiofity. As thofe drawings or copies are now common, we muft refer the reader to them, efpecially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins, from the printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending four thoufand feet in length, terminated by a noble maufoleum, temples, fine porticos, perityles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the higheft ftile, and finifhed with the moft beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but fo difperfed and difjointed, that it is impoffible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Thofe ftriking ruins are contratted by the miferable huts of the wild Arabs, who refide in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that fo fuperb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exift in the midft of tracts of barren uninhabitable fands. 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 eaftern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the weftern nations, for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its prefent altered fituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural caufes, which have turned its moft fertile tracts into barren defarts. The Afatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon, and in this they receive fome countenance from facred hiftory. In profane hiftory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony, and its moft fuperb buildings, are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus.

Odenathus, the laft king of Palmyra, was highly careffed by that emperor, and even declared Auguftus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for fome time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her fecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againft the emperor Aurelian, who took her prifoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deftroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large fums out of Zenobia's treafures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it muft be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene infcriptions reach above the Chriftian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itfelf

is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its antient 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.

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 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 rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in those 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 stile of their buildings are Greek, Roman, or Saracen, but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities, but it cannot be imagined that a learned man could devote his whole life to explain them. 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 lying 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 Laodiceæ, 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.

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CITIES.]

CITIES.] These are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant, because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their antient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon the site of Old Alexandria, but it is now almost depopulated. 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 conveniencies, 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, with 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, and contain two hundred and thirty-five thousand inhabitants, of whom thirty thousand are Christians, and five thousand are Jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniencies of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. Their gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig and pistachio trees, but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their ware-houses, lodging rooms, and counting houses. This 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, 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 sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety, than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction.

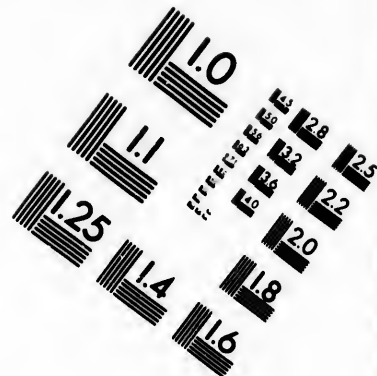
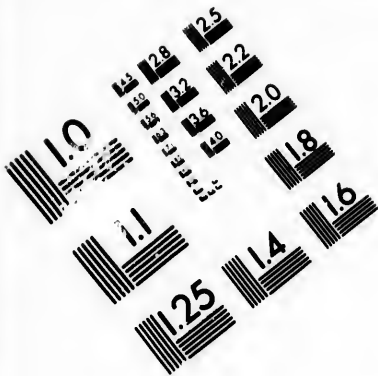
The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here and over all Arabia, and many other parts of the east; for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions 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.

Bagdat, built upon the Tigris in thirty-three degrees, fifteen minutes north latitude, and forty-three degrees east longitude from London, is the capital of the antient Chaldea, and was once the metropolis of the califate, the most powerful monarchy in the earth.

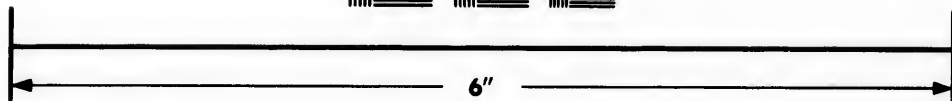
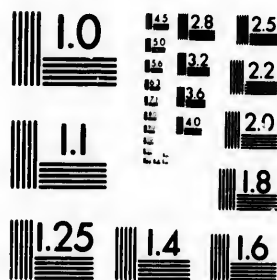
Bagdat retains but few marks of its antient grandeur. It is rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo and western caravans.

Antient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan; the antient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdistan 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 of Turkey leather. Georgia, or Gurgistan, though subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians, a brave, warlike race of





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men, and now at war with the Mahometans. Their capital Teflis is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about thirty thousand. 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 distinguished liberties and privileges.

The antient 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 still manufacture 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 the city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, which likewise lies within the antient Phenicia, in thirty-three degrees, thirty-three minutes of north latitude, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. Tyre, now called Sur, about twenty miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now only inhabited by a few miserable fishermen, who live in the ruins of its antient grandeur.

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the antient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycoania, Cilicia, Cappadocia, 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 scites of antient cities are still discernible, 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 maintain 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 those 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, lies buried within the luxuriancies of its own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing it in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which have imposed upon weak Christians. Whether those countries could ever be restored to their antient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a question with some; but I apprehend that it would now be impossible (let the Turkish government be ever so beneficent) to divert commerce (without which, all attempts of that kind must be feeble) from its European channels. There can however be no question, that a government less brutal and bigotted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themselves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other sects of Christians there, partake but too much of the Turkish stupidity. Though they are not suffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horseback, and are subjected to a thousand indignities and miseries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppressors, yet so abject is their spirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If they

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are less indolent than their oppressors, it is because they must otherwise starve, and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, lest it should be discovered to their tyrants, who would consider it as their own.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the antients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name signifies Wanderers, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian, to the straits of the Dardanelles. Their being long resident, in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time, as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries, by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the califate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting the Holy City of Jerusalem, being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrible cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous Crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction. It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than the Turks, and though after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem under Godfrey of Bouillon, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1347, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader, the appellation of Turks, as it signifies in the original, wanderers, or banished men, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes that are mentioned in history. About the year 1357, they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople. Such was their conquests, that Bajazet I. after defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, in which Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himself taken prisoner. The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever, and tho' their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians and Hungarians, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek empire, and after a long siege Mahomet II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries from its first commencement under

Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire, an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes, the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families; the dislike their subjects had to the popes, and the western church, one of their patriarchs declaring publickly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban, than the pope's tiara, upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands, were, tho' under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still preserve somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of all Greece, and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician.

Selim afterwards ordered his elder brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians, and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son, Soliman the Magnificent; who taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land; but he miscarried in an attempt he made to take the Isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis, in Africa, from the Moors. He was succeeded, in 1575, by his son, Amurath III, who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished, by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians; and died of the plague in 1604. Though his successor, Achmet, was beaten by the Persians, yet he forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he was in possession of in Hungary. Osman, a prince

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a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, he was put to death by the janissaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Amurath IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640, a worthless, inactive prince, and strangled by the janissaries in 1648. His successor, Mahomet, was excellently well served by his grand vizir, Cuperli. He took Candy from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for thirty years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was at last shut up in prison by his subjects, and dying in 1693, he was succeeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during this reign, and that of his successor, Achmet; but Mustapha II. who mounted the throne in 1693, headed his armies in person, and after some brisk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene, and the peace of Carlowitz, between the imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his musti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians by a glorious peace concluded at Pruth. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was translated to Hungary, where the imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace, at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and the secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but Achmet was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognize that usurper as sopheri of Persia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the imperialists and the Russians; against the former he was victorious, but the successes of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and after that to another with the Russians, which was greatly to his disadvantage. Mahomet died in 1754. He was succeeded by his brother, Osman III. who died in 1757, and was succeeded by Mustapha III. who is now reigning, and engaged in (1769) a hitherto unsuccessful war with the Russians.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and their implicit submission to their officers, rather than any excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which render their empire at present so formidable. The extension as well as duration of their empire may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janissaries, a corps originally composed of the children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the Seraglio. They were generally in number about forty thousand; and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they still constitute the flower of the Turkish armies. After all, we must con- sider

sider the political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, as the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces in the world are suffered to remain in the possession of these haughty infidels.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	50 and 150	{ E. lon. }	} Being	{	about 4000 miles in length.
Between	{	30 and 72	{ N. lat. }			

BOUNDARIES.] It would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon any accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of those vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her 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.
North-east division	{ Kamtschatka Tartars	{ Kamtschatka.
	{ Jakutskoi Tartars	{ Jakutskoi.
South-east division	{ Bratski — —	{ Bratski.
	{ Thibet and Mongul Tartars — — —	{ Poion Kudak
North-west division	{ Samoieda — — —	{ Mangasia.
	{ Ostiack — — —	{ Kortskoi.
South-west division	{ Circassian and Astracan Tartary — —	{ Terki. Astracan.
	{ Siberia — — —	{ Tobolski.
Middle division	{ Kalmuc and Usbec Tartary — —	{ Bokharia. Samarcand.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are those of Caucasus, in Circassia.

SEAS.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Obcy, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tobol, Irtis, Genefa or Jenka; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, } The air of this country is very different,
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, part of Turkey, and the northern parts of Siberia.

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- Artskoi.
- Arki.
- Astracan.
- Bolski.
- Kharia.
- Marcand.

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Nova Zembla and Russian 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 thicknesses. Though Siberia is as it were another name for a country of horror, yet we are told that the air in the southern parts is tolerably mild, the soil furnished with good water, and cultivated with some success. The best accounts we have of its interior appearance is from the ingenious French gentlemen who were sent thither to make astronomical observations; they all agree in representing it as a dismal region, and almost uninhabited. Astracan, 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 pelted 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.

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 Astracan 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 the river, and on seeing a shoal of fry or 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.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } We can form no pro-
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. }** bable guess as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary, but from many circumstances we may conclude that they are not 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 up the hairs by the roots. 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 of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suits their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale. The Tartars in general are a wandering sort of people; in their peregrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently ten thousand, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they

they live upon it till all its grass and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloth, silk, 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 the 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 or melancholy. There is a strong resemblance between the northern Tartars and some nations of Canada in North America, particularly when any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, 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 so peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities nor 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 then 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, inso-much that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will cleft 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 deers skin, having the fur outward; trowsers and hose of the same kind of 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 hole in the top to let out the smoak, and benches round the fire to sit or lye upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland, eastward, to the Japanese ocean. In the 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 cabins extremely nauseous. Though horse flesh be preferred raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoaked 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;

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but among the heads of tribes, the wife's fon is always preferred to the fucceffion. After a wife is turned of forty, she is employed in menial duties as another fervant, and as fuch muft attend the young wives who fucceed to their places; nor is it uncommon in fome of the more barbarous tribes for a father to marry his own daughter.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars fomewhat refembles 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 popifh religions. Some of them are the groffeft idolators, and worfhip little rude images drefsed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they are very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. The religion and government of the kingdom of Tibet form the moft extraordinary article that is to be found in the hiftory of mankind. The Tibettians are governed by a living, eating, and drinking god, whom they believe to be omnipotent, and whom they call the Grand Lama, or Dalay Lama. He refides in a pagoda or temple, upon the mountain Putali, in a crofs-legged pofture, but without fpeaking or moving, otherwife than by fometimes lifting his hand in approbation of a favourite worfhipper. Not only the Tibettians, but the neighbouring princes and people flock in incredible numbers, with rich prefents, to pay him their adorations; and he generally appears to be a healthy, ruddy-faced young man, about twenty-feven years of age. This being appoints deputies under him, the chief of whom is called the Tipa, who takes care of all the temporal affairs of the kingdom, and has a number of fubftituted lamas. Thefe are properly the king and the governors of Tibet, both civil and military; it being below the dignity of the grand lama to fuperintend any temporal concerns.

As to the grand lama, he is himfelf the moft miserable wretch in the empire. He is purchafed, when young, from a healthy peafant, and privately brought up by the lamas to the bufinefs of his funtion, which is to move by clock-work, and to be carried in ftate to the place of his imprifonment, where he remains till next day, when the farce of his enthronement is repeated. When he falls ill, or becomes too old to act his part, he is difpatched by his minifters, who produce another, as like him as they can find, in his room; and when any alteration is obferved, they always give fatisfactory reafons why the dalay lama has changed his appearance. He is never fuffered to touch any of the fine fruits or viands that are brought to his fhrine, all which are devoured by his minifters, who take care to diet him in his prifon. Such are the general outlines of this pretended theocracy, in which all travellers are agreed, however they only differ among themfelves as to modes and circumftances.

LEARNING.] The reader may be furprized to find this article among a nation of Tartars, yet nothing is more certain than that under Zingis Kan and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Afracan and the neighbouring countries were the feats of learning and politenefs as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever fo fplendid, falls fhort of that of thofe princes; and fome remains of their tafte in architecture are ftill extant, but in fpofts fo defolate, that they are almoft inaccessible. The cultivation of learning was the firft care of the prince, and generally committed to the care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perfian and Arabic tongues; and their hiftories, many of which are ftill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ftrongeft marks of authenticity.

COMMERCE

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Altracans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic into Persia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are no better than fixed herds. 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 an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in page 458, merit notice. Tobolski and Altracan are considerable cities, the first containing fifteen thousand, and the later seventy thousand inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns are erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government. But I apprehend it will require a considerable time before any fixed plan of government can be formed in this country.

CURIOSITIES.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the abovementioned great conquerors and their successors; they are, however, but little known to Europeans, though many of them are said to have been discovered by the wandering Tartars in the internal parts of the country. Some gold and silver coins of the same princes have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, says Mr. Voltaire, in his History of Peter the Great, there was found in Calmuc 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 Tibet.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, furnished those amazing numbers who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, and peopled the northern parts of Europe, 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 abovementioned 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 Ussac 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 Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of the eastern world. It is so difficult to discover any remains of magnificence here, that 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 same may be said of Tamerlane, whose memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan, and whose 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 antients by the name of Bucharia, and it is situated in the latitude

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of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and thirteen miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

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 khans or leaders, who, 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 twenty to a hundred thousand horsemen. Their chief residence is a kind of military station, which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war and other occasions. They are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, or 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 independancy, 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 antient 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.

The Empire of CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	95	{	E. Lon.	{	Being	{	2000 miles in length.
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BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Chinese Tartary, on the north; by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from North America, on the east; by the Chinesian sea, south; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries of Tibet and Russia, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] The great division of this empire, according to the authors of the Universal History, is into fifteen provinces (exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situate 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 inform the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and other religious sent thither by the pope, but whose millions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers

athers 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 Crocceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay, which rises in the province of Queycheu. 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 Nanking and Canton.

FORESTS.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered 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.

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 those 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 a thousand 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. 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. Those canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, renders 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.

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 mild, and in the south hot. The soil is either by nature or art fruitful of every thing that can minister to the necessities, conveniences, 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 are 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 has all the quantities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil, serve the natives as candles, but they

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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 are poisonous, but afford the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of those, 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 bohea grows 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.

I am apt to think that the Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English, and that 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 his 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 discovered in the British 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. Their 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.] The number of Chinese, by the best accounts, do not fall short of fifty millions; a number disproportioned to what we are told of the vast population of particular cities and provinces. Most of those accounts are exaggerated, and persons, who visit China without any view of becoming authors, are greatly disappointed in their mighty expectations. 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 complexions 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 antient Chinese, to palliate their jealousy.

To enter into all the starchy ridiculous formalities of the Chinese, especially their men of quality, when paying or receiving visits, would give my reader little information, and less amusement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chinese, since they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is sufficient to observe, that the legislators of China, looking upon submission and subordination as the corner-stones of all society, devised those outward marks of respect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the test of duty and respect from inferiors to superiors, and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility, was void of good sense.

MORALS.] By the latest and best accounts, the Chinese in general are the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world, and they employ their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English, but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law disputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds, and the men of property among them, practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meannesses to obtain preferment.

DRESS.] This varies according to the degrees of men 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.] 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, she will expose or strangle them, which is the principal reason of so many children being found in the streets and highways.

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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.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chinese 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. The learning of the Chinese has been displayed in several specimens published by Du Halde, as well as of poetry, but they contain no more than a set of maxims and precepts, accommodated to public and private life, without any thing argumentative or descriptive. 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 apparatus for astronomical observations; and metaphysical learning, if it 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 our Charles II. 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 invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zingis 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, japanning, 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.

LANGUAGE.] The Chinese language consists of a very few words, or rather syllables, which admit of so many variations, and so much modified by sounds and action, that it is generally thought no stranger can attain it, so as to speak it.

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 the government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and very possibly amount to that sum.

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; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on 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 records, 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. I 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 antients knew and esteemed it highly under the name of Porcelaine, 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 gawfes, 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 trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money, for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that since the discovery of the porcelain manufacture, 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 most instructive entertaining article, before the conquest of China by the Tartars, for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chinese, they 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 patriarchal, 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 mandarines, 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 men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarines 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 effect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as 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,

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tion, 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 expences 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 mandarines 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 is, but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is stiled 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, and seemed to admit of a particular providence, yet their philosophers and legislators were atheists or materialists, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make them more submissive to government. The Jesuits long imposed upon the public of Europe, on this head, and suffered their proselytes to worship Tien, pretending, that it was no other than the name of God, but a strict scrutiny being made by the court of Rome, it was found to signify universal matter. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals among the people, and endeavoured to supply the belief of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Christianity, but as we know little of their religion, but 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 above 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 in fact they were 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 figure in China.

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 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chun-tchi, 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 Peking 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 dilution 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 thirty

thousand. 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.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanos, rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linsung 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 fifteen hundred miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, 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 eighteen hundred years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, to the east of Pekin, and almost in the same latitude, being $40^{\circ} 2' 6''$, in the province of Petcheli; 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 bascs 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, fabricated by hands. 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 four hundred cubits long, and five hundred high, tho' 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 stile of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vast labour and expence. 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 Nanking, which is two hundred feet high, and forty 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

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remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Pekin weighs a hundred and twenty thousand pound, but its found 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, excepting as mentioned, 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, that it is agreeable to the eye, and the imagination, and presents a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

[CITIES AND TOWNS.] Little can be said of these more than that some of them are immense, and there is great reason to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is said to contain four thousand four hundred walled cities; the chief of which are Pekin, Nankin, and Canton. The former is the residence of the present royal family, and is moderately reckoned to contain two million of inhabitants, but Nanking is said to exceed it both in extent and population. The walls of Pekin are fifty cubits high, and are defended by towers, at a bow-shot distance from each other, with redoubts at every gate. It is divided into two parts like London and Westminster, the Chinese and the Tartar. The imperial palace, which is no other than an amazing assemblage of neat beautiful buildings, but without order or regularity, stands in the latter.

[HISTORY.] The Chinese pretend as a nation to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility, but though their pretensions have been repeatedly confuted by learned men, they certainly have evidences of a much higher antiquity, than any people on earth (the Jews perhaps excepted) can produce. Their exactness in astronomical observations, rude as they were in that science, before their commerce with the Europeans; their immemorial use of printing; their peaceable patriarchal scheme of government, and several other incidental advantages contributed to this priority. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history however is wrapped up in mysteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, 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 more than once broken into.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. The celebrated wall, proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthless emperor Tsong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognize the usurper, and made a peace with Tsongate, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and as has been already

mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government.

About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese. Though the intercourse between Europe and China has been greatly improved since that time, yet we know very little of the internal events of China, excepting those that affect our trade, which is now at a low pass in that country, owing to the vast distance and uncertainty of the voyage, the native chicanery of the Chinese themselves, and the Europeans having supplied themselves either at home or from other countries with many of their commodities.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND } THIS vast country is situated between the
BOUNDARIES. } 66th and 109th degrees of longitude, and
between 1° 12' and 40° of north latitude. It is bounded on the north
by the countries of Usbec Tartary and Tibet; on the south, with
the Indian Ocean; on the east, with China and the Chinese sea; and
on the west, with Persia and the Indian sea.

DIVISIONS.] I shall divide, as others have done, India at large into three great parts; first, the Peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Further Peninsula; second, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninsula within or on this side the Ganges: all of them vast populous and extended empires. But it is necessary, in order to save many repetitions, to premise an account of some particulars that are in common to those numerous nations, which shall be extracted from the most enlightened of our modern writers who have visited the country in the service of the East India company.

Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic historian, comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Indostan. The Mahomedans (says he) who are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about an hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognized his superiority. In other respects, the government of Indostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrowing greatness of any subject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the administration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos, or, as others call them, Hindoos. 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

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CHINA

Canton

Amoy

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Batavia

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PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

Calamian I.

Mindoro

BORNEO I.

North

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INDONESIA

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I. Quiso

Pequin

Dos Reyes Magos

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C. del Engano

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pay him divine honours. The bramins (for so the Gentoo 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 commentary upon it, called the Shahstah, which is wrote in the Sanscrit language, now a dead language, and known only to the bramins who study it. The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a supreme Being, who has 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 the most hideous figures, either delineated or carved; so that the belief of an omnipotent Being is now almost lost among the Gentoos.

Those Indians are particularly distinguished from the rest of mankind by their division into tribes, the four principal of which are the bramins, soldiers, labourers, and mechanics. These are again subdivided into a multiplicity of inferior distinctions. The bramins have an entire power, which they use commonly to very bad purposes, over the minds of the people, though some of them are superstitious, moral, and innocent. They are all of them such bigots, that excepting the Hallachores, who are the refuse and outcasts of the other tribes, and disowned and detested by them all, Mr. Scrafton doubts (whatever the Roman catholics may pretend) whether there ever was an instance of any other of the Gentoos being converted by the missionaries. In short, the bramins in general are a designing degenerate set of men; but Mr. Scrafton, who gives us that picture of them, acknowledges that, amidst all their errors, they agree in those truths which form the harmony of the universe, that there is *one supreme God, and that he is best pleased by charity and good works.*

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 labourers are the farmers and all who are concerned in the cultivation of lands.

The mechanics are merchants, bankers, traders of all kinds, and are divided into many subordinations.

Those different tribes (says Mr. Scrafton) are forbid to intermarry, to cohabit, to eat with each other, or even to drink out of the same vessel with one of another tribe; and every deviation in these points, subjects them to be rejected by their tribe, renders them for ever polluted, and they are thenceforward obliged to herd with the Hallachores. This division is attended with infinite inconveniencies, for excepting the rajah-poots,

poets, no Gentoos think of defending himself in case of invasions, which, when made from the sea, have been generally successful. The same division, however, has, notwithstanding all the convulsions of their government, and all their oppressions under the Mahometans, preserved their manufactures among them, which while the son can follow no other trade than that of his father, can never be lost but by exterminating the people.

Different kinds of food are assigned to different tribes. The bramins touch nothing that has life; the soldiers are permitted to eat venison, mutton, and fish; the labourers and merchants live differently, according to their sex and professions, some of them being allowed to eat fish, but none of them animal food.

The practice of women burning themselves, upon the death of their husbands, is now said to be disused all over Indostan; and the Gentoos in general chuse death by famine rather than pollute themselves by eating a forbidden food. This picture of the Gentoos seems to be drawn before our wars with the French in that country; for if we are to believe some travellers, they begin now to relax in the practice of their religious duties. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniencies, as the Chinese; and there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos, are stupendous, but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the tuition of the bramins. If the bramins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant vocaries. 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 abovementioned account likewise for their being free of all those passions, particularly that of love, and sensations that render the rest of mankind either happy or miserable. Their perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males 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 at eighteen; but 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 it is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to walk, to lie down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the best of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns

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reigns of the califs of Bagdad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are now called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mongul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all who 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 soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be filled a great empire, were subdivided into nabobships, each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, 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 have likewise strengthened the Mahometan government; but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who though they bring nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerate into all eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Marattas at present make the greatest figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indostan and Persia. 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 spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahometans or Moors are 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. They are void 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.

The people of Indostan are governed by no written laws, and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the subtenants, even of those lands, are indefeasible.

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 invasion of Mahomet Shah, 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 own 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

misery of the inhabitants, those foubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the bramins and the Gentoos themselves as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Kan, Indostan, from being the best regulated government in the world, is become a scene of mere anarchy and despotism; 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 estate, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the present successes of the English in Indostan; and it is their interest to bring, as soon as possible, that government back to its first principles under the family of Tamerlane. The reader, from this representation, may perceive likewise, that all which 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 founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country.

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.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES
called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	92	}	E. Lon.	}	Being	{	2000 miles in length.
		and						
		109						
		1						
Between	{	and	}	N. Lat.	}			1000 miles in breadth.
		30						

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Tibet and China on the north; by China and the Chinese Sea on the east; by the same sea and the streights of Malacca, on the south; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the west.

Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
On the north-west	{ Acham — — }	Chamdara.
	{ Ava — — }	Ava.
	{ Aracan — — }	Aracan.
	{ Pegu, — — }	Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30.
On the south-west	{ Martaban, — — }	Martaban.
	{ Siam, — — }	Siam, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 14.
	{ Malacca, — — }	Malacca, E. lon. 100. N. lat. 22-30.

nabobs, and other Maho-
Gentoo themselves as the
Upon the whole, ever
from being the best regu-
scene of mere anarchy or
of in his tyranny by his
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here committed with im-
no worse estate, concern
government. To the above
English in Indostan; and it
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The reader, from this
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by the present law and
of that country.
the complexion of the
of both sexes regular.
ambitious of intermarrying
of their complexion,
and his great generals.

Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
On the north-east	{ Tonquin, -- -- }	{ Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 22-30.
On the south-east	{ Cochin China, -- }	{ Thoanoa.
	{ Cambodia, -- }	{ Cambodia.
	{ 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 antients, and is partly so to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] This country is so little known, that authors differ concerning its air, 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.] These 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 Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The straits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontaries of Siam, Romana, and Banfac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE } The soil of all Indostan is fruitful
DIFFERENT NATIONS. } in general, and produces all the deli-
cious fruits that are found in other countries, as well as roots and vege-
tables. This peninsula abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and qua-
drupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the countries
already described. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds,
rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin pro-
duces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all
the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabi-
tants have swellings in their throats, owing to the badness of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, } The Tonquinese are excellent mecha-
AND DIVERSIONS. } nics, and fair traders; but greatly op-
pressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade,
and his factors sell by retale to the Dutch and other nations. The Ton-
quinese are fond of lacquer houses, which are unwholesome and poi-
sonous. 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, easily and comfortably. Almost every
house-

beyond the GANGES,
PENINSULA.

NT.
2000 miles in length.

1000 miles in breadth.

ounded by Tibet and China,
ina and the Chinese Sea,
f Malacca, on the south;
, on the west.

Chief towns.

- Chamdara.
- Ava.
- Aracan.
- Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat.
17-30.
- Martaban.
- Siam, E. lon. 101. N.
lat. 14.
- Malacca, E. lon. 101.
N. lat. 22-30.

On

house-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practised all over Indostan.

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 name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are as gross as those described under the article of Tibet, and the civil government of the two countries in many particulars resemble each other, 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 Arrakan 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.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebration of festivals, and their acting comedies by torch-light from evening to morning.

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 obliged to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious and better workmen than 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 to this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has been for some time on the decline; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes entirely discontinued.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is more than probable that the Egyptians, the nation from which the Greeks and Romans drew the fine arts, owed them to the bramins, and the Gentoos, who are sometimes called Banians. The names, however, of the legislators and bramins, or whoever their learned men were who spread their knowledge among the East-Indians, have either perished or are obscured by impenetrable clouds of allegory. Some late English authors, who were well acquainted with the affairs of Indostan, have assured us that that empire still contains

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ains men of the most unspotted lives and profound knowledge of all the original bramin theology, morality, and civil constitutions. Such men are hard to be discovered, but when accessible, they are modest and communicative in all branches of their learning, but those in which they are enjoined an inviolable secrecy; and we have some well attested instances where they have suffered death rather than betray their secrets, which are hereditary in their families. Others, from the profligate selfish characters of the common bramins, think that all this sanctity and learning is mere pretext and grimace. I have already mentioned their understanding astronomy so far as to calculate eclipses.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already observed, interspersed with other dialects.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, } This article is so extensive,
RARITIES, AND CITIES. } that it requires a slight review
of the kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azem, I have already observed, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver: he pays little or nothing to the great mogul. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was antiently subject to the kings of Arrakan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Arrakan 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 lies between the 110th and 116th degrees of longitude, and between 14 and 19 degrees of north latitude, being about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. It is uncertain whether it is not at present subject to the king or emperor of Ava. The riches of the king (whoever he is) are almost incredible; some of his idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. His revenues arise from the rents of lands, of which he is sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandise; so that some think him to be the richest monarch in the world, excepting the Chinese emperor. He can bring a million, and on occasion, a million and a half of soldiers to the field, well cloathed and armed; and he is said to be master of eight hundred trained elephants, each with a castle on his back holding four soldiers. The constitution of his empire is of the feudal kind, for he assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava; we are not even sure to whom it belongs. It is said, the honours the 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 Lama or Dairo, the living god, already described, equally prevail as those of the bramins. Whether the former is not a corruption of the latter, and both of them of ill understood Christianity and Judaism, is an enquiry scarcely worth pursuing. The principles of the Lama are best calculated for rendering the king a mere cypher in his government, which is entirely vested in his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos. This kingdom formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but 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 being of the Lama religion, is the slave of his priests and ministers.

Siam. 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 further than that it is a rich and populous kingdom, and that it approaches in its government, policy, 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 Kamboja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma, which is subject to Ava; 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 talapoins 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. Those 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 of gold are either excessive thin plates or a very bright lacker that cover wooden or other materials. The government here is excessively despotic; even servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarines are prostrated 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 eighteen leagues to the south of Siam, and twelve 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 the 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. As a proof that we know very little of the internal parts of the country, we are told by the latest travellers, 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 antients, 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, it was the richest city in the east, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malaysians, who were formerly an industrious ingenious

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 is situated between the 9th and 16th deg. 30 min. north latitude, and the 19th deg. 30 min. and 126 deg. of eastern longitude. As it stretches seven degrees thirty-six minutes from south to north, its greatest length that way is about five hundred and twenty English miles; and its greatest breadth from west to east, including six degrees thirty minutes of longitude, about three hundred ninety-eight 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, despotism of their king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Champa, 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, from the 12th to the 18th degree, but, according to others, from the 8th to the 17th degree of north latitude, or about five hundred miles in length; but is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Champa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin China, some particulars of which I 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, are 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 dependence over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and I can add little to what has been said, unless I was to adopt the fictions of the popish missionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquinese 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 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 the palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the chouah. This history seems to be of the lama extracted or at least copied from that worship.

The chouah resides generally in the capital Cachao, which is situated near the center 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 their city, conveniently fitted up with storehouses, office-houses, a noble dining-room, and handsome apartments for merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The above is the imperfect account I am enabled, without departing from the rules of probability, to give of this vast peninsula. Its riches, 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 native gold.

The possession of rubies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white or partly-coloured elephants, convey among the 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, &c. above all, rapacious and poisonous animals, which render the possession of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the Great Mogul.

SITUATION AND EXTENT, including the Peninsula west of the GANGES.

Between	{	66	}	E. Lon.	} Being {	2000 miles in length.
		and				
		92	}			
Between	{	7	}	N. Lat.	} Being {	1500 miles in breadth.
		and				
		40	}			

BOUNDAR

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2000 miles in length.

1500 miles in breadth.

BOUNDARIES.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Ubec Tartary
and Tibet, on the north; by Tibet and the
Bay of Bengal, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, on the south; by
the same and Persia, on the west. The main land being the Mogul
empire, or Indoſtan properly ſo called.

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Ben- gal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut	Bengal Proper	Calcutta Fort William } English Huegly — } Dacca — } Malda, English and Dutch
	Naugracut — —	Chatigan Caſſumbazar
	Jefuat — —	Naugracut
	Patna — —	Rajapour
	Necbal — —	Patna
	Gore — —	Necbal
	Rotas — —	Gore
	Soret — —	Rotas.
	Jeffelmere — —	Jaganal
	Tata, or Sinda — —	Jaffelmere
The north-west divi- ſion on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the ri- ver Indus	Bucknor — —	Tata
	Multan — —	Bucknor
	Haican — —	Multan
	Cabul — —	Haican
	Candish — —	Cabul
	Berar — —	Medipour
	Chitor — —	Berar
	Ratipor — —	Chitor
	Narvar — —	Ratipor
	Gualeor — —	Narvar
The middle diviſion	Agra — —	Gualeor
	Delly — —	Agra
	Lahor, or Penciah — —	Delly, E. lon. 79. N. lat. 28.
	Hendowus — —	Lahor
	Caſſimere — —	Hendowus
	Jengapour — —	Caſſimere
	Aſmer, or Bando — —	Jengapour
		Aſmer.

MOUNTAINS.] The moſt remarkable mountains of Indoſtan; are
the prodigious ones that ſeparate it from Perſia and Tibet, and are inha-
bited by Marattas, Afghans or Patans, and other people more warlike
than the Gentoos.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Indus and the Ganges, both of them known
to the antients, and held in the higheſt eſteem, and even veneration, by
the modern inhabitants. Beſides thoſe rivers, many others water this
country.

SEAS, BAYS AND CAPES.] Theſe are the Indian ocean; the bay of
Bengal; the gulph of Cambaya; the ſtreights of Ramanakoel; cape
Comorin and Diu.

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 breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable.

INHABITANTS.] I have already made a general review of this great empire, and I have only to add to what I have said of their religion and sects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about practising the greatest austerities, but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be eight hundred thousand. Another set of mendicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and are supposed to be twelve millions in number, but all of them vagabonds, and lazy impostors, who live by amusing the credulous Gentoos with foolish fictions. The Banians, who are so called from their affected innocence of life, serve as brokers, and profess the Gentoo religion, or somewhat like it.

The Persees, or Parsees, of Indostan, are originally the Gaur, described in Persia, but are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed of the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various names, and which some Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw lights upon the antient history both sacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of those books that have been published; but some are of opinion that the whole is a modern imposture, founded upon sacred, traditional, and profane histories and religions.

A nearer acquaintance with Indostan manifests the precarious credit that is due to travellers who take a slight survey of distant countries. The English, 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.

DIVERSIONS.] The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the sports of the field. They affect shady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music, both in wind and string instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houses make no appearance, and those of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them subject to fire; but the manufacturers chuse to work in the open air; and the insides of houses belonging to principal persons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleasant, nay many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this article, as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been described, I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of this empire. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides their cargoes, will carry seventeen hundred Mahometan pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000*l*.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } These are pretty uncertain, especially since the late revolutions of the empire. } Cyzarat

Guzarat is a maritime province on the gulph of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is said to contain thirty-five cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About forty-three French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory. It was taken by them in the late war, but it is uncertain whether it is still in their possession.

The province of Agra is the largest in all Indostan, containing forty large towns and three hundred and forty 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 Dehli, 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 twelve thousand horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and five hundred 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 Sind, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened in 1699 carried off above eighty thousand 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 trot along, morning and evening, forty miles a day; ten being usually hired, who carry the palanquin 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.

Though the province of Multan 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 sixty thousand horses.

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 a hundred thousand 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, dexterous, 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. It is esteemed to be the storehouse of the East-Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry, and other trees. Its callicoes, 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 cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near a hundred leagues on both sides the Ganges, being 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 pagods 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 Hughly, 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 may be now said to be in possession of the company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, has been introduced into it. It does not, however, seem to give general satisfaction, on account of the vast influence which the company has always over the magistrates, and many complaints from private persons have lately reached England.

In 1756, the Indian nabob, or viceroy, 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 soubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and a hundred and forty-five 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 phrensy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible tyrant returned to his capital after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson and colonel (now lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place; and the war was concluded by the glorious battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jasseir was advanced to the soubahship. The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna or Makudabad; and Bannares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoos university, and celebrated for its sanctity.

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 five hundred Europeans, and twelve hundred Indians, and defended by a hundred and twenty-three pieces of cannon

cannon and three mortars, it was taken in the late war by the English admirals Watson and Pocock, and colonel Clive. Hugley, 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 ten thousand people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugley, for about fifty miles farther. Dakka 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 Casmumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagur, 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 of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief city is Ratipor. The province of Kandish includes that of Berar and part of Orixia, and its capital is Brampur, so that it is of prodigious extent, and carries on a vast trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered stuffs.

The above are the provinces belonging to the mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the Peninsula within the Ganges. Those that lie to the southward fall into the description of the peninsula itself.

HISTORY.] It is not at all to the credit of our East-India company's servants, that notwithstanding their long residence in Indostan, they differ in their accounts of the revolutions of that country. All we know for certain is, that Tamerlane made a deep impression upon this country, and that the present emperor pretends to reign in his right. The history of his immediate descendants has been variously represented, but all agree in the main that they were magnificent and despotic princes, that they committed their provinces, as has been already observed, to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, towards the middle of the last century, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninsula without the Ganges, which is at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive ten or twelve years ago. From what has been already said of this empire, Aurengzebe seems to have left too much power to the governors of his distant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful despotism, which while in his hands preserved the tranquillity of his empire, but when it descended to his weak indolent successors, occasioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzo'din, who took the name of Jehandar Shaw. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress so absolutely, that his great omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whose name was Furrukhsir, was governed and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abused his power so grossly, that being afraid to punish them publicly,

he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhsir. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shaw Jehan. The rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers, but the latter were victorious, and Shaw Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mohammed Shaw, and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother; but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Dehli. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Indostan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shaw could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shaw is well known, and the immense treasure which he carried from Indostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almost equal in value to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Gentoos two hundred thousand lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shaw, some accounts, and those too strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those times. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the invasion of Nadir Shaw may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. The history of it, since that time, is less known than that of Tamerlane itself. According to the best accounts, upon the retreat of Nadir Shaw, who left the emperor in possession of his dignity, the Patans invaded his dominions; and so treacherous were the emperor's generals and ministry, that none of them

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would head an army against them, till the emperor's son, a youth of eighteen years of age, bravely undertook the command, punished the conspiracy that had been formed against his father, and completely defeated the invaders. During this campaign, the emperor was strangled by his vizier: but by a course of well-acted dissimulation, the young emperor, who was called Amet Shaw, found means to put the conspirators to death, but soon after was driven from his throne by a fresh invasion of the Patans and Marattas. Some pretend that one Allum Geer was first proclaimed emperor, and then murdered by the same vizier, who raised another prince to the throne. Whether this Allum Geer is the same with Amet Shaw is uncertain, as are the intermediate revolutions that followed. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shaw Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble, and he depends upon the protection of the English, whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee.

As to the government and constitution of Indostan, we must refer to what we have already observed. The emperor of Indostan, or great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane the Mongul 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.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The south-east coast of India, situated on the bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel.	Madura ———	Madura
	Tanjour ———	Tanjour
	East side of Bifnagar, or Carnate ———	Trincombar, Danes Negapatan, Dutch Bifnagar Portanova, Dutch Fort St. David, English Pondicherry, } French Conymere, } Coblon
	Golconda ———	Sadrasapatan, Dutch St. Thomas, Portuguese Fort St. George, or Madras, E. Lon. 80. N. Lat. 13. English Pellicate, Dutch
	Orixa ———	Golconda Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines Musulapatan, English and Dutch Vizacapatan, English Bimlipatan, Dutch
		Orixa Ballasore, English

Grand

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	West side of Benagar, or Carnate	Tegapatan, Dutch Angengo, English Cochin, Dutch Callicut, } English Tillichery, } Canannore, Dutch Monguelore, } Dutch and Portuguese Basilore, } Raalconda, diamond mines.
	Decan, or Visapour	Cawar, English Goa, Portuguese Rajapore, French Dabal, English Dundee, } Portuguese Shoule, } Bombay, isle and town, English Bassaim, } Portuguese Salsette, }
The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Cambaya, or Guzarat	Damon, Portuguese Surat, E. Lon. 72 N. Lat. 21-30.
		Swalley Barak, English and Dutch Amedabat Cambaya Dicu, Portuguese.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] A chain of mountains running from north to south, renders it winter on one side of this peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, last 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 twelve 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 part of the East Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this peninsula are more black in complexion, than those of the other part of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes some suspect them to be the descendents of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greatest part of them have but a faint notion at present, of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indostan, whose tribute from thence has been ever since the invasion of

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of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their soubahs and nabobs, who now exercise an independent power in the government, though even Suraja Dowla was glad to receive a deputation from the emperor, now reigning, or his father; but besides those soubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many states in this peninsula belong to rajahs or lords, who are the descendants of their old princes, and look upon themselves as being independent on the mogul, and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } From what has been said above, this peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments, or soubahships, than into provinces. Our soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government, according to his own conveniency. I shall speak of those provinces, as belonging to the Malabar or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first, of the 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 be governed by a sovereign king, who has under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjaor is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince, rich. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the Dutch fortress of Negapatam, and the capital city is Tanjaor.

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 Krishna, which divides it from Golkonda; on the west by Vissapur, or Vissapur; and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjaor; being in length, from south to north, about three hundred and forty-five miles, and two hundred and seventy-six in breadth from east to west. The capital of the Carnatic is Bissnagar, and the country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north, lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East-Indies, but now demolished by the English, who took it in the late war. It was restored by the peace of Fontainebleau, in 1763.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madrafs, is the capital of the English East India company's dominions in the East Indies. It is situated in thirteen degrees north latitude, and eighteen degrees east longitude, and is distant eastward from London, about four thousand eight hundred miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort. 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, 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 omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. Those mines are under the tuition of a mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, and enclosing the contents by palliados, all diamonds above a certain weight

weight belong to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, is of little value for its product, and must import its own provisions. Eighty thousand inhabitants of various nations, are said to be dependent 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 twenty years. The governor of Madras has a council to assist him, and when he goes abroad, appears in vast splendor. The differences that now rage among the directors and proprietors of the company in England, prevent my saying any thing concerning the police of this government. The company has received all the encouragement and assistance the English parliament can give them, even to the introducing of martial law into their possessions. There seem, however, to be some fundamental errors in their constitution. The directors consider the riches acquired by their governors and other servants, as being plundered from the company, and of late they have sent out superintendents to controul their governors and overgrown servants, but with what success time must demonstrate. As this is a subject of the greatest importance, that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge me in one or two reflections, as I am not to resume the subject.

The English East India company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of our 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 expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions sterling, out of which they are to pay four hundred thousand pounds annually, to the government, while they are 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 expences in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective soubahs and nabobs they have assisted.

Be that as it may, this company exercises at present many rights appropriated to sovereignty, such as those of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Those powers are undoubtedly incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and it became the dignity of the English government, to send out an officer of their own, (as they have done in the person of Sir John Lindsay) to take such measures with the Eastern princes and potentates, as may render the acquisitions of the company permanent and national.

Without entering into any disputes agitated of late between the directors and the government, the possibility of such a permanency and even extending our influence in India, is pretty evident. From what has been already said, the Gentoos are entirely passive in all the revolutions of their government. The Moors, or Mahometans, ignorant and treacherous as they are, appear to have no violent attachments to any religious principle, and are abject enough to live under any form of government, that their emperor shall prescribe; nor are they at present, when the English are his friends, in any condition to dispute their joint wills. These considerations manifest the wisdom of not driving them into desperate measures, and thereby effecting a union of their forces, which

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Polikat, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. We know little of the kingdom and capital of Ikkari. The celebrated Heyder Ally, with whom the company has lately made a peace, is said to be a native of the kingdom of Messur, which lies to the south-west of the Carnatic; and the Christians of the apostle St. Thomas, live at the foot of the mountains Gatti, that separate Messur from Malabar. I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golkonda, which besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golkonda is said to be subject to a prince, who, though tributary to the Mogul, is immensely rich, and can raise a hundred thousand men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagar, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golkonda. East-south-east of Golkonda, lies Masulipatan, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam, and Vizigapatan, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narispore. The province of Orixa, from whence the English company draw great part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golkonda, extending in length from east to west, about five hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth about two hundred and forty. It is governed likewise by a tributary prince. In this province stands the idolatry temple of Jagaryunt, which they say is attended by five hundred priests. It is an irregular pyramidal black stone, of about four or five hundred weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

The country of Dekan comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms, particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, and Telenga, and the kingdom of Vissapur. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of those provinces, are extremely unsettled. They having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their situation and extent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aurengabad, and Dolt-abad, or Dowlet-abad; and that the latter is the largest place in all Indostan. Near it lies the famous pagods of Elack, in a plain 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 Golkonda, and its capital Beder, contains a garrison of three thousand men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Baglana lies to the west of Telenga, and forms the smallest province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portuguese territory begins here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues south of Surat, and extends almost twenty leagues to the north of Goa.

Vissapur is a large kingdom tributary to the Mogul, but its particular extent is uncertain. The western part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The king of Vissapur is said to have a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field a hundred and fifty thousand soldiers. His capital is of the same name, and his country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are, Daman, Bassaim Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Pajapur, Dabal-
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Rajupur, Ghiria, and Vingurla. The Portugueze 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, in the latitude of fourteen degrees north, forty-five leagues south of Surat, and about forty north of Dunda Dejapore. Its harbour can conveniently hold a thousand 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 conveniencies 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 infantia 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 Portugueze, and are called Popish Mestizos and Canarins, the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueze, 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 reader need scarcely be informed, that the governor 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 Scapoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near sixty thousand of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested.

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 on 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 Portugueze. 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; besides 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 Portugueze settlements, in the East Indies lies about thirty miles south of Vingurla. 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 Portugueze possessions on this coast, are under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the antient splendor of the government. The rich peninsula of Salzete, is dependant on Goa. Sunda
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lies south of the Portugueze territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the mogul. The English factory of Corwar, is one of the most pleasant and healthful of any upon the Malabar coast. Kanora 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 Kanorines 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 given to commerce.

Tho' 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 Comorin, 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 Kannamore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tillicheri, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portugueze, have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southermost 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 surprizing phenomenon is owing to the mountains of Gatti or Gate, 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 I take my leave of India, it may be proper to observe, that in the little district of Cochin within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manassih, and to have records engraved 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.

P E R S I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the north-west; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from

from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north east; by India on the east, and by the Indian ocean, and the gulphs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey on the west.

Modern Persia comprehends the antient Hyrcania, Bactria, Susiana, Parthia, Medea, and part of Assyria, Iberia, and Colchis. The modern divisions of Persia are extremely uncertain, and of little importance to the reader.

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.] Those 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 the other luxuries of life, are 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 gulph 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, and odorous kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted 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 assa fetida 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 out 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, antiently Cyrus; and Aras, antiently Araxes, which rise 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 by boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Usbec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

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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 been discovered near Tauris, and natural salt in the province of Carkmenia.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } It is impossible to speak
NERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. } with any certainty concern-
ing 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 antient 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. The latter have a kind of square caps, which rises ten or twelve inches, but a shorter kind for the summer. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans, many of them cost five and twenty 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 cloaths, 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 expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and cloaths 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.

That of the women is not much different, only their vests are longer. They wear their hair dishevelled, and a stiffened cap on their heads. 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 ornamental part of their dress consisting of pearls and jewels of all kinds, are disposed of about their heads and persons with great taste. It is observed however that their profusion in dress, to make a figure abroad, often keeps them poor at home.

The common people live with more propriety, and consequently more decency. Their cloathing and furniture is neat and clean. They 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, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night, when they sup upon pilau, already described. 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 never cut their bread, for which reason it is baked into thin cakes. 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 they have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left, and are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and are 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 dextrous. They excell, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts, and privately play at games of chance. The lower people are incredibly swift of foot, for the Persians make frequent use of carriers, though post horses are provided for the dispatch of the royal business.

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." To enumerate their superstitions, fasts and ceremonies, would require a volume, which, when read, could communicate neither instruction nor entertainment. Having mentioned the bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian guebres or gours, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the antient 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 parses accuse the gours, 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 into the ground, resembling a lamp burning, with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the gours, who were banished out of Persia, by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

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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 Sabean Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism, and are numerous towards the Persian Gulph. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Christians, who are very numerous in Persia.

I have been the more explicit on the head of religion, as the present race of Persians are said to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their ignorance of all religion, and their late wars with the Turks. It has therefore been thought by some writers, that great advantages, in point of commerce, may be derived from this indifference in matters of religion, if the natives should be properly supported by the Christian powers.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the east. At present their learning is merely mechanical, nor do they even understand the Koran, which they read in Arabic. 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 administered 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 are many other diseases that are fatal in other places, such as the gout, the stone, the head-ach, the tooth-ach, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, so that 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.

LANGUAGE.] It has been disputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had not their language from the Persians; but this chiefly rests on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Persian language, and the decision seems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian sea, speak Turkish, and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia, under the califate, when learning flourished in those countries. The learned Persians have generally written in the Arabic, and people of quality among them have adopted it as the modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persian is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulph, and in Ispahan, but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-Noster is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kib der osmoni; pak bashed nam tu; bayayed pejschabi tu; sebwad ebwaste tu benzjunaukib der osmon niz derzenin; beb mara jmvouz nan kesaj rouz mara; wad argudfar mara konaban ma zjunankibma niz mig farim ormân mara; wador ozmajsch miredâzzmarâ; likin ebalus kuu mara ez escherir, Amen.*

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MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers 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 gulph 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 Petersburg 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. 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, the greatest and most polite among them, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed, without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. 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.

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. Shan 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, viz. This act is given by him whom the universe obeys.

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 expences 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, or as they are called Sophis, 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 sixty thousand; 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 Kan built a royal navy, but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The monuments of antiquity in Persia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, 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, that 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 Ispahan, 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, are mentioned often in natural history, for their surprizing 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 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 coverlets, with carpets under them.

Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated fifty degrees east longitude, and thirty-two degrees, thirty minutes north latitude, in 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 ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Schiras lies about two hundred miles to the south of Astracan. 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 wines of which are incomparable. The vines of Schiras are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Fars, the ancient Persia, and contains a kind of a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, is adorned by many noble buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above four thousand of its houses are inhabited.

Casbin, the capital of the ancient Parthia, when Mr. Hanway was there, had not above eleven thousand houses inhabited, the rest being reduced to ruins. It has, like other eastern cities, some magnificent public and royal buildings, but the inhabitants live in a slovenly manner, their houses standing, as we are told, below the surface of the earth, the conveniency of water.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the same all over the Mahometan countries.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone; 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 for the souls of the deceased.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener 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

male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest cloaths.

I 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.

[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 was conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity was supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sophi family, and pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, though some of them were valiant and politic, 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 Husein, a prince of the Sophi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis, as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sophi family, had escaped from the rebels, and assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and reannexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during the late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Tahmas 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. The history of his expedition into Indostan, and the amazing booty he made there, will come naturally into the description of that country. It has been remarked that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his booty from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Marattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec 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.

A R A B I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between { 35 and 60 } E. lon. } Being { 1300 miles in length.
 Between { 12 and 30 } N. lat. } { 1200 miles in breadth.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the north; by Persia, and the gulphs of Bassora and Ormus, east; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
1. Arabia Petraea, N. W.	{ — — — }	{ Suez.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	{ Haggiaz or Mecca	{ Mecca, E. lon. 43-40. N. lat. 21-20.
	{ Tehama — — —	{ Siden. Medina, Dhafar.
	{ Mocho — — —	{ Mocho, E. lon. 45. N. lat. 13. Sibit.
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	{ Hadramut — — —	{ Hadramut,
	{ Caffeen — — —	{ Caffeen.
	{ Segur — — —	{ Segur.
	{ Oman or Muscat — — —	{ Muscat.
	{ Jamama — — —	{ Jamama.
	{ Bahara — — —	{ Elcalf.

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its antient 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 merchandize pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb lie in Arabia Petraea, east of the Red Sea; and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULPHS, 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 Eastern Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulphs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

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 excessive dry and hot, and the country is subject

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 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 olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no other ways 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. The southern parts 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. But this country is most famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarce 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 traversing 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 eight hundred 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 two hundred 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.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, } AND DRESS. } The Arabians, like most of the nations 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 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 by nature, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations through motives of devotion, are struck with terror on their approaches towards the Deserts. Those robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that

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that so late as the year 1750, a body of fifty thousand Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about sixty thousand persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master of whatever nation.

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 we have given an account in the 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 scarce a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabic, 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 is amongst 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*. The Paternoster in the Arabic is as follows.

Abuna elladbi fi-samwat: jetkaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri masbiatac, cama fi-swana; kedhalac ala larâh aating ebobzera kefatna iaum beiaum: wagfor lena donubena, awachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; walâ tadabchalna fi-hajarib; laken mejjina me nnef-cherir. Amen.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are stiled xerifs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the 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 the kings

Arabians attacked Mecca, killed about a thousand, though mere pirates, and a great number.

Their dress is a shirt, tied about the waist, and a vest of furs, sometimes slippers, and a turban. Many of the women are dressed in white eyes. Like other nations, they are apt that of hogs; and to other meat, which the Jews do, and drink tea, water, and coffee for a usual drink; they

In the history of Arabia, the Arabs are still pagans,

and in former ages were ignorant of several arts, there is a general ignorance of the sciences, and a universal ignorance of the Greek and Latin languages, or corrupt dialect, over which the great mogul. The effect of the Hebrew, Arabic, and Persian, most energetic and useful, as Greek and Latin, in their worship; they do not suffer it to be translated into the language of the country, but out a miracle, as they do not treat of it say, the word camel, and the Arabic is as

*Malacutac: taouri
chobzora kefatna
na nogfor nachra
mejjina me mejj-*

Under the government of the monarchs, both of the same manner as the Persians. These monarchs are elective; the succession is elective, and in the Koran is mentioned the subjection to the monarch; but it is not a proof for protecting themselves from robberies of their militia, but the kings

kings command both the persons and the purses of their subjects as the necessity of affairs require.

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 in 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 chief cities in Arabia are Mocho, Aden, Muschat and Suez, where most of the trade of this country is carried on; but those of Mecca, which is 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 and best built of any temple in the world: 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 four hundred pillars, and furnished with three hundred 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 masterpiece of great value. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

HISTORY.] The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others: for as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is intirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended of Ismael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should 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. Toward the north, and the sea coasts of Arabia, indeed the inhabitants are kept in awe by the Turks, but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves for subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and

and annoy all strangers who come into their country. 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. He was born about the year 571, in the reign of Justinian XI. 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 an enterprize 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 afterward 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 men, 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, and 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 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 foundations 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. The eastern countries were at this time strongly infected with the heresy of Arius,

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The conquests of the independence These, as well as the other forms a very famous was the famous of Arabia, which, of its climate, has of the world, and is about the year 571, inople. Though Mahomet was en-country, and pos-and much beyond part of his life, in this capacity, afterwards taken when he married his l of great wealth into Egypt and a religion, whose while at the same part of them were means of which, es, and pleasure, a new system of been established. se libertine dispo-and engage in the c when Mahomet sed, by his great want of a liberal ty, must have ob-however, that the sanction; and for e was afflicted, to epilepsy, a disease Mahomet gave out was miraculously instructed in his

By this strange ere life, he easily acquaintance and sified by the numd himself a pro-his will, but to sioned, he did not o comprehend the and enthusiastic, manners and reli-at the system he ations, to whose it. The eastern herefy of Arius, who

who allowed the prophetic office, but denied the divinity of Jesus Christ. 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 attachment 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, in order to be the better able to indulge in the gratification 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 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 mentioned, 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 Talmachi, 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 622 of Christ, the forty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the era is called in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. 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

monarch in his time. He died in 629, 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.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS are,

1. **T**HE 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 pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, excepting that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian) where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

2. The Japan Islands, which together form 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 a hundred and fifty miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of 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 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. I have already mentioned the circumstance of the Dutch expelling the Portuguese from this gainful trade. The Japanese themselves are the grossest of all idolators, 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 Nanghasal, in the island of Ximo, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. Authors pretend to give us very particular accounts of the inhabitants, customs, and manners of these islands, their soil, commodities, and trade; but their information conveys little instruction, and the whole subsists on a precarious foundation. All we know for certain is, that notwithstanding their superstition and ignorance, the natives are a most industrious penetrating people; they excel the Chinese themselves in the manufactures that are common to both countries, and at least equal them in husbandry and the arts of life.

3. The Philippines, of which there are eleven hundred in number, lying in the Chinese sea, (part of the Pacific Ocean) three

branches of his race were the caliphs of was included. The made conquests of Arabia directed their Saracens or Moors from Mauritania, in Spain, France, Italy, spread their religion, and Europe; and kind.

ISLANDS are,

town is said to be latitude 14; they are from their particular mention, a (Tinian) where he

has been called the opotic prince, who are situated about a from the 30th to the 147th of east longitude. The inhabitants are the same of Japan. Their high rocks and have some vol- of the Dutch expelling these themselves are the Christianity, that it can people with whom ians, and humour the standing all this com- all their dealings with o, is the only place d to give us very par- and manners of their their information on precarious foundation their superstition and etrating people; the es that are common- ry and the arts of li- ten hundred in num- (ic Ocean) three hun-

red miles south-east of China, of which Manilla or Luconia, the chief, is four hundred miles long and two hundred broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintados or painted people, and Melles, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belong 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 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 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 surprizingly 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 is 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 three thousand 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 Luconia, 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.

4. The Molucca, 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. Those islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of fagoe. Their chief produce consists 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. Those islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. The latter, however, if at war with any land, might be easily dispossessed, and their possession of them at this time

time is precarious, when they differ with those princes. Ternate is the largest of those islands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another, called Fort Orange, in Machian.

5. 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, 145 degrees of longitude from the Canary islands, and 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of seven or eight hundred men, besides small forts, who 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 English 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, for it must be transmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy to all posterity. This tragical event happened in 1622, and is still unrevenged.

6. 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, in 128 degrees of east longitude, and four degrees thirty minutes of south latitude. Poleron, Rosinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on those islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg, covered with the mace, grows on those 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 birds and their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

7. 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 nighttime, 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.

8. The Sunda islands. These are situated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight de-
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grees north and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, and Banca.

Borneo is said to be eight hundred miles long and seven hundred broad, and is therefore 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, camphire, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ourang-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 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 the island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

Sumatra has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the west, 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 a thousand miles long, and a hundred broad. This island produces so much gold, that it is thought to be the Ophir mentioned in the scriptures; but its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The English East-India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen and Fort-Marlborough, from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who possess the sea coasts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those of the adjacent 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, excepting upon 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 being computed at a hundred thousand; but about thirty thousand of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence that ever was 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 three thousand men constantly resides at Batavia, and about fifteen thousand 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; and England itself would find it difficult to shake that republican empire.

9. 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.

10. The Maldives. These are a vast cluster of small islands, extending from the eighth degree of north latitude to the fourth of south. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for cowries, 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."

11. Ceylon. This island, though perhaps not the largest, is thought to be by nature the richest and finest island in the world. It lies in longitude from 78 deg. to 82 deg. 1 min. east, latitude from 6 deg. to 10 north. It is about two hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad, and is situated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin. 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, however, 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, the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the possession of the Dutch, who have in a manner shut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, so that he has scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglaffes, who, though idolators, value themselves upon maintaining their ancient laws and customs. They are in general a sober inoffensive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

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.

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
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of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the south coast, and ending at the north. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains belongs to the Chinese, and is situated between twenty-two degrees, eight minutes, and twenty-five degrees, twenty minutes north latitude. This is likewise a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. The Chinese account the inhabitants of its eastern part as savages, tho' 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 Hainan, 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.

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 a 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, and other foreign superstitions.

The other islands of Asia, are those of Kamtschatka, and the Kurile isles in the eastern or Pacific ocean, many of them lately discovered by the Russians, and but little known. We have already mentioned Bombay, on the Malabar coast.

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 is situate between thirty-seven degrees north, and thirty-five south latitude; whereby its utmost extent from north to south, is about four thousand three hundred miles; and between eighteen degrees west, and fifty east longitude, being about four thousand two hundred miles broad. 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 greatest part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there greatly 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

rally 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 western ocean at Senegal, after a course of two thousand eight hundred miles. It increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilises 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, extending from the western ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic ocean, as far as Egypt, which 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 Monopotapa, and are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were stiled by the antients, the Mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The pike of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is said to be three 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 ground. 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, the country of the Hottentots; and 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 Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with 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, which, though it has ten thousand 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,

chants, 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 unfollicitous 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; 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 these 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 scarce any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarce 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.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions.	
Barbary.	Morocco	500	480	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahometans	
	Alciers	600	400	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahometans	
	Tunis	400	250	Tunis	990 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Mahometans	
	Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Mahometans	
	Tarca	400	300	Tolemeta	1440 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Mahometans	
Lower Guinea.	Egypt	600	250	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Mahometans	
	Silandigerid	2500	350	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans	
	Zaara	400	660	Tegassia	1840 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans	
	Negroland	2200	840	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans	
	Guinea	1800	360	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans	
	Nubia	940	600	Nubia	2418 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Mah. & Pag.	
	Abyfinia	900	800	Gondar	2220 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Christians	
	Ahex	540	130	Doncala	3580 S. E.	2 36 bef.	Christ. & Pag.	
	The Middle Parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans.							
	Loango	410	300	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Chrif. & Pagans	
	Congo	540	420	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Chrif. & Pagans	
Angola	360	250	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Chrif. & Pagans		
Benguela	430	180	Beneguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans		
Matanap	450	240	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans		
Ajan	900	300	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans		
Zanguebar	1400	350	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans		
Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans		
Munemugi	900	660	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans		
Sofola	480	300	Sofola	4000 S. E.	2 18 bef.	Pagans		
Terrade Nat.	600	350	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans		
Caffaria or Hottentots	780	660	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Most stupid Pagans		

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; 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.

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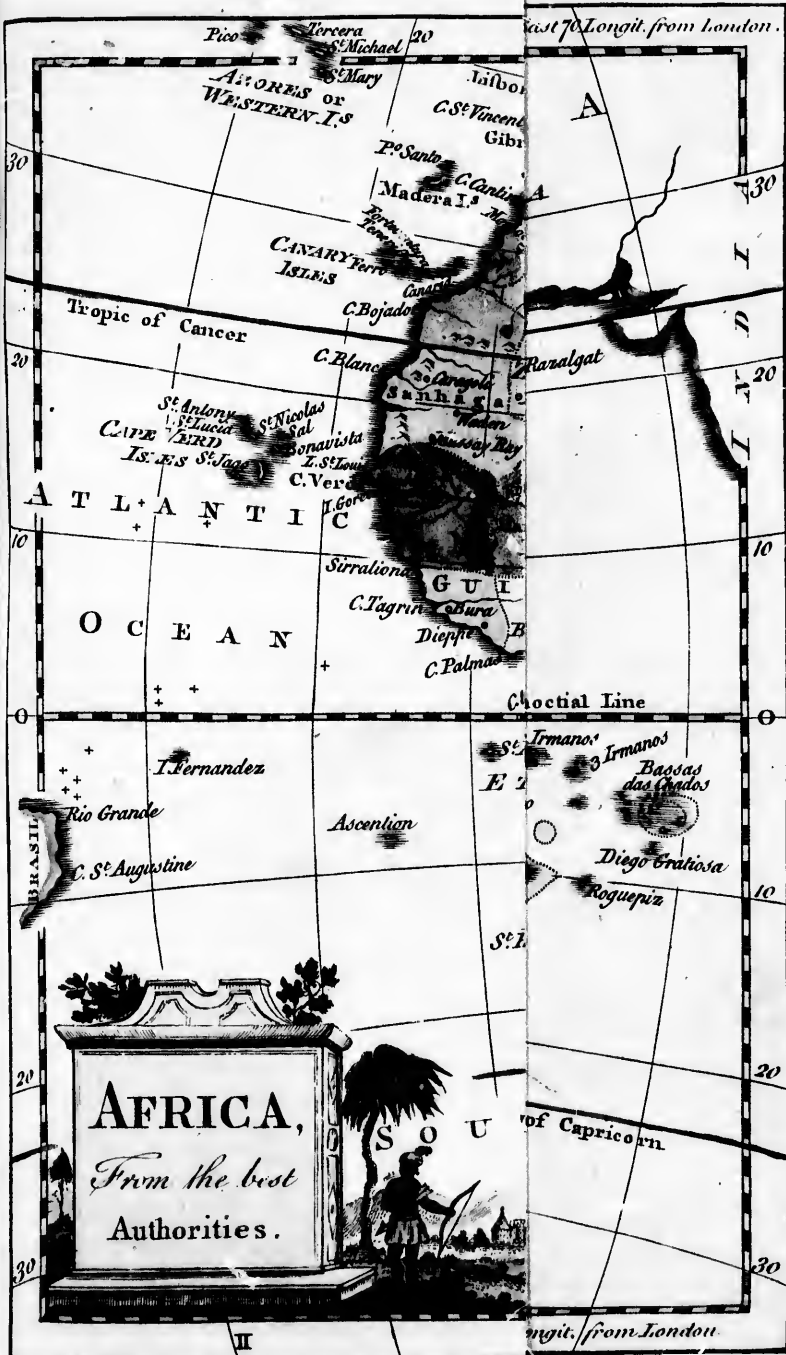
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56 bef.	Mahometans
26 bef.	Mahometans
12 bef.	Mahometans
32 aft.	Pagans
24 aft.	Pagans
38 aft.	Pagans
20 bef.	Pagans
12 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
20 bef.	Christians
36 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
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44 bef.	Chrif. & Pagans
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58 bef.	Pagans
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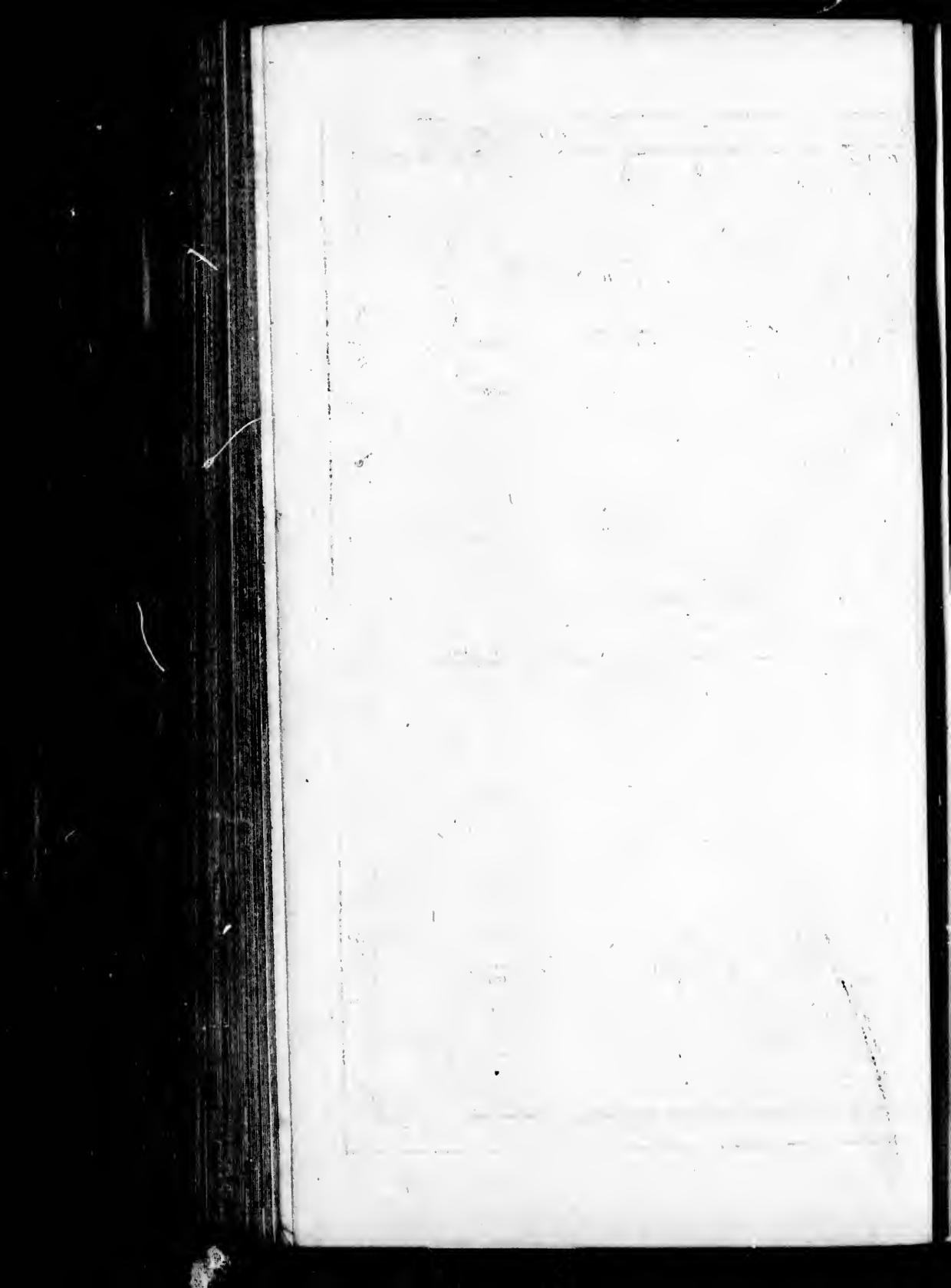


AFRICA,
From the best
Authorities.



T. Kitchin Sculptor.





BOUNDARIES. **I**T 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 Cossiar.

AIR.] In April and May the air is 'hot, and often infectious; the inhabitants are blinded with drifts of sand. Those evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain, (little falling in that country) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall there, viz. the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of a jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkish basha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labouring husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect, which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers, (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds produce two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle, and it is said that the inhabitants employ every day two hundred thousand oxen, in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered 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. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers, and pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprizes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

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 antient 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 AND INHABITANTS.] 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 however to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still very numerous, but the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The descendents of the original Egyptians, are an ill-looking slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are 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. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, I have already mentioned to consist of Arabs or their descendents, who are of a deep, swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them without any 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 cloath 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 the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women

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women is tawdry and unbecoming, but their cloaths 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 those made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is overrun with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling flight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what I have already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their santos 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 Cops, which are here numerous, but they profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed in 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.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the antient Egyptians, yet scarce a vestige of it remains among their descendents. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation which is of general use. The califs who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle upon all kind of literature excepting the Alcoran; 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 upon 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 usefess parts of philosophy, but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, 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 rivetted 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 Arabesque or the Mahometan religion.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most antient 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. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These seem to be but little known to modern times. It is certain that Egypt is subject to the Turks,

Turks, and that even the meanest janisary is respected by the natives. A viceroy is sent to Egypt, under the title of the pasha of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire; but as the interior parts of Egypt are almost inaccessible to strangers, we know little of their government and laws. It is generally agreed, that the pasha is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or rather heads of clans, who have parcelled out Egypt among themselves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one against another. He has however a large regular army, and a militia, which serve as nurseries from whence the Ottoman troops are recruited. The keeping up this army employs his chief attention. It has sometimes happened, that those pashas have employed their arms against their masters; and they are sometimes displaced by the Porte, upon complaints from those petty princes. Those circumstances may account for the reason why Egypt is not over-loaded with taxes. Captain Norden has given us the best, and indeed a very unfavourable account of those petty princes, who are called the Schechs of the Bedouins, or wandering Arabs, who are sometimes too powerful to receive laws from the Turkish government.

A certain number of beys or begs, are appointed over the provinces of Egypt, under the pasha. Though these beys are designed to be checks upon him, yet they often assume independent powers, and many of them have vast revenues.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Captain Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janisaries, and assafs 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 at all appear, that the pasha ever ventures to employ those troops against the Arab or Egyptian princes I have 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.

REVENUES.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of its government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with those than perhaps any other part of the world. 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 five hundred feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point seven hundred 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.

The mummy pits, so called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the antient 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 three thousand years ago. The labyrinth 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 a thousand houses, the intricacies

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of which occasion its name. The lake Meris 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 pyramids 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 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 a hundred and fourteen feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphynx, 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 amount
PUBLIC EDIFICES. } 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 the east. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It lies 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. All the other 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 Nero Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary seaport, 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 Rafchid, lies 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 Dalta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and its 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 circumference. The well called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about three hundred 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

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. 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 peopled 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 a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Bulac; Seyd, on the west bank of the Nile, two hundred miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes, and by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the capital antiquarian curiosity that is now extant. The general practice of strangers, who visit those places, is to hire a janissary, 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. The above is all the account my bounds will admit of the topography of this country, where almost every object and village 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 together.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Modern geographers mention little of Egyptian manufactures at this time, but captain Norden, who travelled to that country, at the expence of his present Danish majesty's grandfather, about the year 1737, has been pretty explicit on the subject of commerce, and from him we learn that the Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, callicoes, yellow wax, sal armoniac, saffron, sugar, fenna, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs, for coffee, drugs, opipices, callicoes, and other merchandizes, 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. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria, some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders. Captain Norden seems to think that the English consul and merchants make no great figure at Alexandria, but that they are in much less danger, and less troubled than the French.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs, sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyfes II. king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of those princes, those wonderful structures the pyramids were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquest

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conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about three hundred years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second calif of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands seven hundred years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of seven hundred thousand volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy, and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is justly questioned; this translation is known by the name of the Septuagint, and is often quoted by commentators. About the time of the cruades, between the year 1150, and 1190, Egypt was governed by Nouraddin, whose son, the famous Saladin, was so dreadful to those Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, under Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the desarts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gipsies. Though I shall not warrant the truth of this account, yet it seems to be countenanced from the roving dispositions, and the peculiar manners, features, and complexion of those swarthy begging itinerants. Of late, however, many of them have incorporated with, and adopted the manners of the people among whom they reside.

 THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I shall rank the countries of Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca.

The empire of Morocco is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea; on the south by Taflet; and on the east by Segelmeffa and the kingdom of Algiers, being five hundred miles in length, and four hundred and eighty in breadth.

Fez is about a hundred and twenty-five 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. It is now united to Morocco.

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 Tafilat. It extends six hundred miles from east to west along the Barbary coast, and is about four hundred in breadth.

Tunis is bounded on the north-east by the Mediterranean sea, and the kingdom of Tripoli; on the south by several tribes of the Arabs, and on the west by the kingdom of Algiers, and the country of Eshy, being four hundred miles in length from east to west, and two hundred and fifty in breadth from north to south.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea; on the south by the country of the Berberies; on the west by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt. It is about eleven hundred miles along the sea-coast, but the breadth is various.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

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, excepting in the months of July and August.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Those states under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world, and to have a residence there was considered as the highest stage 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, thro' 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.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of those 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 knots 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

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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 villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, who take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected, are seldom punished.

It has often been thought surprizing, 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, who pretends to be their lord paramount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in 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 into their desarts and mountains, so that the benefit, resulting from the conquest, must be tedious and precarious.

ANIMALS.] Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros, is to be found in the states of Barbary, but their desarts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed are now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones have been lately imported into England. Their camels and dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrabs, a most serviceable 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. The dubba is a wild beast of the carnivorous kind; bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. The rhaad and killaws, a bird about the size of a large pullet, are birds of Barbary, and are esteemed excellent food. They have likewise the fragary, and the houbaara, the former like a jay, and the latter as large as a capon, of variegated colours. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kind of wild-fowl, are found on this coast, and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the 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 preferred by the antients to those of Europe.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained

contained a hundred thousand houses, whereas at present, it is thought not to contain above twenty-five thousand 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 eighty thousand horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies. The city of Algiers is said to contain a hundred thousand Mahometans, fifteen thousand Jews, and two thousand 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 ten thousand families, and above three thousand tradesmen's shops, and its suburbs consist of a thousand houses. The Tunisines are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilized of the European governments, 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 excessively 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 a wonderful regularity reigns 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 have all the vices of the Algerines. The inhabitants are said to amount to between four and five hundred thousand.

[MANNERS AND DIVERSIONS.] These are pretty much of a piece with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, however, 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 English, and other European states, 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 a hospitable inoffensive people, and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of 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.

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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 a 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, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags; adultery in the woman 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 the sea-faring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of those states are Mahometans: but 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 ideots, 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 those states are called, have adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as authorizes them to commit the most horrible villanies.

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 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 musti 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. Tho' 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 I have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Tho' Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha 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 of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the

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army has a vote in chusing the succeeding dey, and though the election is often attended with blood-shed, 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. 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 pashas. These pashas 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.] I have already mentioned those of Algiers, but they are now said to be exceeded 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 attendants 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 part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan 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 l. a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH } By the best accounts we have received,
 AT SEA AND LAND. } the king of Morocco can bring to the field
 a hundred thousand men, but the strength of his army consists of cavalry
 mounted by his negro slaves. Those 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 Sallee, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about six thousand five hundred foot, consisting of Turks, and coglies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About a thousand of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring two thousand Moorish horse to 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

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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 scarce any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which are 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 infidels not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] This article is well worth the 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 Phenician, Greek, and Roman works, is replete with the most curious remains of antiquity, but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. 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 Utica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so overrun 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 Bagdat, 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.

Before I close this article it may be proper to observe, that this country has been but little visited by the curious, if we except Dr. Shaw; but it certainly deserves a more accurate investigation.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Merooco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. 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 houses of Algiers are computed at fifteen thousand, and their mosques at above a hundred and seven. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country from Algiers is very beautiful; but the city, though fortified, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. 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 town itself 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 inconveniencies 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. Conitantina 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. I cannot, however, leave it without mentioning the city of Fez, at present the capital of that kingdom: some say that it contains near three hundred thousand inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to five hundred, one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee lies in the same kingdom, and was formerly famous for the piracies 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 him and his parliament obliged 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 eight hundred houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, extremely complaisant, and they live in an elegant manner.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, 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.

REVOLUTIONS AND MEMORABLE EVENTS.] There perhaps is no problem in history so unaccountable as the decadence 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 they had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs of Bagdat 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

were unsuccessful; and, as we have 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 called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the califat. 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 traveller that has 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, who are tawny, and profess a mixture of Christianity, Judaism and Paganism, 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. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each governed by its own prince. In Abyssinia indeed, as well as 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, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the negafel a 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.

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 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 Zaaro, 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, Truticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Mchenemugi, 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 make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this miserable quarter of the globe. On the Guinea or western coast, the English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like to 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. 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 Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles abovementioned, but likewise for several others, as fenna, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the southern parts of the continent, in the country called Caffaria, or the land of the Hottentots; 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.

HISTORY.] The history of this continent is little known, and probably affords no materials which deserve to render it more so. We know from the antients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation near 2000 years ago in which they are at present, that is, they had nothing of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by supposing that nature has placed some insuperable barrier between the natives of this division of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being so long accustomed to a savage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became altogether incapable of making any progress in civility or science. It is very certain that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination or even idea of the European manner of life.

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, Babelmandel, Madagascar, 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.

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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-tragant, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the straits 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 South Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage 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 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, is about thirty miles long and fifteen 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 22 and 26 south lat. three hundred miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being near a thousand miles in length from north to south, and generally between two and three hundred miles broad. The sea rolls 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 sail, 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 itated worship, except that they offer sacrifice 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 Jew 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 they are descended of Jews who formerly settled here, though none knows how or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese in 1492, and the French took possession of it in 1642; but the people dis-

liking their government, drove out the French 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. It is thought the French will again attempt to establish themselves here, if the other maritime powers do not interfere.

MAURITIUS. Maurice, or Mauritius, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It is situated in east lon. 56, south lat. 20. It is of an oval form, about a hundred and fifty miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and a hundred 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 seeds, a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in the possession of the French.

BOURBON. The Isle of Bourbon is situated in east lon. 54, south lat. 21, about three hundred miles east of Madagascar, and is about ninety 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 fruit, 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 raisins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort and 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 drove 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 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,

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ST. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situated in west lon. 6-30, south lat. 16, being twelve hundred miles west of the continent of Africa, and eighteen hundred east of South America. The island is a rock about twenty-one 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 Chapel Vally 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, mullins, 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 captain 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 two hundred 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 very seldom see it then.

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 under the 7th degree of south lat. six hundred 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 twenty miles round, and uninhabited; but has a safe convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally couch 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

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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 9 deg. west lon. and 2-30 south lat, three hundred miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserting 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, Anaboa, Princes Island, and Fernando Po, are situated in the gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in the possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by.

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 three hundred miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west lon. and 15 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fago, Mayo, Bonavitta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, 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 a hundred and fifty 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; plenty of roots, garden-stuffs, and they have plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, 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 is 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 of our 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 excessive 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.

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The island of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks out like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

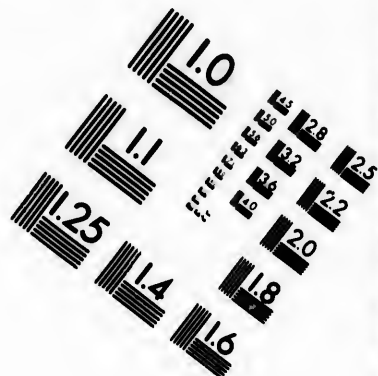
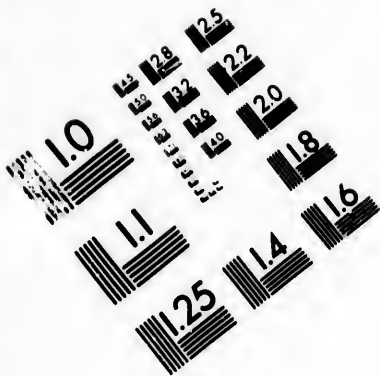
CANARIES. The Canaries, antiently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 deg. west lon. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about a hundred and fifty miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, 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 hogheads annually. The Canaries abound with those little beautiful 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 a hundred and fifty 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 the Grand Canary, is about a hundred and twenty miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak, of which Mr. Glass observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at a hundred and twenty miles distance, and in sailing from it at a hundred and fifty. 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. 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.

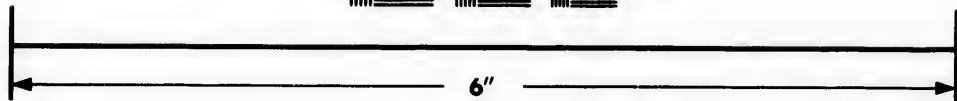
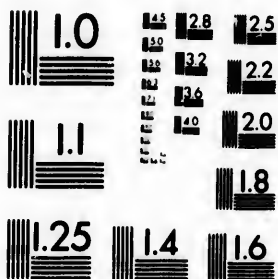
MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madeiras, are situated, according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 west lon. about a hundred miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee, in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattered, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about seventy-five miles long, sixty broad, and a hundred and eighty 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 midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in

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the whole island, which is named Funchial, 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 antients, 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 will, 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 pomegranates; 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 dragons blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweet-meats 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 was carried to the Brazils 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 twenty thousand hogsheds 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 south-west; 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, which are situated between 25 and 32 deg. west lon. and between 37 and 40 north lat. nine hundred miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way 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 by the Portuguese, 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 by the inundations of surrounding waves. They are, however,

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however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruit, also cattle, fowl, and fish.

It is remarkable that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and if carried thither will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near a hundred miles in circumference, and containing fifty thousand inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Terceira is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the south-east winds. 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.

A M E R I C A.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, tho' little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many respects more to that of nature than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and, before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery, as is most necessary for satisfying our readers.

Towards the close of the fourteenth century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalry; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the most valuable in the world, but hitherto intirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown rout, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing at once into the open sea, and of risking the whole at once. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his design the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and

and he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he succeeded through the interest of a woman. This was the celebrated queen Isabella, who raised money upon her jewels to defray the expence of his expedition and to do honour to her sex. Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most striking was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness of the commander, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of thirty-three days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands, but there, to his surprize and sorrow, discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries: and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in that great sea which divides north and south America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. Thus were the West-Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; and fifteen hundred men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine whether the genius of this great man in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserve our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause

ch always animates his only resource, through the interest who raised money and to do honour with a fleet of three taken by man, and were interested. In and with; the most observed, and which led on an unknown forsake him. His men mutiny, threaten their return. But the recovery of land, after motion. Columbus to his surprize and bitants, that these going southward, howing in all the necessary people, and what honourable reception at considerable quantity make the centre of companions, as the procure the necessary

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applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous grounds for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for the establishing of this colony with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned a hundred and sixty in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always uppermost in his memory. In the same voyage Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprize.

By the first success of this great man, the public diligence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the same success, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning into Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward from the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured by a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was an island on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was surprized with an appearance he had never seen before; this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict betwixt the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oronoco. But sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distress of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus

Columbus landed at several places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brazil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which now compose the British empire in North America; and Americus Vesputius, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America, and, being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now imposed on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the first discoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compelled to submit. For such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him, and accomplished the execution of his plan. He died at Valladolid, in 1506. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola, endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were placed; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had above six hundred thousand. Bartholomew de la Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer into the thick of the forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprized and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent: from what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez is dispatched from Cuba with six hundred men, eighteen horses, and a small number of field pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposes to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America: this was the empire of Mexico; rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations, and extended over one half the globe. Never history, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had subsisted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of law

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combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry: it communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance: the warlike animals, on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wasted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched they spared no age or sex, nothing sacred or prophane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states on the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, enter into their alliance, and join armies with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progress discovers a volcano of sulphur and saltpetre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress, without daring to oppose it. This sovereign commanded thirty vassals of whom each could appear at the head of a hundred thousand combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not resist a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only whetted the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is set apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction was concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last a circumstance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he had erected a fort and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, that a Spaniard was killed in the action, that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though at the same time he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it

unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview shewed the superiority of the European address. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather a superstitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect? Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult, excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long while; but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which in a few days occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated so strongly with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Gatimozin, who from the beginning discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to six hundred thousand marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which was distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Gatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high priest, condemned to the same punishment, and making hideous cries, "Do you take me to lay on a bed of roses?" The high priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the Castille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez, and his soldiers, were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near thirty degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence

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ertain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico
itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence, of three pri-
vate persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro,
and Lucques, a priest, and a man of considerable fortune. The two
former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low edu-
cation. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprize, could neither read nor
write. They sailed over into Spain, and without difficulty, obtained a
grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the con-
quest of Peru, with two hundred and fifty foot, sixty horse, and twelve
small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries.
If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices
with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were beside,
a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprize us, after
what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that with this inconsider-
able force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian em-
pire. There were particular circumstances likewise which conspired to
assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history, religion,
and state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be
improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was
one of those uncommon men who, calm and dispassionate themselves,
an observe the passions of their fellow creatures, and turn them to
their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru
were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun.
He pretended therefore to be descended from that luminary, whose wor-
ship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear.
By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous peo-
ple, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction ; a
larger he still subdued by his arms ; but both the force, and the deceit, he
employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilized the
distressed and barbarous people ; he bent them to laws and arts ; he foste-
red them by the institutions of a benevolent religion ; in short, there was
no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously
cultivated, and where the people were of so mild and ingenuous man-
ners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of
Yncas, and revered by the people as descendents of their great God the
Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Ataba-
lipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito,
which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the pos-
session, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country,
and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother named
Huefcar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole
of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the
younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this
account, which after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening
the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huefcar, as a
prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In
this feeble, and disjointed state, was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro
made his arrival. The ominous predictions of religion too, as in most
other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were
recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the
empire, by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded to

the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called Barbarians, but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in conference therefore with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered five thousand of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themselves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion the antient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagra caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external shew of friendship between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous, that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests therefore happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure, arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagra insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause might suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom is paid in without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000 l. sterling, and considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and officers, each private soldier had above 2000 l. English money. With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a number in his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These wise reflections were abundantly verified; it was impossible to send out better recruiting officers, than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and policy,

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policy, which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a sham charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother Huascar had been put to death by his command, and even this was considerably palliated, because Huascar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huascar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa, and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another, their battles accustomed the harmless people to blood, and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and after many difficulties made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained two hundred leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagra two hundred leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagra, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice, and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own, as he judged necessary, penetrated with great danger and difficulty into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced however a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a great distance, they were well nigh successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned, to secure the grand object of their former labours. He raised the siege with infinite slaughter

slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of this city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation however at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their inextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru, might have been attended with success. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still urged on by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter the mountain of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the tract of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country, but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to controul, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty, against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans of old Almagro, declared his son of the same name their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of Charles V. then king of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management the mines of la Plata and Potosi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that De Castro

Castro had not been sufficiently skilled, in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice a council was sent over to controul de Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The parties but just extinguished, began to blaze anew, and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malecontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors, about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened daily, and even went so far as to behead a governor, who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America, men whose character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing only from Castro, by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections: the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself was offered a full indemnity, provided he should return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than submit to an officer of Spain. With those of his partisans therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice to the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American history, which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be handled under these particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions, noticing at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

On the original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy and commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science, and untainted with corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe, and the natives of

America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion however is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterize nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which however was a state of honest independence, and noble simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very sparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which among them is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause perhaps renders their bodies in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, uncommonly straight and well proportioned. Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin, is a reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bear's fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are continually engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. The Indians therefore are in general grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations of Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe, and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuits, which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands, and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the same reason extremely small, when compared with civilised societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number

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number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests. There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with exceeding little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are pretty much equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty therefore is the prevailing passion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far however from despising all sort of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society therefore there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes, which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader, was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to enhance it. His power however is rather persuasive than coercive; he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice, and one act of ill judged violence would pull him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes indeed there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex, to the merit of our contemporaries, that of their fore-fathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. It is age, which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among those persons business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and which may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin, appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined, or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feast on the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their fore-fathers are celebrated. They have dances too, tho' like those of the Greeks and

and Romans, chiefly of the military kind, and this music and dancing accompanies every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends, are deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their most common motive, for entering into war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friends, or to acquire prisoners who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him. For every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages, generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelain, or large shell to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

“ A generous friendship no cold medium knows,
“ But with one love, with one resentment glows.”

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And indeed no people carry their friendships, or their resentment, so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances; that principle in human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force, the more it is restrained. The Americans who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them, without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined, their breasts are too narrow to entertain the sentiments of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel and savage to an incredible degree, towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or of those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered

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Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their cloaths with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship. The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprize; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smook of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, are of small importance, because their enemies are no less acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear, diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place, where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes, and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket bullets on their foes. The party attacked, returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened, as to be incapable of farther resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirits of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon this distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues, death appears in a thousand hideous forms which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance, then the prisoners

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are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village, a messenger is sent to announce their arrival, and the women with frightful shrieks come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased, by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow, to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual, who has injured them, to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person, who has taken the captive, attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he smoaks like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that can in-

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crease the torment. This continues often five or six hours, and some-
times, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they
frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what
new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer,
who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard of torments, often falls
into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake
him and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and
again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small
matches of wood, that easily takes fire but burns slowly; they continually
run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with
pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his
flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body
that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a
manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin
from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on
the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind, and
 staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side
with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at
every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out
of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club
or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous
employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and
transformed into something worse than furies, act their parts, and even
outdo the men in this scene of horror, while the principal persons of the
country sit round the stake, smoaking and looking on without the least
emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little
intervals of his torments, smoaks too, appears unconcerned, and con-
verses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the
whole time of his execution, there seems a contest between him and
them which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he
in enduring them, with a firmness and constancy almost above human:
not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him;
he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts
his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon
their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend
his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect mad-
ness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of
the art of tormenting, pointing out himself more exquisite methods, and
more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this
part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to
behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an
Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early institution, and a fero-
cious thirst of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the savage in the
face of his tormentors, *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures:*
those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is no-
thing to those that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with de-
spair and rage; Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to
the last drop.

I do not dwell upon these circumstances of cruelty, which so degrade
human nature, out of choice; but, as all who mention the customs of
this people have insisted upon their behaviour in this respect very par-
ticularly, and as it seems necessary to give a true idea of their character,
I did not chuse to omit it. It serves to shew likewise, in the strongest
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light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the passions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of polished society, when let loose from the government of reason, and uninfluenced by the dictates of christianity; a religion that teaches compassion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practised in other institutions; and it will make us more sensible than some appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of some of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewise the sting of our natural vices, and softened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the history of mankind forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it: among these all things are common; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting? Has his harvest failed? or is his house burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object; he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed in general is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order, and nothing is omitted that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present, and to join in the solemnity. At this time all who have died since the last solemn occasion, (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others) are taken out of their graves: those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. I cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Laſitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

Without

to what a pitch the refinements of reason, and unites teaches compassion in other institutions; to be, of the value light of literature; natural virtues, by life the sting of our race.

er contrast than this are at war, and the consist of all those it; among these all arise from their not chiefly to be attributed in every thing else, ready to serve their young women, are not succeeded ill in his rned? He feels no m an opportunity to citizens; but to the ately offended, the s, he appears recon- opportunity of ex- sufficient to allay his protect the object; he impracticable forests, several hundreds of fatigue of the expe- nce and cheerfulness, uses the most shock- such extremes do the uch indeed in gene- ds.

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Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoaked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgusting as they are, with every thing loathsome; cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged from the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead, during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolance; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with intire new furs, and over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then taking their last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time have been

fortu-

fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death. A future state therefore is not at all considered among the savages as a place of retribution, as the reward of humble virtue, or as the punishment of prosperous vice. They rather judge of our happiness in the next world by what we have enjoyed in the present.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field, and according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii or spirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the disease, and in what way they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dextrous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

A general Description of A M E R I C A.

THIS great western continent, frequently denominated the new world, extends from the eightieth degree north, to the fifty-sixth degree south latitude; and where its breadth is known, from the thirty-fifth to the hundred and twenty-fifth degree of west longitude from London, stretching between eight and nine thousand miles in length, and in its greatest breadth three thousand nine hundred and sixty. It sees both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Eu-

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ropé and Africa. To the west it has the Pacific, or great South Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other upon the south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a sort of Isthmus fifteen hundred miles long, and in one part at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only sixty miles over. In the great gulph, which is formed between the Isthmus, and the northern and southern continents, lie an infinite multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia, beyond the cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

Before we begin to treat of separate countries in their order, we must according to just method take notice of those mountains and rivers, which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains in the world. The Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the Isthmus of Darien, to the straits of Magellan, they divide the whole southern parts of America, and run a length of four thousand three hundred miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents, or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those near the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of our settlements, separating our colonies from Canada and Louisiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Alegeney mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain, which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America, such is the wisdom and goodness of the Creator of the universe, those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the gulph of Mexico, after a course of near three thousand miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Misfaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers scarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Lawrence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantages, whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited, and by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America, which makes a part of the British empire, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehana, and Patowmach, supplies several

several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation; hence many parts of our settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that our planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies much the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazonas, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The first rising in Peru, not far from the South Sea, passes from west to east, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than three thousand miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata, rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented, by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoquo is the most considerable.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and silver of America has supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which by being brought into Europe, have also contributed to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of South America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, sultick, pimento, lignum vitae, rice, ginger, cacao, or the chocolate nut, sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and China, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuit's bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicats, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots and plants; and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection, as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by four European nations, the Spaniards, English, Portuguese and French. The Spaniards, who, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the streights of Magellan in the south sea, except-

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ing the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though
the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they
scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern
continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America is Great
Britain, who derives her claim to North America, from the first disco-
very of that continent, by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII.
anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Co-
lumbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in gene-
ral called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to
an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made any at-
tempt to settle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius,
and a brave commander, first shewed the way by planting a colony in the
southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress queen
Elizabeth.

From this period till the conclusion of the late war, the French laid
a claim to, and actually possessed, Louisiana, and Canada, comprehending
all that extensive country, reaching from New Mexico, and the
gulph of the same name on the south, to Hudson's Bay on the north.
Not contented with the possession of these vast regions, they continued
in a state of hostility, making gradual advances upon the back of our
settlements, and rendering their acquisitions more secure and permanent
by a chain of forts, well supplied with all the implements of war. At the
same time they laboured incessantly to gain the friendship of the Indians,
whom they not only trained to the use of arms, but infused into these sa-
vages, the most unfavourable notion of the English, and the strength of
their nation. The British colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a
strip of land along the sea-coast, by an ambitious and powerful nation,
the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began to take the
alarm. The British empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened
with a total dissolution. The colonies, in their distress, called out aloud
to the mother country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England,
were sent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well ap-
pointed, and commanded by the bravest generals, that ever crossed the
Atlantic. A long war succeeded, which ended gloriously for Great Bri-
tain; for after oceans of blood were spilt, and every inch of ground
bravely disputed, the French were not only driven from Canada, and its
dependencies, but obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana, lying
on the east side of the Mississippi. Thus at an immense expence, and
with the loss of many brave men, our colonies were preserved, secured,
and extended so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise
bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and western
sides; for to the northward, it should seem that we might extend our
claims quite to the pole itself, nor does any nation seem inclined to dis-
pute the property of this northernmost country with us. If we should
choose to take our stand upon the northern extremity, and look towards
the south, we have a territory extending in that aspect, from the pole
to the twenty-fifth degree north latitude, and consequently near 4000
miles long in a direct line. But to the westward our boundaries reach to
nations unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. If we might
hazard a conjecture, it is nearly equal to the extent of all Europe. This
extensive and valuable country is all the way washed by the Atlantic ocean
on the east, and on the south by the gulph of Mexico.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents North and South America, are divided amongst the Spaniards, English and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence: and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning according to our method, with the North.

The grand Divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Belong to.
British Colonies	Extending from the north pole, to cape Florida, in the gulph of Mexico, lat. 25, upwards of 3000 miles of habitable country, but the breadth is uncertain.		Boston.	2760 W.	4 40 aft.	
Louisiana	Bounds undetermin.		Fort Louis.	4080 S. W.	6 4 aft.	France
New Mexico & California	2000	1600	St. Fee.	4320 S. W.	7 0 aft.	Spain
			St. Juan.			Spain
Mexico or New Spain	2000	600	Mexico.	4900 S. W.	6 50 aft.	Spain

OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Belong to.
Terra Firma	1400	700	Panama	4650 W.	5 28 aft.	Spain
Peru	2000	500	Lima	5520 S. W.	5 4 aft.	Spain
Amazonia a very large country, but little known to the Europeans,						1200 L. 960 B.
Guiana	780	480	Surinam or Cayenne	3840 S. W.	3 44 aft.	Dutch
Brazil	2500	700	St. Salvador	6000 S. W.	3 44 aft.	Portugal
Paraguay or Laplata	1500	1000	Allumption	5640 S. W.	3 52 aft.	Spain &
Chili	1200	600	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	5 6 aft.	Spain
Terra Magellani- ca, or Patagonia.	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth settling there. 700 L. 300 B.					

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

NEW Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen seas, about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean on the east; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the south; and by unknown lands on the west.

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	7 0 aft.	Spain
	6 50 aft.	Spain

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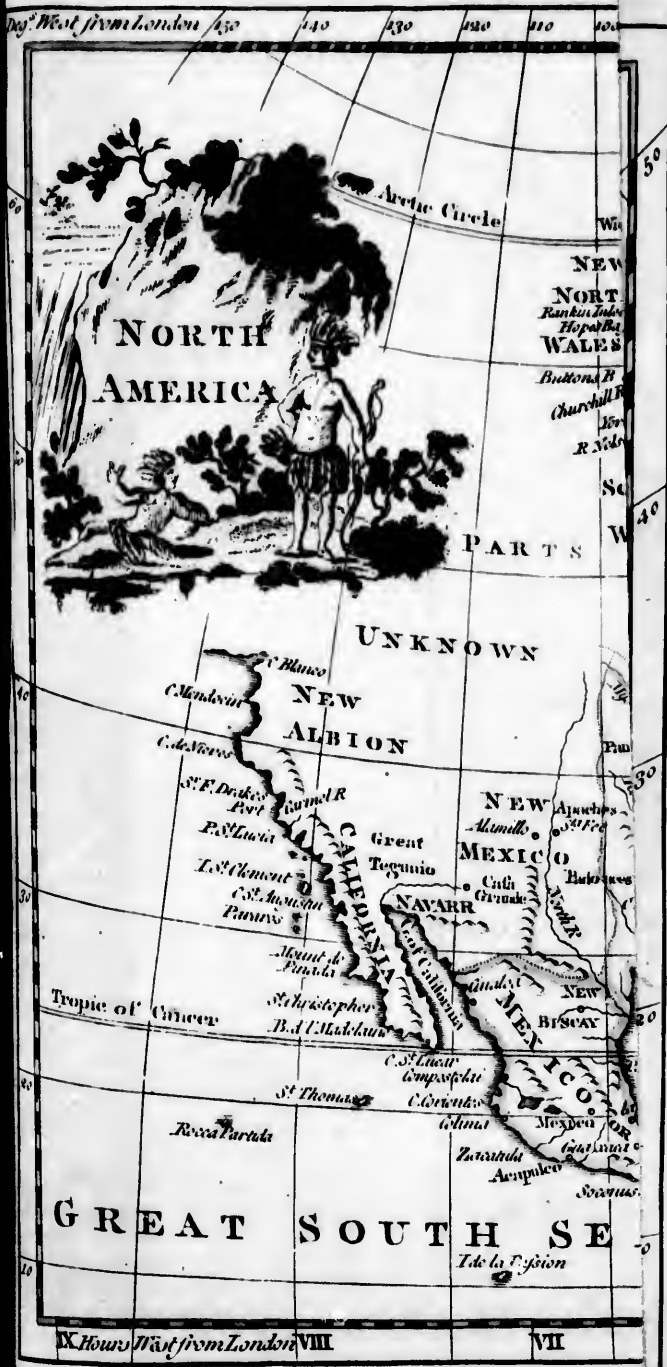
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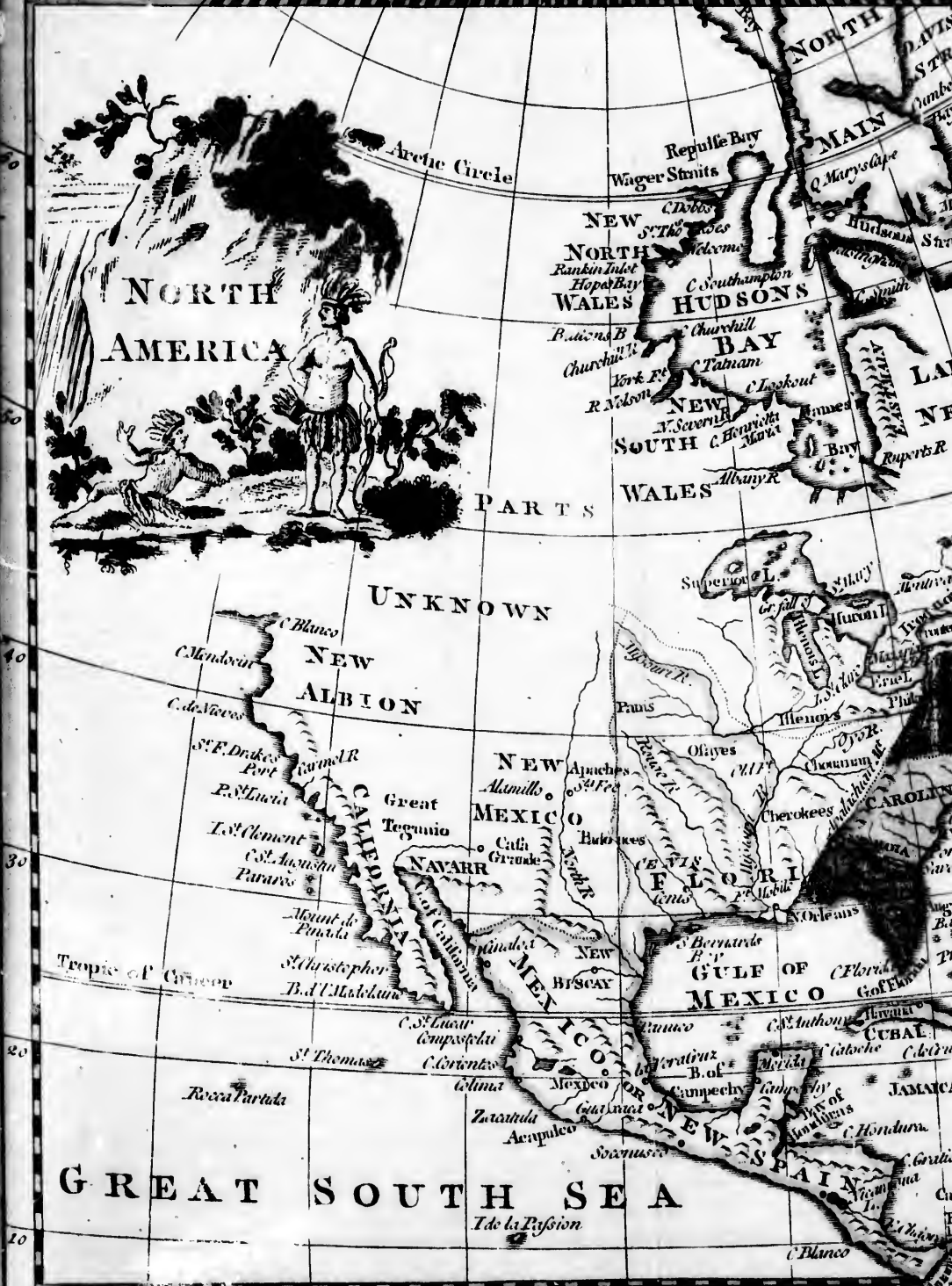
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Louisbourg
Cape Royal

NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
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CAROLINA
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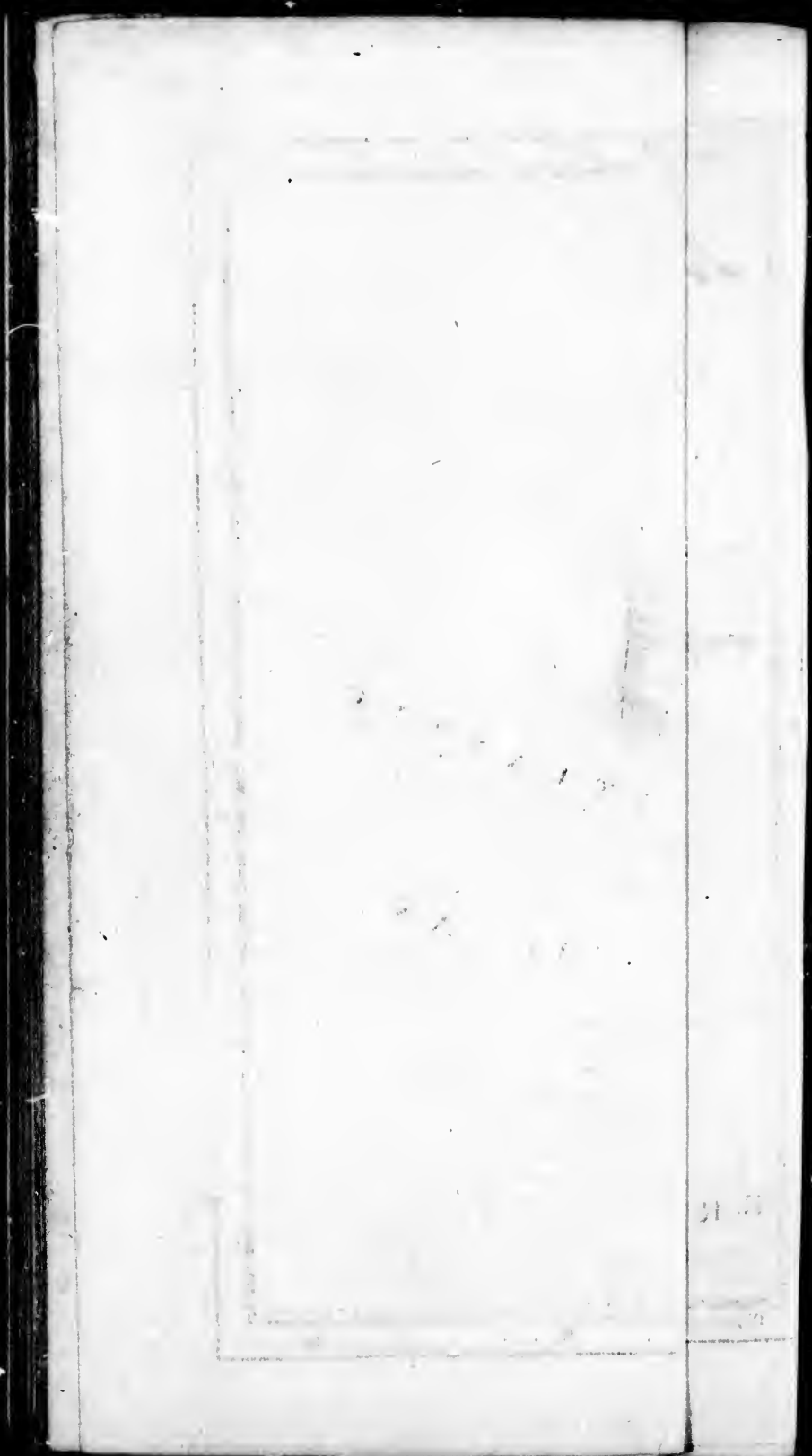
BAHAMAS ISLANDS
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JAMAICA
Hispaniola
Leeward Islands
Windward Islands

NORTH SEA
TERRA FIRMA

ATLANTIC
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VI V IV III



MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being eternally covered with snow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasions a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS AND CAPES.] These are numerous in this country, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders, by whom they were first discovered; the principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davies and Bellisle.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto perished; but, in all probability, we have not tried the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in such cases, the place from whence the seed comes is of great moment. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose deer, stags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morfes, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers, and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares.

All the animals of these countries, are cloathed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; when that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprizing phenomenon. But what is yet more surprizing, and what is indeed one of the most striking things, that draw the most inattentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

As we are now beginning to treat of America, it may be proper to observe in general, that all the quadrupedes of this new world, are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage, which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor

nor properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals, as are there found most to resemble those of the antient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the tazquaretti among them, are despicable in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to measure twelve feet in length, without including the tail, while the congar, or American tyger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the southern parts of America, are different from those in the southern parts of the antient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those, which being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rain-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the antient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, imported from Europe to southern America, in a few generations becomes much less, but then it also becomes more prolific, and instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity, with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man, would soon be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country shew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in cloathing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them, for the greatest part of the year; in other respects they are very savage. In their shapes and faces, they do not resemble the Americans, who live to the southward; they are much more like the Laplanders and Samoeids of Europe already described, from whom they are probably descended. The other Americans seem to be of a Tartar original.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries, was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China, and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet compleated. Forbisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John David sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared in

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in the beginning of 1611 to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the Icy seas, in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages, but the ship, and the rest of the men, returned home.

The last attempt towards a discovery was made in 1746 by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as fifty-seven degrees and a half, but though the adventurers failed in the original purpose, for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to the private men, who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interest, not to say iniquitous spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and 130 seamen. They have four forts, viz. Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by a hundred and eighty-six men. They export commodities to the value of 16,000 l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340 l. which yield to the revenue 3,734 l. This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent, of which we have the greatest plenty, and which in the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship too happen to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. These circumstances tend to prove incontestibly the immense benefit, that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since even in its present restrained state it is so advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade so advantageous now, as it was before we got possession of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Great Britain has no settlement here, though the annual produce of the fishery, amounting to upward of 40,000 l. and the natural advantages of the country should encourage us to set about this design.

C A N A D A.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

THE French comprehended the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England,

land, and New York; to the west, as far as the Pacific ocean, and to the southward, extending it to the gulph of Mexico. The country, now denominated Canada, and which is formed into a British province (see the royal proclamation) is about five hundred miles long, from the north-east to the south-west, and upwards of two hundred in breadth. It is bounded on the north by New Britain; on the east, by New Scotland, New England, and New York; on the south by the Apalachian, or Cherokee mountains, and on the west by lands inhabited by the Indians. Quebec, which is its capital, is seated near the centre, in north latitude forty-six degrees, forty-five minutes, and in sixty-nine degrees, forty-eight west longitude.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this extensive province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above, but as it is much further from the sea, and more northerly than a great part of these provinces, it has a much severer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like most of those American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot and exceeding pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, and other rivers are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada, stretching a considerable way upon the back of our other settlements, contains almost all the different species of wood, and animals, that are found in these colonies, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them here at some length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America, contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing, produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called Aiaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire; and the hop-plant.

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METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found, though we have not heard any great advantage made of it as yet. This country also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and taking its course north-east, washes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of four hundred miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels, and below Quebec, three hundred and twenty miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep that ships of the line contributed, in the last war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at cape Rosieres, where it is ninety miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence, is that only upon which the French (now subjects of Great Britain) have settlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water, which these countries environ. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than two hundred leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oswego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than three hundred, as is that of Michigan, tho' like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is five hundred leagues in the circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario, is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon: When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great an height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing white as snow, being all converted into foam, through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of fifteen miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smok, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun, and the position of the traveller, favours. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below, and sometimes the Indians, through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes; by this they discharge

discharge themselves into the ocean. The French have built forts at the several straits, by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicate with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been describing. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martens, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader, resembling their own sachem or prince. It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to shew the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw-colour; but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are cloathed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver, (weighing about five or six pounds) which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling-sickness, are ascribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its flesh is very agreeable

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and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no grass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his cloths to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it several times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said, that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist his strong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make use of are hardly penetrable by a musket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but differs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country: their flesh is white, and good to eat; and they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common: and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon, and devour them. The Canadian poll-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying-squirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively, except when asleep, which is often the case; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's sleeve, pocket, or muff; he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among twenty persons. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, and it is then somewhat dangerous to meet them. Scarce any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, ter-cols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan; and make a very beautiful appearance; woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water-game, are plentiful,

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A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian woodpecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very shewy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chaffer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake only deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring, or row of scales; so that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horse by his teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise from which it has its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaister to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers: nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good.

Some writers are of opinion that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Lawrence contains perhaps the greatest variety of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaife salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourasou, sturgeon, the achigau, the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, makarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Lawrence are said to yield a hoghead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are excessive strong, and musket proof. The lencornet is a kind of kuttle fish, quite round, or rather oval: there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hoghead, and others but a foot long: they catch only the last, and that with a torch: they are excellent

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cellent eating. The guberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaife is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourafou is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; but is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger: its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation, which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds, raised perpendicularly, above the surface of the water: the fowls, which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it, but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens his throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, taken on the coasts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St. Lawrence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the Nile.

[INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Lawrence, above Quebec, were vastly populous, but we cannot precisely determine the number of French and English settled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increase. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, in which they are excessively fond. But as liberty is the ruling passion of the Indians, we may naturally suppose that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more distant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, in the little river, about three hundred and twenty miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants are computed at twelve or fifteen thousand. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised twenty-five feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about a hundred and seventy miles, in sailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, shew themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well settled parts of Virginia

ginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richlieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood in the summer months.

The town called *Trois Rivières*, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the St. Lawrence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who by means of these rivers, resort hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country here is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides the rivers.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner, and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill on the side of which the town stands, falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch, and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English it hath suffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities are entitled to all their former rights and privileges. The Roman-catholic is still to continue the established religion; but the king of Great-Britain succeeds to all the power and prerogatives of which the French king was possessed. Canada is now divided into three governments, viz. Quebec, Montreal, and *Trois Rivières*.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] By expelling the French from the back of our settlements, we secured them from the danger of being molested or attacked by an active and formidable enemy, and enabled our people to attend, with proper spirit and industry, to agriculture, and the improvement of that country. While the important conquest of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North America, it put us in the sole possession of the fur and peltry trade, the use and importance of which is well known to the manufacturers of Great Britain, and enabled us to extend the scale of a general commerce.

The nature of the climate, severely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, shews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, brandy, cloths, chiefly coarse, linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires brandy, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets,

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French from the back- ger of being molested and enabled our people iculture, and the im- t conquest of Canada erica, it put us in the use and importance of t Britain, and enables

inter, and the people pally wants from Eu- n, and wrought iron- ort of duffil blankets, guns,

guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and amongst nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were there- by habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of a thousand miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion, many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governor assisted, to preserve order, in such a concourse, and so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being so fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all they were possessed of. It is remarkable, that many of these nations, actually passed by our settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled two hundred miles further to Montreal, though they might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of these savages!

Since we became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country employs thirty-four ships, and four hundred seamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, cappillaire and wheat, amount to 105,500 l. Their imports from Great-Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the same sum. It is unnecessary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, indispensibly necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange, the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other settlements in the East and West Indies.

But with all our attention to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be impossible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural causes; I mean the severity of the winter, which is so excessive from December to April, that the greatest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly two or three feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country, which lie three degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Lawrence, below Montreal, which prevents sea vessels from penetrating to that emporium of inland commerce. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during the winter-season, until roads are formed, that can be travelled with safety from the Indians. For it may here be observed, that these savage people often commence hostilities against us, without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, they commit the most horrid ravages for a long time with impunity. But when at last their barbarities have roused the strength of our people, they are not ashamed to beg a peace; they know we always grant it readily; they promise it shall endure as long as the sun and moon; and then all is quiet till some incident, too often co-operating with ill usage received from our traders, gives them a fresh opportunity of renewing their cruelties.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NEW SCOTLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{ 60 and 69 }	{ W. Lon. }	} Being {	500 miles in length.
Between	{ 43 and 49 }	{ N. Lat. }		
				400 miles in breadth.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the river St. Lawrence on the north; by the bay of St. Lawrence, and the Atlantic ocean, east; by the same ocean, south; and by Canada and New England, west.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Lawrence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Rigouche and Nipisiguit run from west to east, and fall into the bay of St. Lawrence. The rivers of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north to south, fall into Fundy bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

SEAS, BAYS AND CAPES.] The seas adjoining to it are, the bay of St. Lawrence, the Atlantic ocean, and Fundy bay. The lesser bays are Chenigto and Green bay upon the Isthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the south; and the bays of Gaspé and Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibucto on the south-east; the bay of the islands. The ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Rysignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the south; port La Tour, on the south-east; port St. Mary Annapolis, and Minas on the south side of Fundy bay.

The chief capes are, Rasse and Gaspé on the north-east. The capes Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, cape Port and Epis, on the east. Cape Fogeri, and cape Canceau, on the south-east. Cape Blanco, cape Vert, cape Theodore, cape Dore, cape La Heve, and cape Negro, on the south. Cape Sable, and cape Bourche, on the south-west.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this vast country, though within the temperate zone, has been found extremely unfavourable to European constitutions. For seven months it is intolerably cold, and then, without any intermediate spring, the heat becomes as insupportable as the cold was before, and they are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog, during great part of the year. Such a sudden alteration must be particularly noxious to the human frame; and this country accordingly was, and still is, thinner of inhabitants, than most other places of North America.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. New Scotland is almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, has hitherto made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England, and in general the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and

flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship building, and produces pitch and tar.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beaver and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland, is the cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS AND COMMERCE. } Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made.

The first grant of lands in it were given by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it had its name. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English, till the peace of Utrecht, and their design in acquiring it, does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, three thousand families were transported in 1743, at the charge of the government, into this country.

The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. The town of Halifax stands upon Chebucto bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery, and to see that the articles of the late peace, relating thereto, are duly observed by the French. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber: Three regiments of men are stationed in it to protect the inhabitants from the Indians, whose resentment, however excited or fomented, has been found implacable against the English. The number of inhabitants is said to be ten or twelve thousand, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval stores, by their fisheries, and its being the residence of the governor, and the garrison already mentioned. The other towns of less note are Anapolis, which stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and though but a small wretched place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. This place is also protected by a fort and garrison. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the west side.

The exports from Great Britain to this country, consist chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, is about 26,500*l*. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at the like average, amounts to 38,000*l*. But as we have already observed, the negative advantage of this colony, by which our enemies, while it

remains in our hands, are prevented from doing harm to our other settlements, have principally engaged the British ministry, to expend such sums, and to take such pains in supporting it.

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	69	and	{	W. Lon.	}	} Being	{	300 miles in length.
		73							
Between	{	41	and	{	N. Lat.	}		{	200 miles in breadth.
		46							

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north-east by New Scotland; on the west by Canada; on the south by New York; and on the east by the Atlantic.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns
The north division, or government	{ New Hampshire — }	{ Portsmouth.
The middle division	{ Massachuset's Colony }	{ Boston, W. Lon. 71, N. Lat. 42.
The south division	Rhode Island, &c.	Newport.
The west division	{ Connecticut — }	{ London. Hertford.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piscataway; 6. Saco; 7. Casco; 8. Kinebeque; and, 9. Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are, those formed by Plymouth, Rhode island, and Providence plantations; Monument bay; West harbour, formed by the bending of cape Cod; Boston harbour; Piscataway, and Casco bay.

The chief capes are, cape Cod, Marble Head, cape Anne, cape Notch, cape Porpus, cape Elizabeth, and cape Small Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though situated almost ten degrees nearer the sun, than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The summer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boisterous in the winter season, and naturalists ascribe the early approach, the length and severity of the winter, to the large fresh water lakes lying to the north-west of New England, which being frozen over several months, occasion those piercing winds, which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

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The sun rises at Boston, on the longest day, at twenty-six minutes after four in the morning, and sets at 34 minutes after seven in the evening; and on their shortest day, it rises at thirty-five minutes after seven in the morning, and sets at twenty-seven minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours, and the shortest about nine.

[SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America, are low, and in some parts swampy, but further back they rise into hills. In New England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best as you approach the southward. Round Massachusetts the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and pasture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is an hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower sort of people. They likewise malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the greater part is made of molasses, hopped; with the addition sometimes of the tops of the spruce fir infused. They likewise raise in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Even or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cyder in one season.

But New England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, sassafras, samach, and other woods used in dying or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ship building. The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and furnish the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces hemp and flax: a ship may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their forest, and the ship building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

[MINERALS.] Rich iron mines, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, and, if improved, in a short time may supply Great Britain, without having recourse to Sweden, and other European nations for that commodity; especially as the parliament, to encourage the undertaking, allows both pig and bar iron to be imported duty-free.

[ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. Their sheep are very numerous; but the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not near so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, fish, martens; racoons; sables, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds, some of which are imported into Great Britain as foreign curiosities. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neigh-

bouring countries, is the moose or moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together; and the large black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, blackbirds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come in at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are, rattle-snakes, frogs and toads, which swarm in the uncultivated parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds, such as the whale-bone whale, the spermaceti-whale, which yields ambergrease, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland. A terrible creature, called the Whale Killer, from twenty to thirty feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas; but afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod, in winter, which they dry in the frost.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND } There is not one of our set-
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } tlements which can be com-
pared, in the abundance of people, the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The most populous and flourishing parts of the mother country, hardly make a better appearance, than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about sixty miles back. There are here many gentlemen of considerable landed estates, but the greatest part of the people is composed of a substantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependance upon any but Providence, and their own industry. These freeholds generally pass to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being almost ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary sort so independent, or possess more of the conveniences of life; they are used from their infancy, to the exercise of arms; and they have a militia, which for a militia is by no means contemptible. It is judged, that the four provinces which it comprizes, contain above three hundred and fifty thousand souls, including a very small number of blacks and Indians. Douglass, who seems to be well informed in this point, proportions

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Maffachufet's bay	—————	200,000
Connecticut	—————	100,000
Rhode ifland	—————	30,000
New Hampshire	—————	24,000

RELIGION.] Before the year 1740, the province of Maffachufet's bay contained above a hundred English congregations, besides thirty assemblies of Indian Christians; but of all these congregations, not above three or four observed the forms of the church of England. Every particular society among them, is independant of all other ecclesiastical jurisdiction; nor does there lie any appeal from their punishments or censures. The ministers of Boston depend entirely on the generosity of their hearers for support; a voluntary contribution being made for them, by the congregation, every time divine service is celebrated. It is not long since they suffered any member of the church of England to have a share in the magistracy, or to be elected a member of the Commons, or House of Representatives. Their laws against quakers seem to be very severe. To bring one in is a forfeiture of 100 l. to conceal one 40 s. an hour; to go to a quaker's meeting 10 s. to preach there 5 s. If a quaker be not an inhabitant, he is subject to banishment, and if he returns, death.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston, the capital of New England, and of all the British empire in America, stands on a peninsula at the bottom of Maffachufet's bay, about eight miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are several rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen small islands, some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel to approach the harbour, and that so narrow, that two ships can scarcely sail thro' abreast, but within the harbour there is room for five hundred sail to lie in anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the islands of the bay, stands Fort William, one of the finest pieces of military architecture, and the most regular fortress in the British plantations. This castle is defended by a hundred guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, so that it is scarce possible for an enemy to pass the castle. To prevent surprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues distance, from whence they make signals to the castle, when any ships come near it. There is also a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near two thousand feet in length; along which, on the north side, extends a row of warehouses for the merchants, and to this pier ships of the greatest burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour, in the shape of a half moon; the country beyond it rising gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea. The head of the pier joins the principal street of the town, which is, like most of the others, spacious and well built. Boston is said to contain near thirty thousand inhabitants, and the shipping of this port was some years ago computed at upwards of six hundred sail.

Cambridge, in the same province, six miles from Boston, has an university, containing two spacious colleges, called by the names of Haverford college, and Stoughton Hall, with a well furnished library. It consists of a president, five fellows, and a treasurer, and has the power

of creating doctors of divinity, by virtue of a charter, from king William and Mary.

The other towns in New England, too numerous to be particularly mentioned here, are generally neat, well built, and commodiously situated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The trade of New England is great, as it supplies a large quantity of goods from within itself; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and the West Indies, and even for some parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields, are principally pig and bar iron, which is imported to Great Britain duty-free. Masts and yards, for which they contract largely with the royal navy; pitch, tar and turpentine; staves, lumber, boards; all sorts of provisions, which they send to the French and Dutch sugar islands, and to Barbadoes, and the other British isles, as grain, biscuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheese, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod fish dried. They likewise send thither cattle, horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe staves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf skins and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very considerable. They have a most valuable fishery upon their coasts, in mackarel and cod, which employs vast numbers of their people, with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and West-Indies, to a considerable amount. Their whale fishery has been already mentioned. The arts most necessary to subsistence are those, which the inhabitants of New England have been at pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarse linen and woollen cloth for their own use; hats are made here, which in a clandestine way, find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar baking, distilling, paper making, and salt works, are upon the improving hand. The business of ship-building is one of the most considerable, which Boston, or the other sea port towns in New England carry on. Ships are sometimes built here upon commission; but frequently, the merchants of New England have them constructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval stores, fish, and fish oil principally, they send them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having disposed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until such time as they can sell the vessel herself to advantage, which they seldom fail to do in a reasonable time.

It was computed, that before the late unhappy differences arose, the amount of English manufactures, and India goods sent into this colony from Great Britain, was not less at an average of three years, than 395,000*l*. Our imports from the same were calculated at 370,500*l*.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New England is at present divided into the four provinces of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, king James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north east coast of America was sometime called. No settlements, however, were made in New England, by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast. This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1621. By this time the religious dissen-

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tions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and fu-
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severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the
rigour of persecution, rather than depart from their favourite tenets, and
conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they consid-
ered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of
the world into which they would not fly, rather than be compelled to adopt
the practices which prevailed in their native country, and as they ima-
gined endangered the eternal salvation of all who adhered to them. Ame-
rica opened an extensive field. There they might transport themselves,
and establish whatever sort of religious policy they were inclined to. The
design, besides, had something in it noble, and admirably suited to the
enterprising spirit of innovators in religion. With this view, having
purchased the territory, which was within the jurisdiction of the Ply-
mouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of
settling it in whatever way they had a mind, a hundred and fifty persons
embarked for New England, and built a city, which, because they had
sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the
severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the diseases
to which, after a long sea voyage, and in a country, which was new to
them, they were expoied; notwithstanding the want of all sort of conveni-
ences, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitu-
tions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death
of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Eng-
lishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of
the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this ungrateful country, and
to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New
adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themselves for the
same reasons, uneasy at home, passed over into this land of religious and
civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns,
Salem, Dorchester, Charles Town, and Boston, which has since become
the capital of New England. But as necessity is the natural source of
that active and frugal industry, which produces every thing great among
mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success, occasions
those dissensions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert
the best founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from persecution, be-
came in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were
eager to introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their
territories. The minds of men were not in this age superior to many
prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking, which
at present distinguishes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of
universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America,
began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opposers.
In all persuasions the bigots are persecutors; the men of a cool and rea-
sonable piety are favourers of toleration; because the former sort of men,
not taking the pains to be acquainted with the grounds of their adver-
saries tenets, conceive them to be so absurd and monstrous, that no man
of sense can give into them in good earnest. For which reason they are
convinced, that some oblique bad motive induces them to pretend to
the belief of such doctrines, and to the maintaining of them with ob-
stinacy. This is a very general principle in all religious differences,

and it is the corner stone of all persecution. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same society, without maintaining the same religious opinions, and wherever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New England, by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread over the country. Such was that of New Hampshire, which continues to this day a separate jurisdiction; such too was that of Rhode Island, whose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachusetts colony (for that is the name by which the government first erected in New England was distinguished) for supporting the freedom of religious sentiment, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and such is the connection between justness of sentiment, and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, is extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main resource of all discontented and enterprising spirits, and such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637 a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express license from the government. For want of this license, it is said, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New England, after being a-shipboard for that purpose.

These four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at first, and still continue under separate jurisdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free, and in a great measure independant of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly, and the power of making such laws, as they thought proper, without sending them to Great Britain, for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be opposite to those of Great-Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. the Massachusetts colony was accused of violating their charter, and by a judgment in the king's bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privilege of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, is vested in the crown; the power of the militia, is wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law is entrusted, are nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor has a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory, and unlimited; and he is not obliged to give a reason for what he does in this particular, or refrained to any number; authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, are to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony are not repealed within

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three years after they are presented, they are not repealable by the crown after that time; that no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, are valid, without the governor's consent in writing, and appeals for sums above 300l. are admitted to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, the people have still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only choose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, choose the council, resembling our House of Lords, and the governor depends upon the assembly for his annual support; which has sometimes tempted the governor of this province to give up the prerogatives of the crown, and the interests of Great Britain.

To the Massachusetts government is united the antient colony of Plymouth, and the territory called Main.

By the laws of this province no person can be arrested, if there are any means of satisfaction: nor imprisoned, unless there be a concealment of effects. Adultery is death to both parties.

New Hampshire is still more under the influence of Great Britain. The council itself is appointed by the crown, and in other respects it agrees with the former.

The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island, have preserved their antient charters, and enjoy the same privileges which the Massachusetts had formerly.

There were originally three sorts of governments established by the English on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments.

A royal government is properly so called, because the colony is immediately dependent on the crown; and the king remains sovereign of the colony; he appoints the governor, council, and officers of state, and the people only elect the representatives, as in England; such are the governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, Virginia, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, and both Carolinas, Georgia, East and West Florida, the West India islands, and that of St. John's.

A charter government is so called, because the company, incorporated by the king's charter, were in a manner vested with sovereign authority, to establish what sort of government they thought fit; and these charter governments have generally transferred their authority to the people; for in such governments, or rather corporations, the freemen do not only choose their representatives, but annually choose their governor, council and magistrates, and make laws, without the concurrence, and even without the knowledge of the king; and are under no other restraint than this, that they enact no laws contrary to the laws of England; if they do, their charters are liable to be forfeited. Such, as we have already observed, are the governments of Rhode Island, and Connecticut, in New England, and such was that of the Massachusetts formerly, but it appears now to be a mixture of both. Such likewise was the two Carolinas.

The third kind of government is the proprietary, properly so called, because the proprietor is invested with sovereign authority: he appoints the governor, council, and magistrates, and the representatives are summoned in his name, and by their advice he enacts laws, without the concurrence of the crown; but, by a late statute, the proprietor must have the king's consent in the appointing a governor, when he does not reside

reside in the plantation in person, and of a deputy governor, when he does. And all the governors of the plantations are liable to be called to an account for their administration, by the court of King's Bench. The only proprietary governments now remaining, are those of Pennsylvania and Maryland.

NEW YORK WITH THE JERSEYS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	72	}	W. Lon.	}	Being	{	200 miles in length.
		and						
		76						
Between	{	41	}	N. Lat.	}		{	100 miles in breadth.
		and						
		44						

BOUNDARIES.] NEW York is bounded on the south-west by Hudfon's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from the Jerseys, and Pennsylvania; on the east and north-east by New England; and on the north-west by Canada.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
East Division	{ New York	{ Perth Amboy. New York, W. Lon. 72-30. N. Lat. 42.
West Division	{ The Jerseys	{ Burlington. Elizabeth.
South Division	{ Long Island, and the rest of the Islands near Hudfon's river	{ Southampton.

RIVERS.] The principal of these in New-York are the rivers of Hudfon and Mohawk; on the former are many excellent harbours. In the Jerseys there are no remarkable rivers, which extend far into the country.

CAVES.] The capes are those of cape Mary, on the east entrance of De la War river; Sandy Point, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montang Point, at the east end of Long Island.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] These countries, lying to the south of New England, enjoy a more happy temperature of climate. The face of the country, resembling that of our other colonies in America, is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea; as you recede from that element, you are entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil of both is extremely fertile. It has all the advantages of that of New England, and is besides much more favourable to the growth of European plants and grains, which are here in great abundance and perfection. In New York a great deal of iron is found, and a rich copper mine has been opened in New Jersey,

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New York, W. Lon.

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Burlington.

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HISTORY

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, } The Swedes and Dutch
CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } were the first Europeans

who formed settlements towards these provinces. The tract claimed by the two nations, extended from the thirty-eighth to the forty-first degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands to the time of Charles II. and was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda in 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession before they were divided into different provinces. New York was so called, because it was at first granted to the duke of that name. New Jersey was granted to Sir George Carteret and others; and received its present name, because Sir George had, as the family still have, estates in the islands of Jersey. It was divided into two provinces, viz. the East and West Jerseys; and possessed, as we have said, by different proprietors; but in the year 1702, these proprietors made an assignment of their rights to the crown. Soon after this the Jerseys were united to New York, and at present form one government with it; which from their dependence on the crown of Great Britain is called a Royal Government. The church of England is established here, and in all the royal governments in British America, but all modes of Christianity, not detrimental to society, are tolerated.

The commerce of these countries does not materially differ from that of New England. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the inhabitants of New England use; and they have a share in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They take almost the same sort of commodities from England, with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years their exports are said to amount to 526,000 l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000. The Jerseys have been long in the habit of allowing the merchants of New York and Pennsylvania, to carry on their trade for them. They have, however, for some time been struggling to bring their commerce into its proper course, but find it extremely difficult to do so, as the neighbouring provinces have got the market of them, and as it is always difficult to divert the course of trade from its ordinary channel. The city of New York stands on an island, which is twelve miles long, and two or three broad, extremely well situated for trade at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from many towns above and from Canada, and the lakes, a few carrying places excepted. The town and harbour are defended by forts and batteries. The inhabitants amount to about twelve thousand, and the whole province is supposed to contain between eighty and a hundred thousand. The better sort are rich and hospitable, the lower ranks are easy in their circumstances; and both are endowed with a generous and liberal turn of mind, which renders their society and conversation more agreeable than in most countries, either of Europe or America. The inhabitants of New Jersey are about sixty thousand. Their commerce not being in their own hands they have no very considerable towns. Perth Amboy is the most populous, it contains about two hundred families, and has an harbour fit for receiving and securing ships of great burden.

Learning has of late been greatly encouraged in this province. A college was established at the town of Brunswick, by governor Belcher, in 1746. The trustees of this college are generally presbyterians, and it is governed by a president.

P E N S Y L V A N I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	74	{	W. Lon.	} Being	} 200 miles in length.
		and				
		78				
Between	{	39	{	N. Lat.	} Being	} 200 miles in breadth.
		and				
		42				

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or five nations, on the north; by De la War river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the east; and by Maryland, on the south and west.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
North Division	Buckingham	Bristol Philadelphia, W. lon. 74. N. lat. 40-50,
	Philadelphia	
South Division	Cheshire	Chester
	Newcastle	Newcastle
	Kent	Dover
	Suffex	Lewes.

RIVERS.] The rivers are De la War, which is navigable of one sort or other, more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia, Susquehanna, and Skoolkil, are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks, in De la War bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this province admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND } The face of the country, air, soil, **FACE OF THE COUNTRY.** } and produce, do not materially differ from that of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is sweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the river De la War, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, August, and September, are almost intolerably hot, but the country is refreshed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of our plantations from New York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine, with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these colonies, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The further southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

HISTORY,

A.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.

This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed

by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New York, by the English, admiral Pen, who in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica, being well with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and after much court solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Pen be little known, but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilized nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions, to which the quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed, but it was to his own wisdom and ability, that they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which has put this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the great and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations may not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony. No laws can be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Pen subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations: instead of immediately taking advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldest right was vested in them. William Pen, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to that of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention that land is now granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved, whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pound the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, land rents at twenty shillings the acre, and even at several miles distance from that city, sells at twenty years purchase.

In some years, more people have transported themselves into Pennsylvania, than into all the other settlements together. In short, this province has increased so greatly from the time of its first establishment, that the number of inhabitants in the whole province, is computed at three hundred and fifty thousand. Upon the principal rivers settlements are made, and the country cultivated a hundred and fifty miles above Philadelphia. The people are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial, tho' but few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but they are all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufacture most of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very considerable towns, such as German town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, would

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Chief Towns.

- Bristol
- Philadelphia, W. lon.
- 74. N. lat. 40-50,
- Chester
- Newcastle
- Dover
- Lewes.

navigabl... vessels above Philadelphia, considerable way up s and creeks, in De render this province trade.

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HISTORY,

deserve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, containing twenty thousand inhabitants, beautiful beyond any city of America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipses the rest, and deserves all our attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Pen, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated 100 miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers, the De la War, on the north, and the Schootkill, on the south, which it unites as it were, by running in a line of two miles between them; but besides this chief street, there is one facing each river, the front of each being about a mile in length. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully executed, is in this manner; every quarter of the city forms a square of eight acres, and almost in the center of it, is a square of ten acres, surrounded by the town-house, and other public buildings. The High Street is a hundred feet wide, and runs the whole length of the town: parallel to it run eight other streets, which are crossed by twenty more at right angles, all of them thirty feet wide, and communicating with canals, from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the wholesomeness of the city. Every man in possession of a thousand acres, has his house either in one of the fronts, facing the rivers, or in the high street, running from the middle of one front, to the middle of the other. Every owner of five thousand acres, besides the above-mentioned privilege, is entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of his house, and all others may have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's seat, which is the usual place of the governor's residence, and is about a mile above the town, is the first private building both for magnificence and situation in all British America. The barracks for the king's troops, the market and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are spacious and fine, the principal quay is two hundred feet wide, and to this a vessel of five hundred tons may lay her broadside, though above one hundred miles from the sea.

There are in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way surprizing, when we consider the great trade which it carries on with the English, Spanish, French and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal and Holland. Besides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, provisions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is so commodiously situated. The Dutch employ between eight and nine thousand waggons, drawn each by four horses, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, three hundred and three vessels entered inwards at this port, and two hundred and ninety-one cleared outwards.

The commodities exported from Great Britain into Pennsylvania, at an average of three years, amount to the value of 611,000*l*. Those exported to Great-Britain and other markets, beside timber, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, consist of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, are calculated at 705,500*l*.

There is a flourishing academy established at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England, and Scotland, and which bids fair to become a bright seminary of learning.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	74	{	W. Lon.	} Being	{	140 miles in length.
		and					
		78					
		38					
Between	{	38	{	N. Lat.	}	{	135 miles in breadth.
		and					
		40					

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the north; by another part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by Virginia, on the south; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the west.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeake, viz. 1. The eastern; and 2. The western division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The east division contains the counties of	1. Somerset ———	} Somerset Dorchester Oxford.
	2. Dorchester ———	
	3. Talbot county ———	
	4. Cecil county ———	
The west division contains	1. St. Mary's county —	} St. Mary's Bristol Masterkout Abington Annapolis, W. Lon. 78. N. Lat. 39-35. Baltimore.
	2. Charles county —	
	3. Prince George county	
	4. Calvert county	
	5. Anne Arundel county	
	6. Baltimore county —	

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn and Sassafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } In these particulars this province has
AIR, SOIL AND PRODUCE. } nothing particular by which it may be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility thro' the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of grain and hemp, as well as tobacco, which is the staple commodity of that country.

COMMERCE.] The commerce of Maryland depends on the same principles with that of Virginia, and is so closely connected with it, that any separation of them would rather confuse than edify. It will be considered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It seems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like those we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As they however were peopled by Protestants, and even sectaries, Maryland was originally planted by Roman Catholicks. This fact, towards the close of Charles I.'s reign, was the object of great hatred

tred with the bulk of the English nation; the laws in force against the Roman catholics, were executed with the utmost severity. This in part arose from an opinion, perhaps not without some foundation, that the court was too favourably disposed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on Roman catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent, one in greatest favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of Englishmen. This nobleman in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Mary, daughter to Henry IV. and spouse to king Charles. The year following about two hundred Popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding, which distinguishes gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an easy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this Popish colony, and inflamed the Indians against them by ill-grounded reports, but such as were sufficient to stir up the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation: which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was ungenerously deprived of his rights, and a new governor, appointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. The tyrannical government of James II. which without discernment of friends or enemies, but with the fury of a mad-dog, snapped at every thing before it, again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence. At the revolution, however, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But since the family have changed their religion, they have obtained the power as well as the interest. At present but a small part of it belongs to that family. The government of this country exactly resembles that in Virginia, except that the governor is appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The customs too are reserved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them are independent of the government of the province. So far is Maryland from being at present a Popish government, that the Protestants, by far more numerous, have excluded them from all offices of trust and power. They have even adopted the penal laws of England against them.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	74	}	W. Lon.	} Being	{	240 miles in length.
		and					
		80					
Between	{	36	}	N. Lat.	} Being	{	200 miles in breadth.
		and					
		39					

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river Patowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-east; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by Carolina, on the south; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the west.

It may be divided into four parts, viz. The north: The middle: The south: And, the eastern division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Parishes.
The north division contains	1. Northumberland	Wincomoca
	2. Lancashire	Christ-Church
	3. Westmoreland	
	4. Richmond	
	5. Stafford	St. Paul's.
The middle division contains	6. Essex	Farnham
	7. Middlesex	Christ-Church
	8. Gloucester	Abingdon
	9. King and Queen county	Stratton
	10. King William county	St. John's
	11. New Kent	St. Peter's
	12. Elizabeth county	Elizabeth
	13. Warwick county	Denby
The south division contains	14. York county	York
	15. Princess Anne county	Tynhaven.
	16. Norfolk county	Elizabeth
	17. Nanfamund county	Chutakuk
	18. Isle of Wight county	Newport
	19. Surry county	Southwark
The eastern division between Chesapeak bay and the ocean	20. Prince George county	Wyanoke
	21. Charles county	Westover
	22. Henrico county	Bristol
	23. James county	James Town Williamsburg.
	24. Acomac county	Acomac.

CAPES, BAYS AND RIVERS.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeak, one of the largest

and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near three hundred miles from the south to the north, is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Patowmac; these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is without all manner of doubt the country of the world of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore, before you can discover land from the mast-head. The lofty trees, which cover the soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel an hundred miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In summer the heats here are excessive, tho' not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the changes sudden and violent. Their winter frosts come on with the least warning. To a warm day, there sometimes succeeds such an intense cold in the evening as to freeze over the largest rivers.

The air and seasons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increases; and the summer is much like ours, being refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease and increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August these breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues, and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the sea-shore, and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness in the soil, which however is of a generous nature, and helped by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or brush grows beneath; so that people travel with ease through the forests on horseback, under a fine shade, to defend them from the sun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours, and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake root, and the ginseng of the Chinese, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to ad-

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antage. The inhabitants however are so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think, if corn sufficient for their support can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced not only for their own consumption, but for export, though not in such quantities as they might be expected from the nature of the soil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

[ANIMALS.] We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the southern colonies, run wild. Beef and pork is sold here from one penny to twopence a pound; their fattest pullets at sixpence a-piece; chickens, at three or four shillings a dozen; geese, at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fish, and wild fowl, are still cheaper in the season, and deer are sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions are equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a sort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and raccoons. Here is likewise that singular animal, called the Opossum, which seems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his history of Canada. It is about the size of a cat, and besides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which discovers a large number of teats on the usual part of the common belly. Upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the stalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed size; then they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whose plumage is crimson and blue, the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one, the humming bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nourishment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPU- } This is the first country which
LATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } the English planted in America.
We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it, till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh, the most extraordinary genius of the age in which he lived, perhaps in any age, applied to court, and got together a company which was composed of several persons of distinction and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and settle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony before any proved successful. The three first companies who sailed into Virginia perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almost to the same situation; and, being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in

despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Chesapeak bay, they were met by lord Delawar, with a Squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, his prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James-Town, the first town built by the English in the new world, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great-Britain. Many of the Cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of Sir William Berkley, held out for the crown; until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the Restoration, there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony, on account of restraints on trade, became very popular, and set every thing in confusion. His natural death, however, restored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceased to destroy themselves.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great-Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great-Britain. As the inhabitants encreased, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county, into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members are appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they are stiled Honourable, and answer in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house is the guardian of the peoples liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bears a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill has passed the two houses, it comes before the governor; who gives his assent or negative as he thinks proper. It now acquires the force of a law, until it be transmitted to England, and his majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acts not only as a part of the legislature, but also as a privy-council to the governor, without whose concurrence he can do nothing of moment: it sometimes acts as a court of Chancery.

The number of white people in Virginia, which is daily encreasing, is supposed to amount to above a hundred thousand. The negroes, of whom some thousands are annually imported into Virginia and Maryland,

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are at least as many; they thrive too much better here than in the West Indies. The inhabitants of Virginia are a chearful, hospitable, and in general a genteel sort of people: some of them are accused of vanity and ostentation; which accusation is not without some ground. Here are only two towns that deserve that name; the largest of which, and the capital of the province, is Williamsburg, containing about sixty houses, and some spacious public buildings.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is also included that of Maryland. These provinces are supposed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000*l.* into Great-Britain. This, at eight pounds per hoghead, makes the number of hogheads amount to 96,000. Of these, it is computed that about 13,500 hogheads are consumed at home, the duty on which, at 26*l.* 1*s.* per hoghead, comes to 351,675*l.* the remaining 82,500 hogheads are exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great-Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this single branch employs 330 sail of ships, and 7960 seamen. Not only our wealth therefore, but the very finews of our national strength are powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of these colonies, of which naval stores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the most considerable, make the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000*l.* The exports of Great-Britain, the same as to our other colonies, at a like average, come to 865,000*l.*

Though an intire toleration be allowed, to all religions in this country, there are few dissenters from the church of England. The bishop of London sends over a superintendant to inspect the character of the clergy; who live comfortably here, a priest to each parish, with about a 100*l.* per annum, paid in tobacco.

Here is also a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000*l.* towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000*l.* a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, with GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	57	{	W. lon.	}	Being	{	500 miles in length
		and						
		86						
Between	{	30	{	N. lat.	}	}	}	Breadth uncertain.
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BOUNDARIES. Bounded by Virginia, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the south; and by the Mississippi, on the west.

Divisions.	Counties.	Towns.
North Carolina contains the counties of — — —	{ Albemarle — — } { Bath county, and Clarendon in part }	{ Divided into parishes, but have no towns. }
The middle division, or South Carolina, contains the counties of — —	{ Clarendon in part — } { Craven county — } { Berkley county — } { Colleton county — }	{ St. James } { Christ-Church } { Charles-Town, W. lon. 79. N. lat. 32-30. }
The south division contains only	{ Granville county — } { Georgia — — }	{ Port-Royal. } { Savannah } { Frederica } { Purisburgh. }

RIVERS.] The chief rivers are, 1. Albemarle river; 2. Pentaguen; 3. Neuse; 4. Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; 5. Watere; 6. Santee; 7. Ashley river; 8. Cooper River; 9. Colleton; 10. Cambahee; 11. Savannah; 12. Alatamaha; and, 13. That noble river St. John's, which divides Georgia from Florida; all which rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and running east, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. And Mr. Oglethorpe assures us, that the rivers Flint, Catochee, Ogechee, and even the river Mississippi, which run from the north-east of the south-west, and fall into the gulph of Mexico, pass through part of Carolina.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only sea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burden cannot approach it, except in some few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the best are those of Roanock, at the mouth of Albemarle river, and Pimlico. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours.

The most remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg odd minutes north lat. Cape Fear to the south of it, and Cape Cartare still further south.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any considerable difference between the climate of these countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia; but, where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The summers indeed are of a more intense heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and shorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to such violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun; so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-town, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE } In this respect too there is a considerable coincidence between these countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia is not of near so good a soil as the other provinces.

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provinces. The whole country is in a manner one forest, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and by the different species of these, the quality of the soil is easily known. The land in Carolina is easily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the forests mostly consist of tall trees at a considerable distance. Those grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark sand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhausted; for here they never use any manure. The pine barren is the worst of all; this is an almost perfectly white sand, yet it bears the pine tree, and some other useful plants naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this species of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peas; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even answers for rice. But what is most fortunate for this province is, that this worst part of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, swampy grounds, bear their great staple, rice. The country near the sea is much the worst, in many parts little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; for Carolina is all an even plain for eighty miles from the sea, not a hill, not a rock, nor scarce even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at an hundred miles distance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than in the flat sandy coast.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and soil have something in them so kindly, that the planter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement we might have silk, wine, and wool from those colonies: of the first we have seen samples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed of these valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding silk-worms; sarsaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm, thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees besides these, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these, the three great staple commodities at present are, the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight, than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from fifty to seventy feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above thirty-six feet in circumference.

Of these trunks, when hollowed, the Indians make canoes, and some of them are so large, that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure-boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a still greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously: to have two or three hundred cows is very common, but some have a thousand or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forests; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows; these are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses, in the woods. It is surprising that the cattle should have encreased so quickly since their being first imported from Europe, while there are such numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, constantly ranging the woods and forests. We have already observed that these animals are less ravenous than the beasts of Africa and Asia; they very seldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, } The first English ex-
CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } peditions into Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing successful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was designed to be what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, as no restriction had been laid upon the religious principles of those who settled in Carolina, the disputes between the church of England-men and dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony. This was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000*l.* for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony in those respects in which it differed from the royal colonies was altered. Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which is still in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs too, Carolina was divided into two districts, and two separate governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe; and their trade has advanced of late with wonderful rapidity.

The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when several public-spirited noblemen and others, from compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000*l.* from the government,

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government, was given to provide in necessaries such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province, and to submit to the regulations imposed on them. In process of time, new sums were raised, and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of a thousand persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard that they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Diffentions of all kinds sprung up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

The method of settling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of British America, was to pitch upon a void space of ground, and either to purchase it at the rate of twenty pounds for one thousand acres, and one shilling quit-rent for every hundred acres; or otherwise, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchase-money: the former method is the most common, and the tenor a freehold. The people of Carolina live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already described. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger; and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be met with to all strangers, and especially to such as by accident or misfortunes are rendered incapable to provide for themselves.

The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, the metropolis, in South-Carolina, which for size, beauty, and trade, may be considered as one of the first in British America. I have already mentioned its admirable situation at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships twenty miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near forty. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than two hundred tons burden from entering. The town is regularly and pretty strongly fortified by nature and art; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built, some of them are of brick, and others of wood; but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about a thousand houses, and is the seat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the assembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond description. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; the people are showy and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspires to make this by much the liveliest, the loveliest, and politest place, as it is one of the richest too, in all America. It ought here to be observed, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that, when in common with the other colonies, they resolved against the use of certain luxuries, and even necessaries of life; those articles which improve the mind, enlarge the understanding, and correct the taste, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

As South-Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employs a hundred and forty ships, while that of the other two does not employ sixty. Its exports to Great-Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amount to more than 395,000*l.* annual value; and its imports at 365,000*l.* The exports of North-Carolina are computed at more than 68,000*l.* and its imports at about 18,000*l.* The trade of Georgia is likewise in its infancy; the exports amount to a little more than 74,000*l.* and the imports at 49,000*l.*

The trade between Carolina and the West-Indies is the same in all respects with that of the rest of the colonies, and is very large; their trade with the Indians is likewise in a very flourishing condition; and they carry English goods on pack-horses five or six hundred miles into the country west of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North-Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, vessels of above seventy or eighty tons. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighterage. Edenton was formerly the capital of North-Carolina, which is no more than a trifling village; but they are now projecting a town farther south, which is more eccentrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiously situated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the sea, upon a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for two hundred miles farther for large boats, to the second town called Augusta, which stands in a country of the greatest fertility, and carries on a considerable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you see the whole course of the river towards the sea; and on the other hand, you see the river for about sixty miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield founded an orphan-house, which is now converted into a college for the education of young men chiefly designed for the ministry. That gentleman crosses the Atlantic every other year; and through his zeal and pious care, this favourite seminary is at present in a thriving condition.

EAST and WEST FLORIDA.

Between	}	82	}	W. lon.	}	Being	{	1400 miles in length,
		and						
		105						
Between	}	25	}	N. lat.	}			{
		and						
		40						

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded to Great-Britain by the late treaty of peace, and including a part of Louisiana, is now divided into the governments of East and West Florida. See the Royal Proclamation.

RIVERS.] These are the Mississippi, which forms the western boundary of Florida, and is one of the finest in the world, as well as the largest; for it is supposed to run a course of three thousand miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar at the principal

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[BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, St. Bernard's, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, St. Augustine, and Cape Florida at the extremity of the Peninsula, which terminates the British America southward.

[AIR AND CLIMATE.] It is very difficult to reconcile the various accounts that have been given of these particulars in this country. The people who have obtained grants of lands in Florida, and are desirous to settle or sell them, represent the whole country as a Canaan, and St. Augustine, in East-Florida, as the Montpelier of America: they tell us, that the climate of Florida is an exceeding agreeable medium betwixt the scorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the northern latitudes; that there is indeed a change of the seasons, but it is a moderate one: in November and December, many trees lose their leaves, vegetation goes on slowly, and the winter is perceived, but so mild, that snow is never seen there; and the tenderest plants of the West-Indies, such as the plantain, the allegator-pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple, the sugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter, in the gardens of St. Augustine: that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, so common in England, are unknown in this country. And though at the equinoxes, especially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day for some weeks together, yet, when the shower is over, the sky immediately clears up, and all is calm and serene.

Others have represented this very coast as a grave and burying-place of all strangers who are so unhappy as to go there, affirming as a truth, the well known story propagated soon after the last peace, That upon the landing of our troops to take possession of that country, the Spaniards asked them "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" We shall make the liberty to observe on this head, that though the air here is very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the seas which environ and wash a considerable part of this country. The inland countries towards the north feel a little of the roughness of the north-west wind, which, more or less, diffuses its chilling breath over the whole continent of North-America, carrying frost and snow many degrees more to the southward in these regions, than the north-east wind does in Europe. That the air of Florida is pure and wholesome, appears from the size, vigour, and longevity of the Floridan Indians, who in these respects far exceed their more southern neighbours, the Mexicans. That when the Spaniards quitted St. Augustine, many of them were of a great age, some above ninety. Since it came into the hands of Great-Britain, many gentlemen in a deep consumption have ascribed the recovery of their health to that climate; and it is a certain fact, that the ninth regiment, stationed on different parts of the coast, did not lose a single man by natural death in the space of twenty months.

[SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND } Many of the disadvantages indis-
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } criminally imputed to the soil of the
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whole country, should be confined to East Florida, which indeed, near the sea, and forty miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger size, and produce better fruit, than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the necessaries of life, but also all the pleasures of habitation, than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Mississippi.

From the climate of Florida, and some specimens sent home, there is reason to expect, that cotton, sugar, wine, and silk, will grow here as well as in Persia, India, and China, which are in the same latitudes. This country also produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and other precious stones; copper, quicksilver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pearls are found in great abundance on the coast of Florida: mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here so numerous, that you may purchase a good saddle-horse in exchange for goods of five inillings value prime cost; and there are instances of horses being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, } Notwithstanding the luxuriandy of
AND CHIEF TOWNS. } the soil, the salubrity of the air, the cheapness and plenty of provisions, the encouragement of the British government, (See the proclamation) and the wise measures taken by the governors sent thither to settle these provinces, the number of English inhabitants are yet very inconsiderable, and, in all appearance, the increase of population will be here extremely slow, and that proceeding from unavoidable causes.

When we consider the heavy wars which our own island has supported by sea and land against one half of the force of Europe; the emigrations to our other settlements in North America, the East and West Indies; the numerous manufactures carrying on at home; and the prodigious shipping employed in transporting these to every corner of the globe; it would appear, that, instead of peopling our colonies, we wanted a supply of hands at home; and, of course, the acquisition of a new territory, without people to plant it, must be an incumbrance to the mother country, especially as the civil and military establishments of both Floridas are said to cost the government near 100,000*l.* per annum.

If, for this purpose, we look to the northern colonies of America, we shall find them less able, and the people less disposed to relinquish countries which present them with all the comforts of life in vast abundance, and where they live in affluence, ease, and safety. Is any planter able to improve more ground; or, does the increase of his family and stock require a thousand acres more to his estate? the vast regions behind (for, comparatively speaking, little more than the sea coast of North-America is yet cleared and inhabited by Europeans) present themselves to his view. For a penny an acre in some places, and a halfpenny in others, annually, he may traverse the forests, choose out the most enchanting situation, upon the banks of a fine navigable river, and fix upon as much ground

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as he can possibly cultivate. Is he ambitious to become a freeholder? for the value of a suit of clothes he may purchase five hundred acres; the fertility of which, in a few years, puts him on a respectable footing with his neighbours, and sometimes gives him a seat in the council of the people.

It has been therefore hinted, that the chief advantage to be derived to Great-Britain from the possession of Florida, arises from its situation; serving as a frontier against the incursions of our enemies: that its ports, situated in the Gulph of Mexico (See the map of North America) will always be a check upon Spain, as it commands the passage between her settlements; for the galeons, and other vessels, in their passage from Vera Cruz to the Havannah, are obliged, by reason of their north-east trade winds, to stretch away to the northward, and generally keep as near the coast of Florida as possible. And that in time of war with that nation, or her ally the French, the harbours of Florida are most commodiously situated for a place of rendezvous and refreshment to the royal navy sent to protect our own West-India islands, or attack those belonging to France and Spain.

But these advantages, great as they are, seem totally eclipsed, when we consider the situation of Florida in a commercial view; for though hitherto, while in a wild, uncultivated state, its productions have entered very little into the general scale of British commerce, we have still a prospect of establishing and carrying on a trade with the Spanish colonies; and being certain that a regular intercourse might be established with them, which would open a vent for the commodities of Great-Britain, and which returns for them in gold and silver, the most profitable of all kinds of commerce.

The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, which is seated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the gulph of Mexico, in which vessels may lie in safety against every kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side. This place sends, in skins, logwood, dying stuffs, and silver in dollars, to the annual value of 63,000 l. and receives of our manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of 97,000 l.

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water. Our exports to St. Augustine amount to little more than 7000 l. per annum; its exports have hitherto been nothing more than the produce of some little trade carried on with the Indians.

The low state of commerce in Florida arises from this, that no European nation had, before the conclusion of the late war, made it an object of attention; but since that period, its importance becomes more known. Its climate and soil are extremely favourable for the raising of silk. Some attempts indeed have been made in Carolina and Georgia, where in one place the raising of silk is become a kind of staple commodity; but there the worms are often injured by the cold mornings, at other times they are benumbed and made sickly for want of warmth, and some-

sometimes actually destroyed; an inconvenience which is also frequently experienced in Italy: but the more southern climate of Florida has placed this tender insect beyond the reach of such disasters; and experience will shew, that the air and climate of this country is as favourable to the silk-worm as it is to the mulberry-tree on which it feeds, and which grows here in its utmost luxuriance. The numerous vines too, which grow up spontaneously in the forests of this country, seem to invite us to cultivate the grape, and to prognosticate, that the produce of Florida may, with proper cultivation, gladden the heart of Britons in future ages.

We have already mentioned the difficulty of peopling this country from Great-Britain or her colonies, but, with suitable encouragement from government, foreigners might be invited thither, such as Germans from the Rhine, Moselle, and other parts where they cultivate vineyards; protestants from the south of France, used to the culture of silk, olives, &c. Greeks from the Levant, who are groaning under the Turkish yoke, and are an industrious people, well skilled in the cultivation of cotton, vines, raisins, currants, olives, almonds, and silk-worms; for which the climate of Florida is so well adapted. And herein may be perceived the value of this country to Great-Britain; for though from the variety of climates in the extensive empire of British America, reaching in a direct line from the frozen wilds of Labrador, where the hardy inhabitants, clothed in furs, wander amidst eternal snow, to the sultry regions within the tropics, where, seated in the heart of a luxuriant soil, the wealthy planter shelters himself from the scorching sun by the spreading umbrella; we command a much greater number of articles of commerce and the conveniencies of life than any nation on earth, yet it is to Florida that we must look for silk, wine, and some other articles, and these too of the best sorts, which hitherto we purchased, and do still purchase in immense quantities, from different powers of Europe and Asia; no can a rich and trading nation possibly be without them, as we daily experience from the quantity of treasure sent annually to China for silk.

To what has been observed respecting the climate, soil, and produce of Florida, we shall take the liberty to give the following extracts from some letters of a gentleman who went to St. Augustine about the year 1764, in a consumptive state of health.

May 15, 1767. "I am much obliged to you for your enquiring after my health; I have agreed with Florida extremely well: indeed this country is in general very healthy, and till last autumn we had no sick here, and then our sickness was not mortal, although very much so in every other part of America. I believe my friends do not know that we are so near Charles-Town, and that we have not only a water but land communication with that place. Sending letters by the packet is very tedious, as they must go round by the West-Indies."

April 16, 1768. "You cannot conceive how agreeable it is for people in such an exotic country as this, to receive a European letter. This country, in all probability, will make a figure soon, as a number of gentlemen of considerable property, both from England and Scotland have obtained orders from his majesty for grants of land in this province and are now busy in forming plantations. Between six and seven hundred working slaves are already in the colony of East Florida."

And in a third letter, received this year (1770) there is the following intelligence. "This goes by a vessel of Mr. ———, which

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WEST INDIES.

Scale
Miles 60 to 10 Degrees.



ATLANTIC OCEAN

CARIBBEAN SEA

CARIBBEE ISLANDS

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arrived here some time ago with a cargo of slaves from the coast of Africa; the sails from this to-morrow directly for your port of London, and carries our first produce to that market, viz. between eight and nine thousand weight of indigo, some cotton, rice, and deer skins; likewise some ship-timber, by way of trial. This province bids fair to exceed all the other American provinces in the article of indigo, as the plant stands the winter, that is, shoots up from the old roots in the spring; by which means we have a full cutting more than they have to the northward. Our quantity this year is small, but the quality remarkably good. Some of our planters have vanity enough to think they are entitled to the medal given by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. and have applied for it accordingly."

WEST INDIES.

WE have already observed, that between the two continents of America, lie an innumerable multitude of islands, which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland and Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands, differ widely from what we can form any idea of, from what we perceive at home; we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, as well as some other particulars that are peculiar to the West-Indies.

The climate in all our West India islands, is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and that the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning further from any of them than about thirty degrees to the south, they are continually subjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from its center, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable Providence in the disposing of things, it is, that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield them from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirily with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies (and we may add in the East Indies) are by no means so moderate as with us. Our heaviest rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds, with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water*. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their source within the

* See Wafer's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien, in Vol. II. of the Collection of Voyages and Travels, advertised at the end of this book.

tropics,



tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; and for the most part mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, which they imagined to be dried and scorched up, with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable: when in reality some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are however very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air in this country, metals of all kinds, that are subjected to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time: and this cause, perhaps as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West-Indies unfriendly, and unpleasant, to an European constitution.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assaulted by hurricanes; the most terrible calamity to which they are subject (as well as the people in the East Indies) from the climate; this destroys, at a stroke, the labour of many years, and prostrates the most exalted hopes of the planter, and often just at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of fortune. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance, which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see as the prelude to the ensuing havoc; whole fields of sugar canes, whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their windmills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection, the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them, with an irresistible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, observe these signs. That day you will see the sky very turbulent; you will observe the sun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all those clouds and mists which usually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling sound, like the rushing of a great wind. At night the stars seem much larger than usual, and surrounded with a sort of bur; the north-west sky has a black and menacing look; the sea emits a strong smell, and rises into vast waves, often without any wind; the wind itself now forsakes its usual steady easterly stream, and shifts about to the west; from whence it sometimes blows with intermissions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herself is surrounded with a great bur, and sometimes the sun has the same appearance. These are signs which the Indians of these islands taught our planters, by which they can prognosticate the approach of an hurricane.

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The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not settled whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa (see page 540) but, however the matter may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, from the scummings of the sugar, a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America (where it is consumed by the English inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and the African commerce;) besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England, to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have seen, and by others which we may easily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the West Indies are very great, and the profits at the first view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000*l*. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleness and luxury; at all times he must keep a watchful eye upon his overseers, and even oversee himself occasionally. But at the boiling season, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a constant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and so many fierce furnaces; add to this, the losses by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad seasons; and then consider when the sugars are in the cask, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ships his produce at his own risk. These considerations might make one believe, that it could never answer to engage in this business; but, notwithstanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons, generally provide against the ill effects of the worst, as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150*l*. a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the greatness of the plantation, one to about thirty negroes, and at the rate of about 40*l*. Such plantations too have

a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, stockings and shoes; the whole not exceeding forty shillings a year, and the profit of their labour yields ten or twelve pounds. The price of negroes is now become extremely high, and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularize the commodities proper for the West India market, would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell, but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or less as a venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our West Indies at least 230,000 negro slaves; and, upon the highest calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 souls. This disproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more visible every day, some writers have endeavoured to account for, by alledging, that the enterprising spirit, which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent causes, had produced in the last century, has decayed very much. That the disposition of the West Indians themselves, who for cheapness choose to do every thing by negroes, which can possibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the small number of whites of the lower stations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in constant terror of insurrections and plots, many families employ twenty-five or thirty negroes as menial servants, who are infinitely the most dangerous of the slaves, and in case of any insurrection, they have it more in their power to strike a sudden and fatal blow.

The first observation we think is not well founded; that enterprising spirit which first led Britons out to discovery, and colonization, still animates in a very considerable degree, the people of this nation, but the field is now more ample and enlarged; emigrants have greater scope

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whereon to range; the British empire extends with incredible strides. Besides the vast continent of North America, which takes in such a variety of climates; discovers such richness of soil; where the people live under various modes of religion, laws and government, and all admirably suited to British tempers; the East Indies, an inexhaustible mine of riches, begins to draw the attention of mankind from that of the West. Countries, as well as individuals, attain a name and reputation for something extraordinary, and have their day. Thither the wisest and many of the best families of the British nation, are ambitious of procuring places for their sons in the army, or the counting-house. Here is an ample field for all adventurous spirits, who, disdain- ing an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming useful to themselves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the im- mense regions of this eastern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent disposition, but with less conduct and inferior abilities, set out with the most sanguine hopes. These are your fiery, restless tem- pers, willing to undertake the severest labour, provided it promises but a short continuance, who love risk and hazard, whose schemes are al- ways vast, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

THE islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semi- circle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distin- guish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthage- na, or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps, dis- tinguish them into the great and little Antilles.

[JAMAICA.] The first that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the seventy-fifth and seventy-ninth degrees of west longi- tude from London, and between seventeen and eighteen north latitude. From the east and west it is in length about a hundred and forty miles, and in the middle about sixty in the breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near four thousand five hundred miles south- west of England.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing no soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; they are nourished by the rains, which often fall, or the mists which continu- ally brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, industriously seek out for their own support. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this great chain of mountains, are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. The val- lies or plains between these ridges, are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven, but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies, are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in most places, excessive hot, and extremely unwholesome. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness, and the lightning in these violent storms, frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we shall speak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. The river waters are many of them unwholesome, and taste of copper; but there are some springs of a better kind. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly ach, one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica, and in various other complaints.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. Cacaos were formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the pimento, or as it is called Jamaica Pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mohogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool: the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so. No sort of European grain grow here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruit, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, seville and china oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, fourtops, papas, pine-apples, custard apples, star apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs, many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceeding sweet and delicate. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, China, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parrots, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks and turkies; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chogoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have

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This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year, that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Pen and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500 l. per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more, which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000 l. per annum.

We have already observed, that the government of all the American islands is the same, namely, that kind, which we have formerly described under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is universally of the church of England; though they have no bishop, the bishop of London's commissary being the chief religious magistrate in those parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the numbers of whites in Jamaica, amounted to sixty thousand, and that of the negroes to a hundred and twenty thousand. It appears at present that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding twenty-five thousand, and the blacks ninety thousand. Indigo was once very greatly produced in Jamaica, and it enriched the island to so great a degree, that in the parish of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are said to have had no less than three hundred gentlemen's coaches; a number I do not imagine even the whole island exceeds at this day; and there is great reason to believe, that there were many more persons of property in Jamaica formerly than are now, though perhaps they had not those vast fortunes, which dazzle us in such a manner at present. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diseases, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, swept away vast multitudes. The decrease of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, arises from the difficulties to which their trade is exposed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain: as that they are of late deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spanish coast; the low value of their produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements the French make in their sugar colonies, which are enabled to undersell them by the lowness of their duties; the trade carried on from Ireland, and the northern colonies, to the French and Dutch islands, where they pay no duties, and are supplied with goods at an easier rate. Some of these complaints, which equally affect the other islands, have been heard, others still remain unredressed. Both the log-wood trade, and this contraband have been the subjects of much contention, and the cause of a war between Great Britain, and the Spanish nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right; and was at the last peace confirmed to us. The latter we permitted; because

we thought, and very justly, that if the Spaniards found themselves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a stop to it, by their guarda costas, which cruize in these seas, purposely to seize and confiscate such vessels and cargoes, as are found in this trade. In this manner did the British court argue, till of late, when the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to send English cruizers, to the American coast, effectually to crush that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of British subjects in America have complained, as it put a stop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit so largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable to contain a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greatest ease, weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called Buccaneers, they fought with an inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital, with as inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes the earth opened, and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour, and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of the sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts mountains were split, and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city, but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary conveniency of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1712, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants therefore resolved to forsake it for ever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is lately become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of one thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticos, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston,

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stands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spanish town, which, though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

The whole product of the island may be reduced to these heads. First, sugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thousand three hundred and fifteen hogheads, some vastly great even to a tun weight, which cannot be worth less in England than 424,725 l. Most of this goes to London, Bristol and Glasgow, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, slaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Third, molasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple the sugar-cane. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable, but some cacao and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweet-meats, mohogany, and manchineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they did drive a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spanish main goes on, which it will be impossible for Spain to stop, whilst it is so profitable to the British merchant, and whilst the Spanish officers, from the highest to the lowest, shew so great a respect to presents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilst they appear to live in such a state of luxury, as in most other places, leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes in a manner instantly. Their equipages, their cloaths, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion imaginable. This obliges all the treasure they receive, to make but a very short stay, being hardly more than sufficient to answer the calls of their necessity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of silk, and vests trimmed with silver. At other times they generally wear only thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a handkerchief tied round the head, and a hat upon it. Men servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowlers of the same, a checked shirt, and no stockings. The negroes generally go naked, except those who attend gentlemen, who have them dressed in their own livery. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them: before dinner they put off their dishabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dress. Many of the negro women in the country go quite naked.

The common drink of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear. Those of inferior rank generally drink rum punch, which they call Kill Devil, because, being frequently drank to excess, it heats the blood, brings on fevers, which in a few hours sends them to the grave, especially those who are just come to the island, which is the reason that so many die here upon the first arrival.

English money is seldom seen here, the current coin being entirely Spanish. There is no place where silver is so plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds a week.

Learning is here at a low ebb: there are indeed some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great-Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the people in general take little care to improve their minds, being either engaged in trade, or gaming.

The misery and hardships of the negroes is truly moving; and tho' great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to the West Indies, to supply the place of those who pine and die, by the hardships they receive. They are indeed stubborn and untractable for the most part, and they must be ruled with a rod of iron, but they ought not to be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort of beasts, without souls, as some of their masters or overseers do at present, though some of these tyrants are themselves the dregs of this nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situation easy and comfortable, and it has been observed, that in North America, where in general these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it seems clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations which have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their rebellions. The slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burden of life easy, which would otherwise to many of them be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprizing to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near an end, that they shall revisit their native shores, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow slaves kiss him, and wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situated in fifty-nine degrees of west longitude, and thirteen degrees of north latitude. It is twenty-five miles in length, and in breadth fourteen. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage, and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture, or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England, resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with
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great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support, and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the storm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its first settlement, that in 1650, it contained more than fifty thousand whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour: for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery. A practice, which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever since. They had begun a little before this to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the slaves therefore was still augmented; and in 1676, it is supposed that their number amounted to a hundred thousand, which, together with fifty thousand, make a hundred and fifty thousand on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed four hundred sail of ships, one with another of a hundred and fifty tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron water, was above 350,000 l. and their circulating cash at home was 200,000 l. Such was the increase of population, trade and wealth, in the course of fifty years. But since that time this island has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the neighbouring isles. Their numbers at present are said to be twenty thousand whites, and a hundred thousand slaves. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth 5000 l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.] This island, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is situated in sixty-two degrees west longitude, and seventeen north latitude, about fourteen leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long, and eight broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. This nation however abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjunctly, but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much sugar as Barbadoes, and sometimes quite as much. It is computed that this island contains seven thousand whites, and twenty thousand negroes.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in sixty-one degrees west longitude, and seventeen degrees north latitude, is of a circular form, near twenty miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest. It has one of the best harbours in the West Indies, and its capital St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large

large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward islands. Antigua is supposed to contain about seven thousand whites, and thirty thousand slaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two small islands lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua neither of them exceeding eighteen miles in circumference, and are said each to contain five thousand whites, and ten thousand slaves. The soil in these four islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but notwithstanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar cane.

BARBUDA.] Situated in eighteen deg. north lat. thirty-five miles north of Antigua, is twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about fifteen hundred.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in eighteen degrees north latitude, sixty miles north-west of St. Christopher's, is about thirty miles long, and ten broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

St. LUCIA.] Situated in 13 deg. 45 min. north lat. and in 60 deg. west lon. eighty miles north-west of Barbadoes, is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the late war broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great-Britain. The soil of St. Lucia, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 15 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. 24 min. west lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is nearly circular, and has a diameter of thirteen leagues. It got its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. By the last treaty of peace, however, it was ceded in express terms to the English; but we have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being at present no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Carribbees, who being expelled their own settlements, have taken refuge here. According to some authors, it is one of the best of the Carribbee islands, on account of its fruitful vallies, large plains, and fine rivulets. The sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West-Indies.

St. VINCENT.] Seated 13 deg. 30 min. north lat. and in 61 deg. west lon. fifty miles north-west of Barbadoes, thirty miles south of St. Lucia, is about twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, and indigo thrives here remarkably well. It is at present chiefly inhabited by the Caribbeans, and many fugitives from Barbadoes

Barbadoes and the other islands, who are now numerous, and have many villages where they are said to live well.

GRANADA AND THE GRENADINES.] Granada is situated in 12 deg. north latitude, and in 61 deg. 40 min. west lon. about thirty leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and about the same distance north of New Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. Experience has proved that the soil of this island is extremely proper for producing sugar, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill in the middle of the island supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which might be fortified to great advantage, which renders it very convenient for shipping; and it has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. Its chief port, called Lewis, has a sandy bottom, and is so capacious and safe, that a thousand vessels from three to four hundred tun, may ride secure from storms; and a hundred ships of the greatest burden may be moored in its harbour. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which these handful of Caribbees defended themselves with the most resolute bravery. In the last war, when Granada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the small islands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great-Britain by the treaty of peace.

TOBAGO.] The most southerly of all the British islands or settlements in America (excepting that of Falkland Island, in the South-Seas) is situated 11 deg. odd min. north lat. a hundred and twenty miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish Main. This island is about thirty-two miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West-Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal, all valuable commodities, and which will undoubtedly render this island of vast importance and immense benefit to Great-Britain. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kind of shipping. The value and importance of this island appears from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great-Britain.

These four last mentioned islands were since the war erected into one government.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Exclusive of the West-India sugar islands lying between the two continents of America, Great-Britain claims some others,

others, which are seated at the distance of some thousand miles from one another, upon the coast of this quarter of the globe, of which we shall speak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is situated to the east of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. west lon. separated from New-Britain by the Streights of Belleisle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Lawrence, being three hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island we are far from reaping any sudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and severe; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island with which we are acquainted, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the sea coast perhaps is no very remote prospect) will afford a large supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West-India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and North-America, at the lowest computation, annually employ three thousand sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of ten thousand hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the royal navy. This fishery is computed to encrease the national stock 300,000l. a year in gold and silver, remitted to us for the cod we sell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank, and the lesser ones, which lie to the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, New-Scotland, New-England, and the isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts; from which we may observe, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or so barren as not to produce any thing from their soil, their coasts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that arising from the most fertile soil.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and they now have a very considerable share of the fishery. The chief towns are Placentia, Bonaville, and St. John; but there do not above a thousand families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This island, seated between Newfoundland and Nova-Scotia, is in length about a hundred and ten miles. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water. Since the conquest of this island by Great-Britain in the late war, France has not one sea port for the relief and shelter of her trading ships, either to or from the West-Indies, open to them any where

in America, to the northward of the river Mississippi; and consequently their whole trade in the fishery must for the future be exposed to the English privateers from the northern colonies in the time of war; a circumstance which may have some weight with that nation, in rendering them less forward to commence hostilities with Great-Britain.

ST. JOHN'S.] Situated in the gulph of St. Lawrence, is about sixty miles in length; and though lying near Cape-Breton and New-Scotland, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape-Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms; and to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages of New-Scotland; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was stiled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] They received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Sommers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated, at a vast distance from any continent, in 32 deg. north lat. and in 65 deg. west lon. Their distance from the land's end is computed near fifteen hundred leagues, from the Madeciras about twelve hundred, and from Carolina three hundred. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above twenty thousand acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided there, expresses it, walled with rocks. The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions is perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vines, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about ten thousand, is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar of which they are built is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended with seven or eight forts and seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above a thousand houses, a handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, between 22 and 27 deg. north lat. and 73 and 81 deg. west lon. they extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the Isle of Cuba; and are said to be five hundred in number, some of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: all are, however, absolutely uninhabited, except Providence, which is two hundred miles east of the Floridas, though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the Gulph of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe. These islands were the first fruits

of

of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven in upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands for being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the Isle of Providence became an harbour for the Buccaneers or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement these islands have been improving, though they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and West-India islands, we shall now proceed along the south-east coast of America, as far as the 52d degree of south lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland islands, situated near the Streights of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of South-America. It has been generally believed, that the richest gold mines in Chili are carefully concealed by the Indians, as well knowing that the discovery of them would only excite in the Spaniards a greater thirst for conquest and tyranny, and would render their own independence more precarious. King Charles II. of England, considered the discovery of this coast of such consequence, that Sir John Narborough was purposely fitted out to survey the Streights of Magellan, the neighbouring coast of Patagonia, and the Spanish ports in that frontier; with directions, if possible, to procure some intercourse with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at least on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to establish a commerce and a lasting correspondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental causes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promised so many advantages to this nation, his transactions upon that coast, besides the many valuable improvements he furnished to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for further trials of this kind, than any objection against them. It appeared by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the scheme he was sent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehension of its consequences. It is said, that his majesty king Charles II. was so far prepossessed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was so eager to be informed of the event of it, that, having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's passing through the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himself in his barge to Gravesend to meet him.

“As therefore it appears (says the author of Anson's Voyage) that all our future expeditions to the South-Sea must run a considerable risk of proving abortive, whilst in our passage thither we are under the necessity of touching at the Portuguese settlement of Brazil (for they may certainly depend on having their strength, condition, and designs betrayed to the Spaniards) the discovery of some place more to the southward,

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where ships might refresh, and supply themselves with the necessary sea-stock for their voyage round Cape Horn, would be an expedient that would relieve us from these embarrassments, and would surely be a matter worthy the attention of the public. Nor does this seem difficult to be effected; for we have already the imperfect knowledge of two places, which might, perhaps, on examination, prove extremely convenient for this purpose; one of them is Pepy's Island, in the latitude of forty-seven, south, and laid down by Dr. Halley about eighty leagues to the eastward of Cape Blanco, on the coast of Patagonia; the other is *Falkland's Isles*, in the latitude of fifty-one and a half, lying nearly south of Pepy's Island. The last of these have been seen by many ships, both French and English. Woodes Rogers, who run along the north-east coast of these isles in the year 1708, tells us that they extended about two degrees in length, and appeared with gentle descents from hill to hill, and seemed to be good ground, interspersed with woods, and not destitute of harbours. Either of these places, as they are islands at a considerable distance from the continent, may be supposed, from their latitude, to lie in a climate sufficiently temperate. This, even in time of peace, might be of great consequence to this nation; and in time of war, would make us masters of those seas."

It would appear, from the secret expeditions lately made to the South-Seas, that, besides this new settlement on Falkland islands, since that gentleman wrote, the government have another in view, round Cape Horn, which indeed is equally necessary for a place of general rendezvous, to refit and refresh after effecting that dreadful navigation; and where, when accomplished, our ships, in time of war, approach a hostile coast, the only good ports in these seas being possessed by the Spaniards.

By our having the possession of one good harbour here, and keeping the royal navy on a respectable footing, we shall have nothing to fear from all the united force of France, Spain, and Portugal. Whoever turns his eye to the map of America, and observes the number of our settlements, and their situation in respect to the possessions of those powers in this quarter, will see the impossibility of their trade escaping the vigilance of our cruisers, pouring out from every corner of this immense country. Add to this, that having hitherto attempted their colonies with success, what may we not expect in a future war, from such additional strength, so many convenient harbours to refit, or to supply our fleets and armies.

P R O C L A M A T I O N ,

For regulating the Cessions made to us by the last Treaty of Peace.

G E O R G E R .

WHEREAS we have taken into our royal consideration the extensive and valuable acquisitions in America, secured to our crown, by the late definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Paris, the 10th day of February last; and being desirous that all our loving subjects, as well of our kingdoms as of our colonies in America, may avail them-

themselves, with all convenient speed, of the great benefits and advantages, which must accrue therefrom to their commerce, manufactures, and navigation; we have thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council, to issue this our royal proclamation, hereby to publish and declare to all our loving subjects, that we have, with the advice of our said privy-council, granted our letters patent, under our great seal of Great-Britain, to erect within the countries and islands, ceded and confirmed to us by the said treaty, four distinct and separate governments, stiled and called by the names of Quebec, East-Florida, West-Florida, and Grenada, and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

First, The government of Quebec, bounded on the Labrador coast by the river St. John, and from thence by a line drawn from the head of that river through the Lake St. John to the south end of the lake Nipissim; from whence the said line, crossing the river St. Lawrence and the lake Champlain in 45 degrees of north latitude, passes along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the said river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the sea; and also along the north coast of the Bay des Chaleurs, and the coast of the Gulph of St. Lawrence to Cape Rosieres, and from thence crossing the mouth of the river St. Lawrence by the west end of the island Anticosti, terminates at the aforesaid river of St. John.

Secondly, The government of East-Florida, bounded to the westward, by the Gulph of Mexico and the Apalachicola river; to the northward, by a line drawn from that part of the said river, where the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers meet, to the source of St. Mary's river; and by the source of the said river to the Atlantic Ocean; and to the eastward and southward, by the Atlantic Ocean, and the Gulph of Florida, including all islands within six leagues of the sea coast.

Thirdly, The government of West-Florida, bounded to the southward by the coast of Mexico, including all islands within six leagues of the coast of the river Apalachicola to Lake Pontchartrain; to the westward, by the same lake, the lake Maurepas, and the river Mississippi; to the northward, by a line drawn due east from that part of the river Mississippi which lies in 31 degrees north latitude, to the river Apalachicola or Chatahouchee; and to the eastward by the said river.

Fourthly, the government of Grenada, comprehending the island of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the islands of Dominico, St. Vincent, and Tobago.

And to the end that the open and free fishery of our subjects may be extended to, and carried on upon the coast of Labrador, and the adjacent islands, we have thought fit, with the advice of our said privy-council, to put all that coast, from the river St. John's to Hudson's Streights, together with the islands of Anticosti and Madelaine, and all other smaller islands lying upon the said coast, under the care and inspection of our governour of Newfoundland.

We have also, with the advice of our privy-council, thought fit to annex the islands of St. John, and Cape Breton, or Isle Royale, with the lesser islands adjacent thereto, to our government of Nova Scotia.

We have also, with the advice of our privy-council aforesaid, annexed to our province of Georgia, all the lands lying between the rivers Alamaha and St. Mary's.

benefits and advancement, manufactures, and the like, by the advice of our privy-council, to publish and declare the advice of our said council, under the great seal of Great-Britain, and confirmed by our several orders, and decrees, and ordinances, and commands, and letters, and patents, and commissions, and writs, and process, and other such like, in the said colonies, and in Florida, and Gre-

the Labrador coast by the mouth of the head of the said river, and the end of the lake Nier St. Lawrence and passes along the high banks of the said river into the said river, and also along the coast of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, and the mouth of the said river, and terminates at the said river, where the source of St. Mary's river discharges into the Atlantic Ocean; and the said river is six leagues of the

bounded to the westward, and the said river, where the source of St. Mary's river discharges into the Atlantic Ocean; and the said river is six leagues of the

bounded to the southward, and the said river, where the source of St. Mary's river discharges into the Atlantic Ocean; and the said river is six leagues of the

including the island of Dominico,

our subjects may be in the said adjacent parts of the said privy-council, to the said Streights, together with all other smaller islands, and inspection of our

council, thought fit to be done, or Isle Royale, and the government of Nova

council aforesaid, annexed to the said river Alata-

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the speedy settling our said new governments that our loving subjects should be informed of our paternal care for the security of the liberties and properties of those, who are and shall become inhabitants thereof: we have thought fit to publish and declare, by this our proclamation, that we have, in the letters patent under our great seal of Great-Britain, by which the said governments are constituted, given express power and direction to our governors of our said colonies respectively, that so soon as the state and circumstances of the said colonies will admit thereof, they shall, with the advice and consent of the members of our council, summon and call general assemblies within the said governments respectively, in such manner and form as is used and directed in those colonies and provinces in America, which are under our immediate government; and we have also given power to the said governors, with the consent of our said councils, and the representatives of the people, so to be summoned as aforesaid, to make, constitute, and ordain laws, statutes, and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of our said colonies, and of the people and inhabitants thereof, as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, and under such regulations and restrictions as are used in other colonies; and in the mean time, and until such assemblies can be called as aforesaid, all persons inhabiting in or resorting to our said colonies, may confide in our royal protection for the enjoyment of the benefit of the laws of our realm of England; for which purpose we have given power under our great seal to the governors of our said colonies respectively, to erect and constitute, with the advice of our said councils respectively, courts of judicature and public justice within our said colonies, for the hearing and determining all causes, as well criminal as civil, according to law and equity, and as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, with liberty to all persons, who may think themselves aggrieved by the sentences of such courts, in all civil cases, to appeal, under the usual limitations and restrictions, to us, in our privy-council.

We have also thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council as aforesaid, to give unto the governors and councils of our said three new colonies upon the continent, full power and authority to settle and agree with the inhabitants of our said new colonies, or with any other persons who shall resort thereto, for such lands, tenements, and hereditaments, as are now or hereafter shall be in our power to dispose of, and them to grant to any such person or persons, upon such terms, and under such moderate quit-rents, services, and acknowledgments, as have been appointed and settled in our other colonies, and under such other conditions as shall appear to us to be necessary and expedient for the advantage of the grantees, and the improvement and settlement of our said colonies.

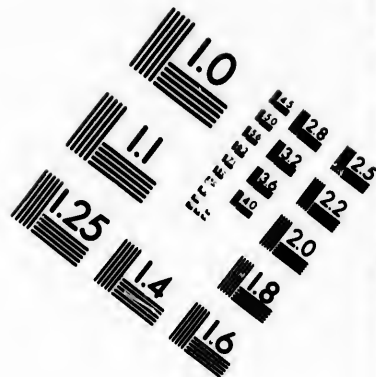
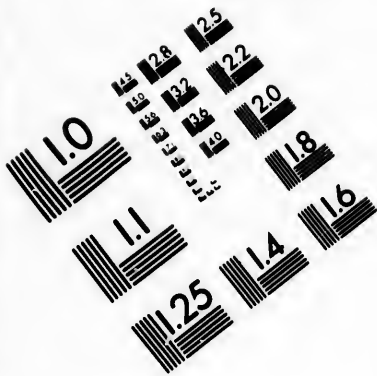
And whereas we are desirous, upon all occasions, to testify our royal sense and approbation of the conduct and bravery of the officers and soldiers of our armies, and to reward the same, we do hereby command and empower our governors of our said three new colonies, and all other our governors of our several provinces on the continent of North-America, to grant, without fee or reward, to such reduced officers as have served in North-America during the late war; and to such private soldiers as have been or shall be disbanded in America, and are actually residing there, and shall personally apply for the same, the following quantities of lands,

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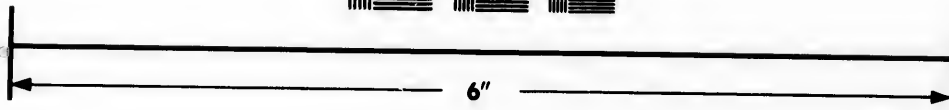
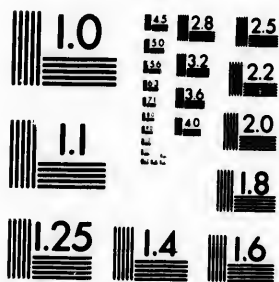
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subject, at the expiration of ten years, to the same quit-rents as other lands are subject to in the province within which they are granted, as also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement, viz.

To every person having the rank of a field officer, 5000 acres.

To every captain, 3000 acres.

To every subaltern or staff-officer, 2000 acres.

To every non-commission officer, 200 acres.

To every private man, 50 acres.

We do likewise authorise and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our said colonies upon the continent of North-America, to grant the like quantities of land, and upon the same conditions, to such reduced officers of the royal navy of like rank, as served on board our ships of war in North-America, at the times of the reduction of Louisbourg and Quebec, in the late war, and who shall personally apply to our respective governors for such grants.

And whereas it is just and reasonable, and essential to our interest, and the security of our colonies, that the several nations or tribes of Indians, with whom we are connected, and who live under our protection, should not be molested or disturbed in the possession of such parts of our dominions and territories as not having been ceded to or purchased by us, are reserved to them or any of them as their hunting-grounds, we do therefore, with the advice of our privy-council, declare it to be our royal will and pleasure, that no governor or commander in chief in any of our colonies of Quebec, East-Florida, or West-Florida, do presume, upon any pretence whatever, to grant warrants of survey, or pass patents for lands beyond the bounds of their respective governments, as described in their commissions; as also that no governor or commander in chief in any of our other colonies or plantations in America, do presume for the present, and until our further pleasure be known, to grant warrants of survey, or pass patents for any lands beyond the heads or sources of any of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the west and north-west; or upon any lands whatever, which not having been ceded to, or purchased by us, as aforesaid, are reserved to the said Indians, or any of them.

And we do further declare it to be our royal will and pleasure, for the present as aforesaid, to reserve under our sovereignty, protection, and dominion, for the use of the said Indians, all the lands and territories not included within the limits of our said three new governments, or within the limits of the territory granted to the Hudson's-Bay company; as also all the lands and territories lying to the westward of the sources of the rivers which fall into the sea from the west and north-west as aforesaid; and we do hereby strictly forbid, on pain of our displeasure, all our loving subjects from making any purchases or settlements whatever, or taking possession of any of the lands above reserved, without our especial leave and licence for that purpose first obtained.

And we do further strictly enjoin and require all persons whatever, who have either wilfully or inadvertently seated themselves upon any lands within the countries above described, or upon any other lands, which not having been ceded to or purchased by us, are still reserved to the said Indians as aforesaid, forthwith to remove themselves from such settlements.

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And whereas great frauds and abuses have been committed in the purchasing lands of the Indians, to the great prejudice of our interests, and to the great dissatisfaction of the said Indians; In order therefore to prevent such irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our justice and determined resolution to remove all reasonable cause of discontent, we do, with the advice of our privy-council, strictly enjoyn and require, that no private person do presume to make any purchase from the said Indians of any lands reserved to the said Indians within those parts of our colonies, where we have thought proper to allow settlement; but that if at any time any of the said Indians should be inclined to dispose of the said lands, the same only should be purchased only for us. in our name, at some public meeting or assembly of the said Indians, to be held for that purpose by the governor or commander in chief of our colony respectively, within which they shall lie; and in case they should lie within the limits of any proprietary government, they shall be purchased only for the use and in the name of such proprietors, conformable to such directions and instructions as we or they shall think proper to give for that purpose. And we do, by the advice of our privy-council, declare and enjoyn, that the trade with said Indians shall be free and open to all our subjects whatever; provided that every person, who may incline to trade with the said Indians, do take out a licence for carrying on such a trade, from the governor or commander in chief of any of our colonies respectively, where such person shall reside, and also give security to observe such regulations as we shall at any time think fit, by ourselves or by our commissaries, to be appointed for this purpose, to direct and appoint for the benefit of the said trade: And we do hereby authorise, enjoin, and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our colonies respectively, as well as those under our immediate government, as those under the government and direction of proprietaries, to grant such licences without fee or reward; taking especial care to insert therein a condition that such licence shall be void, and the security forfeited, in case the person, to whom the same is granted, shall refuse or neglect to observe such regulations as we shall think proper to prescribe as aforesaid.

And we do further expressly enjoin and require all officers whatever, as well military as those employed in the management and direction of Indian affairs within the territories reserved, as aforesaid, for the use of the said Indians, to seize and apprehend all persons whatever, who, standing charged with treason, misprisions of treasons, murders, or other felonies and misdemeanours, shall fly from justice and take refuge in the said territory, and to send them under a proper guard to the colony where the crime was committed of which they stand accused, in order to take their trial for the same.

Given at our court at St. James's, the 7th day of October, 1763,
 in the third year of our reign.

G O D Save the K I N G .

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

OLD MEXICO OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 83 \\ \text{and} \\ 116 \end{array} \right.$	$\left. \right\}$ W. Lon.	$\left. \right\}$ Being	2000 miles in length.
Between				$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 8 \\ \text{and} \\ 28 \end{array} \right.$

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the gulph of Mexico on the north-east; by Terra Firma, on the south-east; and by the Pacific ocean, on the south-west, containing three audiences, viz.

Audiences.		Chief Towns.
1. Galicia or Guadalajarra	_____	Guadalajarra, W. lon. 108. N. lat. 40-45.
2. Mexico Proper	_____	Mexico, W. lon. 105. N. lat. 20.
3. Guatimala	_____	Guatimala, W. lon. 97. N. lat. 4-30.

BAYS.] On the north-sea are the gulphs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific ocean, or South Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

CAPES.] These are cape Sardo, cape St. Martin, cape Cornuceado, cape Catcoche, cape Honduras, cape Cameron, and cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, cape Spirito Sancto, cape Orientes, cape Gallero, cape Blanco, cape Burica, cape Prucreos, and cape Mala, in the South Sea.

WINDS.] In the gulph of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a distance from land within the tropic. Near the coast in the South Sea, they have their periodical winds, viz. Monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico, lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot, and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise extremely unwholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the western side the land is not so low, as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain were the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. New Spain produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially

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especially towards the gulph of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, so that there are more sugar mills than in any other part of Spanish America. But what is considered as the chief glory of this country, and what first induced the Spaniards to form settlements upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, confining upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broke into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which cling to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver, than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by straining and evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself. Of the gold and silver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been said. Those who have enquired most into this subject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver. The other articles next in importance to gold and silver, are the cochineal and cacao. After much dispute concerning the nature of the former, it seems at last agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called Opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dyeing all the sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson and purple. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity, to answer the purposes of medicine and dyeing. The cacao, of which chocolate is made, is the next considerable article in the natural history and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cacao. Within there is a pulp of a refreshing acid taste, which fills up the interstices between the nuts before they are ripe; but, when they fully ripen, these nuts are packed up wonderfully close, and in a most regular order; they have a pretty tough shell, within which is the oily substance, of which chocolate is made. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the internal consumption, as well as external call for it, that a small garden of cacao's is said to produce to the owner, twenty thousand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silk, but not in such abundance as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightness is the common wear of the inhabitants. The other productions of this country, whether animal or vegetable kind, will be mentioned in their proper places.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS. } We shall place these heads under one point of view, because, as the reader will soon be sensible, they are very nearly connected. We have already described the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians and negroes. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a still more considerable portion of pride; for they consider themselves as entitled to very high distinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which makes the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering, and inactive pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade, and little conveniency, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of consequence are not at all distinguished for their chastity or domestic virtues. The Indians, who notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become by continual oppression and indignity, a dejected timorous and miserable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and well adapted for the gross slavery they endure.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power, which his Catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration. For, as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politicks, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor; the clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that priests, monks and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. It is impossible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to ecclesiastics in any part of the world. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church should enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more surprising, that it has not a half.

COMMERCE, CITIES, } The trade of Mexico consists of three AND SHIPPING. } great branches, which extends over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by la Vera Cruz, with the East Indies, by Acapulco, and with South America, by the same port. These two sea-ports Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied.

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applied. It is by means of the former, that Mexico pours her wealth over all the whole world; and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessities, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometimes in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz, they sail to the Havanna, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of these ships, for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carries goods, consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the east. At the same time the annual ship from Lima comes in, and is not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galeons cargoes. Several other ships from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the Flota, so, the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the center of commerce in this part of the world. For here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all pass through this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited, and here is wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate which is every year sent into Europe. The city itself breathes the air of the highest magnificence, and according to the best accounts contains about eighty thousand inhabitants.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{ 104 and 136	{ W. Lon. }	} Being {	2000 miles in length.
Between	{ 28 and 46	{ N. Lat. }		1600 miles in breadth.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by unknown lands on the north; by Louisiana, on the east; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific ocean, on the south; and by the same ocean, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
North-east division	{ New Mexico Proper }	{ Santa Fé, W. Lon. 102. N. Lat. 36.
South-east division	{ Apacheira — }	{ St. Antonio.
South division	Sonora —	Tuape.
West division	{ California, a penin- sula }	{ St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] These countries lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California however they experience great heats in the summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF } The natural history of these countries
THE COUNTRY. } is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of the matter, and the little they know, they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at least still preserve their independance; they are jealous of discovering the natural advantages of these countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe, to form settlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California, are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines in those countries, nothing positive can be asserted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production. In the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm and clear as crystal, which considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

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INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION AND COMMERCE. } The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak; though they are encreasing every day in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life, to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator Sir Francis Drake took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title however the government of Great-Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

Spanish Dominions in SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, or Castilla del Oro.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between { 60 and 82 the Equator and 12 } W. Lon. } Being { 1400 miles in length. }
 Between { } N. Lat. } { 700 miles in breadth. }

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the north sea (part of the Atlantic ocean) on the north; by the same sea and Surinam, on the east; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the south; and the Pacific ocean and Veragua, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The north division contains the provinces of	1. Terra-firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello
	2. Carthagena	Panama
	3. St. Martha	Carthagena
	4. Rio de la Hacha	St. Martha
	5. Venezuela	Rio de la Hacha
	6. Comana	Venezuela
	7. New Andalusia, or Paria	Comana
The south division contains the provinces of	1. New Granada	St. Thomas
	2. Popayan	Santa Fé de Bagota
		Popayan.

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra-firma proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Panama in the South Sea to Porto Bello in the north, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America.

The principal bays in Terra-firma are, 1. The bay of Panama. 2. The bay of St. Michael's in the South-Sea; and, 3. The bay of Porto Bello. 4. The gulph of Darien. 5. Sino bay. 6. Carthagena bay



bay and harbour. 7. The gulph of Venezuela. 8. The bay of Maracaibo. 9. The gulph of Trietto. 10. The bay of Guaira. 11. The bay of Curiaco; and, 12. The gulph of Paria or Andalusia, in the north sea.

The chief capes are, 1. Samblas point. 2. Point Canoa. 3. Cape del Agua. 4. Swart point. 5. Cape de Vela. 6. Cape Conquibacoa. 7. Cape Cabelo. 8. Cape Blanco. 9. Cape Galera. 10. Cape Three Points; and, 11. Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra-firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris, is continual at Carthagena; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This however only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees, most remarkable for their dimensions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam tree. The manzanillo tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The malignity of this tree is such, that if a person only sleeps under it, he finds his body all swelled, and racked with the severest tortures. The beasts from instinct always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold in this country, which are now in a great measure exhausted. Terra Firma likewise produces all the tropical fruits, and Indian corn in abundance. The silver, iron, and copper mines, have been since opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts, it is therefore unnecessary to repeat them hereafter. Among those peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth, or as it is called by way of derision, the Swift Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time, so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the first hostile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgustful howlings,

so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with a world of uneasiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himself in a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys of Campeachy are very numerous; they keep together twenty or thirty in a company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter, and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

NATIVES.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general description, page 551, there is another species of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

**INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, } We have already mentioned how this
AND CHIEF TOWNS. }** country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have observed therefore with regard to that country, it is only necessary to add that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the *Tercerones*, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the *Quarterones*, who, though still nearer the former, are disgraced with a tint of negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites, are the *Quinterones*, which is very remarkable, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and beside these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Cartagena, and Porro Bello; which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found in the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves, are employed in fishing for these, and have arrived at wonderful dexterity at this occupation. They are sometimes however devoured by fish, while they dive to the bottom, or crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

SITUATION AND EXTENT,

Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 60 \\ \text{and} \\ 70 \\ \text{the} \\ \text{Equator} \\ \text{and} \\ 25 \end{array} \right\}$ W. Lon. } Being $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 500 \text{ miles in breadth.} \\ 2000 \text{ miles in length.} \end{array} \right.$

BOUNDARIES.] B O U N D E D by Terra Firma, on the north; by the mountains, or Cordeleiria's des Andes, east; by Chili, south; and by the Pacific ocean, west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north division	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Quito} \text{ ——— } \text{ ———} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Quito} \\ \text{Payta.} \end{array} \right.$
The middle division	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Lima, or Los Reyes} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Lima, Cusco, and} \\ \text{Callao.} \end{array} \right.$
The south division	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Los Charcos} \text{ ———} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Potosi} \\ \text{Porco.} \end{array} \right.$

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific ocean or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port town to Lima, in 12 deg. 20 min. S. Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is a river whose waters are as red as blood. The rivers Grande, or Cagdalená, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, rise in the Andes.

A great many other rivers rise in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. Lat.

PETREFIED WATERS.] There are some waters, which, in their course, turn into stone; and fountains of liquid matter, called Coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet, having on one side the south sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so stifled with heat, as the other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, shields them from the direct rays of the sun; but what is extremely singular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew, which falls regularly every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. Along the sea coast Peru is generally a dry barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosi, when the silver there was found at the easiest expence, for now having gone so deep, it is not so easily brought up, contained ninety thousand souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is not less remarkable for its fineness, than for the animals on which it grows; these they call Lamas and Vicunna. The Lama has a small head,

head, in some measure resembling that of a horse and sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which enflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the Lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of sixty or seventy pounds weight. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The Vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the Vicunna too is found the Bezoar stones, regarded as a specific against poisons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit, resembling the almond. But it is only the bark, which has these excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Arica, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually to the value of six hundred thousand crowns. Peru is likewise the only part of Spanish America, which produces quicksilver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, where it is found in a whitish mass resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilised by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

[MANUFACTURES, TRADE AND CITIES.] We join these articles here because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire, its situation in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about sixty thousand inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palata, made his entry into Lima, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches, with gold, silver and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could justify these accounts is the immense richness and extensive

ensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the product of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the East Indies, land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, Callao, for this is the name of the harbour, was demolished by an earthquake: never was any destruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of all the inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity. The city Callao contained several thousands, and a new harbour is since erected. Cusco, the antient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has been long on the decline. But it is still a very considerable place, and contains above forty thousand inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also both here and in Quito, which shall be mentioned directly, a particular taste for painting, and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed over all South America. Quito is next to Lima in populoufness, if not superior to it. It is like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS } It would be in vain to pretend saying
AND GOVERNMENT.] any thing decisive with regard to the
number of inhabitants in Peru. The Spaniards themselves are remarkably silent on this head. It has been guessed by some writers, that in all Spanish America, there are about three millions of Spaniards and creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any respect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole of the Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is agreed on by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Castilian could not think of but with detestation. This no doubt in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents, and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy resides, whose authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has been lately detached from

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it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain, but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiencies or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

C H I L I.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	75	{	W. Lon.	{	Being	{	600 miles in breadth.
		and						
		85						
Between	{	25	{	S. Lat.	{	Being	{	1200 miles in length.
		and						
		45						

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru on the north; by La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacific ocean on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
On the west side of the Andes	Chili Proper	St. Jago, W. Lon. 77. S. Lat. 34. Baldivio. Imperial.
On the east side of the Andes	Cuyo, or Cutio	St. John de Frontiera.

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of silt; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

BAYS, SEAS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific ocean on the west.

The principal bays or harbours are Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariso, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewers-haven, and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru, and they have gold almost in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition, with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above twenty thousand; and the Indians, negroes and mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number.

COMMERCE.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn sufficient for sixty thousand men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raised in no other part of the South Seas, hides, tallow, and salted provisions, and receive in return the commodities of Europe, and the East Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 50 \\ 75 \\ 12 \end{array} \right\}$ and $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 75 \\ 12 \\ 37 \end{array} \right\}$ } W. Lon. } Being $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1500 \text{ miles in length.} \\ 1000 \text{ miles in breadth.} \end{array} \right\}$
 Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 50 \\ 75 \\ 12 \end{array} \right\}$ and $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 75 \\ 12 \\ 37 \end{array} \right\}$ } S. Lat. }

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia, on the north; by Brasil, east; by Patagonia, on the south; and by Peru and Chili, west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
East division contains —	Paraguay ———	Assumption
	Parana ———	St. Anne
	Guaira ———	Cividad Real
	Uragua ———	Los Reyes
South division —	Tucuman ———	St. Jago
	Rio de la Plata ———	Buenos Ayres, W. Lon. 60. S. Lat. 36.

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which is a hundred miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, which united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime, that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, interrupted by not the least hill for several hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb, called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for 7 dollar, and the usual price for a beast chosen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably

markedly sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF } The Spaniards first discovered this
CITY AND COMMERCE. } country, by sailing up the river La
Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, fifty leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spanish America; two, or at most three, register ships, make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brazil as lie near this country. Since the English have got a footing near this coast by their new settlement of port Egmont on the Falkland isles, we may suppose they will make an attempt to a share of this profitable commerce. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are so much the same with those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, that nothing further can be said on those articles.

But we cannot quit this country without saying something of that extraordinary species of commonwealth, which the Jesuits have erected in the interior parts, and of which these crafty priests have endeavoured to keep all strangers in the dark.

About the middle of last century those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that their want of success in their missions, was owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians, wherever they came. They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out; an uncontroled liberty was given to the Jesuits within these limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without license from the fathers. They on their part agreed, to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle; and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure, which has amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it has brought on so much envy and jealousy, to their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and with such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most

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savage

savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government, who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion, and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with precision all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone, that could conduce to their remaining in this subjection, or that could tend to encrease their number to the degree requisite for a well ordered and potent society; and it is said that above three hundred and forty thousand families, several years ago, were subject to the Jesuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: That the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed: That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of their missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers however have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity, accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause even the magistrates, who are always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdictions, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possess large property, all manufactures are theirs, the natural produce of the country is brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of the order, seem to evince that zeal for religion, is not the only motive of their forming these missions. The fathers will not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. Some years ago, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. And we are informed by the authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with a considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situated between twenty and twenty-three degrees north latitude, and between seventy-four and eighty-seven degrees west longitude, a hundred miles to the south of cape Florida, and seventy-five north of Jamaica, and is near seven hundred miles in length, and generally about seventy miles in breadth. A chain of hills run through the middle of the island from east to west, but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, musk and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar, but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large

large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence, but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about two thousand houses, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the last war, but restored in the sixty-third article of the treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone, but by far the most considerable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original possessors, and still continue to have a share in it, Hispaniola is commonly regarded as a Spanish island.

It is situated between the seventeenth and twenty-first degree north latitude, and the sixty-seventh and seventy-fourth of west longitude, lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is four hundred and fifty miles long, and a hundred and fifty broad. The face of the country presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods and rivers, and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines however are not worked now. The north-west parts, which are in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part, of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the new world, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is sometimes named, especially by the French. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattos, mustees, and negroes. The Spaniards have also Conception De la Vega, from which Columbus had the title of duke De la Vega.

The French towns are, cape St. Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor palisaded, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about eight thousand whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of size, is a good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in that island. They have two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above-mentioned places, are not less in value than 1,200,000*l*. They likewise carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spanish dollars.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 deg. west lon. and in 18 deg. north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is a hundred and fifty miles long, and fifty broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthful in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here, but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side of the main island, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the center of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 60 and 62 deg. west lon. and in 10 deg. north lat. lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the streights of Paria. It is about ninety miles long, and sixty broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 65 deg. west lon. and 11.30 N. lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a streight of twenty-four miles, is about fifty miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, on which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is Chiloe, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 deg. west lon. and 33 north lat. three hundred miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited, but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being discovered, unless when, as is generally the case, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Brazil. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgot his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats skins, would drink nothing but

but water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island, he had killed five hundred goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught, thirty years after, by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that industrious gentleman, by the help of these papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again, after defrauding him, by this piece of craft, of the benefits he was so justly entitled to hope from them.

The other islands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago isles, situated four hundred miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Islands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA,
CONTAINING BRAZIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Between	{	35	and	}	W. Lon.	} Being	{	700 miles in breadth.
		51	the					
Between	{	Equator	and	}	S. Lat.			2500 miles in length.
			35					

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same ocean, on the east; by the mouth of the river Plata, south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the west.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South-Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES. } The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brazil on the north-east and east, upwards of three thousand miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Panambuco, All-Saints, Porto-Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Tribu, and Cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brazil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR AND CLIMATE. } The name of Brazil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brazil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to

the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceeding pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar. Also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaibo, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restraining.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these, with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brazil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet, penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentine, which are borne on the negroes shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtains aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them, make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron; this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarce any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from
Portugal,

Portugal, and compose three *flotas*, bound to as many ports in Brazil; namely, to Fernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All-Saints, in the middle.

In this last is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and sometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour; it is built upon an high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. This situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brazil.

The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brazil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000*l*. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal: they consist of the woollen goods, of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flower, and cheese. Oil they have from Spain: wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal.

England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption and what they want for the use of the Brazils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Hence it is principally that Brazil is the richest, most flourishing, and most growing establishment in America. Their export of sugar, within forty years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in our American colonies. The northern and southern parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle; these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than 20,000 are sent annually to Europe.

The Portuguese were a considerable time possessed of Brazil before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds, which have since made it so considerable. Their fleets rendezvous in the Bay of All-Saints, to the amount of an hundred sail of large ships, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the *flota* and galeons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was first discovered by Americus Vesputio, in 1498, but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1623, when in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which instantly decides the fate of kingdoms: don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors, and by that event the Portuguese lost their liberty, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch at this time having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and not satisfied with supporting their independency by a successful defensive war, and flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, they pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East-Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they took seven of the captainships or provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopt by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brazil; but their West-India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harrassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tuns of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country; which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brazil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortrefs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions and claims of the French before the last war, as appears by their maps, consisted of almost the whole continent of North-America; which vast country they divided into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada (comprehending a much greater extent than the British province of that name) and in which they included a great part of our provinces of New-York, New-England, and New-Scotland. The southern province they called Louisiana, in which they included part of Carolina. This distribution, and the military disposition which the French made to support it, formed the principal cause of the last war between Great-Britain and that nation, the issue of which is well known to all the world. For while, with the most indefatigable industry, the French were rearing their infant colonies, and, with the most sanguine hopes, forming vast designs of an extensive empire, one wrong step in their politics lost them the whole; their

their imaginary empire, which existed only upon the face of their maps, vanished like smoke. They over-rated their strength; and by commencing hostilities many years too soon, they were driven from Canada, and forced to yield to Great-Britain all that fine country of Louisiana eastward of the Mississippi. At the treaty of peace, however, they were allowed to keep possession of the western banks of that river, and the small town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; which, in 1769, they ceded to Spain, for reasons unknown to the public. They still keep possession of the country above this place, where they have several villages, and thriving plantations; but having no communication with the sea, except by the Mississippi, the cession of New Orleans, which commands the mouth of that river, to the Spaniards, has occasioned various conjectures.

The French have only one settlement more on the continent of America, which is called Cayenne, or Equinoctial France, and is situated between the equator and the fifth degree of north latitude, and between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth of west longitude. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coast of Guiana, and near three hundred miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia, south; and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Caen.

All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West-India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about forty-five miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were amongst the last nations who made settlements in the West-Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are sensible that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquisitions, the prosperity of their plantations must be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reason, the plantations are particularly under the care and inspection of the council of commerce, a board composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the crown, assisted by the deputies of all the considerable trading towns and cities in France, who are chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid a handsome salary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose plans for redressing every grievance in trade, for raising the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, for supporting the old, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or to the instructions of their constituents. When they are satisfied of the usefulness of any regulation, they propose it to the royal council, where their report

is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly issues; and is executed with a punctuality that distinguishes their government, and which alone can render the wisest regulations any thing better than serious mockeries. To this body, the care of the plantations is particularly entrusted.

The government of their several colonies, is a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is invested with a great deal of power; which, however, on the side of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue: and on the side of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whose office it is to see that the people are not oppressed by the one, nor defrauded by the other: and they are all checked by the constant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the severest penalties, to interrogate all captains of ships coming from the colonies, concerning the reception they met with at the ports to which they have failed? how justice was administered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as possible, and that the governor may have less temptation to stir up troublesome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his salary is paid by the crown: he has no perquisites, and is strictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the islands or on the continent; or any interest whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the house he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the soldiers paid out of the same funds.

In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, tax have been raised, they were very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce at the West-India islands, or at its import into France, is next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. What commodities go to them pay no duties at all.

Their other regulations, respecting the judges of the admiralty, lawsuits, recovery of debts, lenity to such as have suffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad seasons; the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, lastly, the management of negroes, cannot be sufficiently admired; and would, doubtless, be of great use, were some of them introduced into our sugar islands, where proper regulations in many respects seem to be much wanted.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spanish island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, as the most important and valuable of all their foreign settlements, and which they possess through the indolence of the Spaniards on that island, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We shall next proceed to the islands of which the French have the sole possession, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO.] Which is situated between fourteen and fifteen degrees of north latitude, and in sixty-one degrees west longitude, lying about forty leagues north west of Barbadoes, is about sixty miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out upon every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the
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neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West India islands, the principal commodity, of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious ; and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English, who in vain attempted this place. However, in the last war, when the British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16 deg. north lat. and in 62 west lon. about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua ; being sixty miles long, and thirty-eight broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ship can venture ; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt ; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, } Are three small islands
AND MARIGALANTE. } lying in the neighbour-
hood of Antigua and St. Christophers, and are of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West-India trade. It would therefore be good policy in Great-Britain, upon the breaking out of a war with France, immediately to take possession of these islands, which would seem to be a matter of no great difficulty, as they have been frequently reduced by the English, and as frequently given back to the French ; who have often, and upon many occasions, experienced the generosity of the British court.

DUTCH AMERICA,

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brazil in the manner we have seen ; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East-Indies, and to sit down content in the West with Surinam ; a country once in the possession of England, but of no great value whilst we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York ; and with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish Main.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, is situated between 5 and 7 deg. north lat. extending a hundred miles along the coast from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, south. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholsome ; and a considerable part of the coast is low and covered with water. The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the same name ; and the Dutch have extended their plantations thirty leagues above the mouth of this river. The colony is now in the most flourishing situation, not only

with Europe, but with the West-India islands. Their chief trade consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dying drugs. They trade with our North-American colonies, who bring hither horses, live cattle, and provisions; and take home a large quantity of molasses; but their negroes are only the refuse of those they have for the Spanish market.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIA.] SITUATED three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, and is only a mountain of about twenty-nine miles in compass, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and almost round. But, though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch have made it turn out to very good account; and it is said to contain five thousand whites, and fifteen thousand negroes. The sides of the mountain are laid out in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situated; and it draws the same advantage from its constant neutrality. Its situation renders it the strongest of all the West-India islands, there being but one good landing-place, which may be easily defended by a few men; and the haven is commanded by a strong fort.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 deg. north lat. nine or ten leagues from the continent of Terra-Firma, is thirty miles long and ten broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for the island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West-Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and their colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime

prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous warehouses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East-Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribbons, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West-India, which is also their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers shops, with every thing that is grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, jesuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in time of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000 l. but in time of war, the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West-Indies: it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition to destroy one another. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarce any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the English bring from the continent of North-America, or which is exported from Ireland; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West-India company alone; at present, such ships as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per. cent for their licences: the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martins, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatia, hardly deserve to be mentioned: the latter is partly inhabited by the English.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] A N inconsiderable member of the Caribbees, situated in 64 deg. west lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West-India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's

stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of three thousand hogheads of sugar of a thousand weight each, and others of the West-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish Main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to settle fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of great wealth have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement to do so.

These two nations, the Dutch and Danes (and we may now add the French) hardly deserve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their possessions there are comparatively nothing. But as they appear extremely worthy of the attention of these powers, and as the share of the Dutch is worth to them at least 600,000*l.* a year, what must we think of our extensive and valuable possessions? what attention do they not deserve from us? and what may not be made of them by that attention?

“There seems to be a remarkable providence (says an ingenious and polite writer) in casting the parts, if I may use that expression, of the several European nations who act upon the stage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a soft climate to indulge his love of ease, and a profusion of gold and silver to procure him all those luxuries his pride demands, but which his laziness would refuse him.

The Portuguese, naturally indigent at home, and enterprising rather than industrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but possesses them in a more useful, though a less ostentatious manner.

The English, of a reasoning disposition, thoughtful and cool, and men of business rather than of great industry, impatient of much fruitless labour, abhorrent of constraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor silver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exercise of agriculture, and sufficient to furnish their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the most useful restraints, their commerce flourishes from the freedom every man has of pursuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own fashion.

The French, active, lively, enterprising, pliable, and politic; and though changing their pursuits, always pursuing the present object with eagerness, are, notwithstanding, tractable and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their dispositions, and wind and turn them to proper courses. These people have a country (when Canada was in their possession) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires constant motion, flourishes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by struggling with them, and where their obedience to a wise government serves them for personal wisdom. In the islands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

The Dutch have got a rock or two, on which to display the miracles of frugality and diligence, (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted these virtues, and shewn those miracles.”

TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

In A M E R I C A.

IN North America, towards the pole, are New-Britain, New-North-Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like those of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and these savage; low in stature, and of an ugly appearance, scarcely resembling any thing human. They live upon the raw flesh of whales, bears, foxes, &c. and go muffled up in skins, the hairy sides next their bodies. In these unospitable regions, their nights (as may be seen in the table of climates in the Introduction), are from one to six months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable snow; so that the miserable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the sun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which washes America on the west, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the distance of a thousand miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazones on the south, is unknown, except a slip along the coast, where the French at Cayenne and the Dutch at Surinam, have made some settlements; which, from the unhealthfulness of the climate, almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back.

The country of Amazonia, so called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly discovered, though it is situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brazil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese, but being always attended with vast difficulties, so that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any settlement there.

Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, is sometimes described as part of Chili; but as the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren unospitable country.

In A S I A.

TOWARDS the north-east, are Yesso, Kamtschatka, and other countries or islands, which the Russians are daily discovering, but are imperfectly known even to that court, and supposed to be joined to North-America, or very near that part of the globe.

Below the Molucca isles, in the East-Indies, are New Guinea, Carpentaria, New Holland, Dieman's Land, and, a little farther, New Zealand; regions discovered by the Dutch and English about the middle of the last century, and are supposed to be a vast continent, entirely separated from

from Asia or America ; but our knowledge of them, even at this time, is very imperfect, our navigators having only sailed along the coasts, which stretch from the equator to forty-four degrees of south latitude, by whom we learn that the natives are black, go naked, and in some places are very numerous.

Besides these countries, the Europeans are daily making discoveries of islands that are scattered up and down the Pacific Ocean ; and it is generally believed that there are many large tracts of land towards the south-pole, of which at present we know nothing.

DIRECTIONS to the BINDER for placing the MAPS.

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The Sphere,	<i>page</i> vi. Introduction.	Italy;	— — 414.
Europe,	<i>p.</i> xlvii. ————	Asia,	— — 442.
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Russia, or Muscovy in Europe,	39.	Africa,	— — 518.
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UNIVERSAL TABLE,

of the present State of the *Real* and *Imaginary* MONIES of the WORLD:

into FOUR PARTS, viz.

AFRICA, and *AMERICA*,

Names of the most Capital Places, the Species whereof are specified, each Sub-division in which the Monies are reckoned by the respective Nations; and the Figures standing under the Value thereof, according to the best Assays made at the *Mint* of the *Tower* of LONDON.

EXPLANATION.

Designated thereby, as, A GUINEA, &c. [several other Pieces, as A POUND Sterling, &c. in keeping Accompts, signifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be represented but by make, or equal to.

The Value of each Foreign Piece standing over it, and all Fractions therein contained are Parts of a PENNY.

EXCHANGES of the BRITISH EMPIRE.

is A Groat 4d.	6 Pence	is A Half Shilling 6d.	12 Pence	is A Shilling 1s.	5 Shillings	is A Crown 5s.	20 Shillings	is * A Pound Ster. 1l.	21 Shillings	is A Guinea 1l. 1s.
= A Half Shilling 6d.	12 Pence	= * A Shilling Manks 10d. 7/8	14 Pence	= A Shilling 1s.	70 Pence	= A Crown 5s.	20 Shillings	= * A Pound Manks 17s. 1d. 7/8	24 1/2 Shillings	= A Guinea 1l. 1s.
= A Half Shilling 6d.	12 Pence	= * A Shilling Irish 11d. 1/2	13 Pence	= A Shilling 1s.	65 Pence	= A Crown 5s.	20 Shillings	= * A Pound Irish 18s. 5d. 1/2	22 1/2 Shillings	= A Guinea 1l. 1s.
= A Petard 7s.	6 Petards	= * A Scalin 6d. 1/8	7 Petards	= A Scalin 6d. 1/8	40 Grotes	= * Florin 1s. 6d.	17 1/2 Scalings	= A Ducat 9s. 3d.	240 Grots	= * A Pound Flem. 9s.
= A Scalin 6d. 1/8	20 Stivers	= A Guilder 1s. 9d.	50 Stivers	= A Rix-dollar 4s. 4d. 1/2	60 Stivers	= A Dry Guilder 5s. 3d.	105 Stivers	= A Ducat 9s. 3d.	6 Guilders	= * A Pound Flem. 10s. 6d.
= A Shilling lub 1d. 2/3	16 Shillings	= * A Marc 1s. 2d.	2 Marcs	= A Slet Dollar 3s.	3 Marcs	= A Rix-dollar 4s. 6d.	6 1/2 Marcs	= A Ducat 9s. 4d. 1/2	120 Shillings	= * A Pound Flem. 11s. 3d.
= A Grosh 1d. 1/3	8 Groshen	= A Half Gulden 1s. 2d.	16 Groshen	= A Gulden 2s. 4d.	24 Groshen	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	32 Groshen	= A double Gulden 4s. 8d.	4 Guildens	= A Ducat 9s. 2d.
= A Marien 1d. 1/2	12 Fenings	= A Grosh 1d. 1/3	16 Groshen	= A Gould 2s. 4d.	24 Groshen	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	32 Groshen	= A Specie Dollar 4s. 8d.	4 Goulds	= A Ducat 9s. 4d.
= An Abras 7s.	20 Groshen	= * A Marc 1s. 2d.	30 Groshen	= A Florin 1s. 2d.	90 Groshen	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	108 Groshen	= An Albertus 4s. 2d.	8 Florins	= A Ducat 9s. 4d.
= A Stiver 7s.	3 Stivers	= A Plapert 2d. 1/2	4 Plaperts	= A Copstuck 8d. 2/3	40 Stivers	= A Guilder 2s. 4d.	2 Guilders	= A Hard Dollar 4s. 8d.	4 Guilders	= A Ducat 9s. 3d.
= A Cruitzer 7s.	2 Cruitzers	= A White Grosh 1d. 1/3	60 Cruitzers	= A Gould 2s. 4d.	90 Cruitzers	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	2 Goulds	= A Hard Dollar 4s. 8d.	4 Goulds	= A Ducat 9s. 4d.
= A Grosh 1d. 1/3	4 Cruitzers	= A Batzen 1d. 1/3	15 Batzen	= A Gould 2s. 4d.	90 Cruitzers	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	30 Batzen	= A Specie Dollar 4s. 8d.	60 Batzen	= A Ducat 9s. 4d.
= A Batzen 1d. 1/3	15 Cruitzers	= An Ort 7d.	60 Cruitzers	= A Gould 2s. 4d.	90 Cruitzers	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	2 Goulds	= A Hard Dollar 4s. 8d.	240 Cruitzers	= A Ducat 9s. 4d.
= A Tine 7d.	18 Groshen	= An Ort 7d.	30 Groshen	= A Florin 1s. 2d.	90 Groshen	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	8 Florins	= A Ducat 9s. 2d.	5 Rix-dollars	= A Frederic d'Or 17s.
= A Whiten 1d. 1/3	6 Groshen	= A Marc 1s. 2d.	30 Groshen	= A Florin 1s. 2d.	90 Groshen	= * A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	108 Groshen	= An Albertus 4s. 2d.	64 Whitens	= A Copper Plate Dollar 5s.
= A Rixmarc 11d. 1/3	24 Skillings	= A Rix-ort 1s. 1d. 1/2	4 Marcs	= A Crown 3s.	6 Marcs	= A Rix-dollar 4s. 6d.	11 Marcs	= A Ducat 8s. 3d.	14 Marcs	= A Hatt Ducat 10s. 6d.
= A Silver Marc 4d. 1/2	4 Copper Marcs	= A Copper Dollar 6d.	9 Copper Marcs	= A Caroline 1s. 2d.	3 Copper Dollars	= A Silver Dollar 1s. 6d. 1/2	3 Silver Dollars	= A Rix-dollar 4s. 8d.	2 Rix-dollars	= A Ducat 9s. 3d.
= An Altin 1d. 1/3	10 Copecs	= A Grievener 5d. 1/2	25 Copecs	= Polpotin 1s. 1d. 1/2	50 Copecs	= A Poltin 2s. 3d.	100 Copecs	= A Ruble 4s. 6d.	2 Rubles	= A Xervonitz 9s.
= * A Sol 1d. 1/2	15 Fenings	= A good Batzen 2d. 1/2	18 Fenings	= A good Batzen 2d. 1/2	20 Sols	= * A Livre 2s. 6d.	60 Cruitzers	= A Gulden 2s. 6d.	108 Cruitzers	= A Rix-dollar 4s. 6d.
= * A Sol 1d. 1/2	4 Cruitzers	= A good Batzen 2d. 1/2	5 Cruitzers	= A good Batzen 2d. 1/2	20 Sols	= * A Livre 2s. 6d.	60 Cruitzers	= A Gould 2s. 6d.	102 Cruitzers	= A Rix-dollar 4s. 3d.
= A Plapert 1d. 1/3	5 Cruitzers	= A Gros 2d.	6 Cruitzers	= A Batzen 2d. 1/2	20 Sols	= * A Livre 2s.	75 Cruitzers	= A Gulden 2s. 6d.	135 Cruitzers	= A Crown 4s. 6d.
= A Sol current 3	12 small Sols	= * A Florin 1s.	20 Sols current	= * A Livre cur- 1s.	10 1/2 Florins	= A Patacon 1s.	15 1/2 Florins	= A Croisade 1s.	24 Florins	= A Ducat

EUROPE. Southern Parts. ITALY. ASIA. MOGUL. AMERICA. AFRIC.

LAPLAND { Thoin, &c.		1 Polufca	=	1 Denusca	=	1 Copec	=	1 Altin	10 Co
RUSSIA and { Petersburg, Archangel, &c.		1 Polufca	=	1 Denusca	=	1 Copec	=	1 Altin	10 Co
MOSCOVY { Moscow, &c.		1 Polufca	=	1 Denusca	=	1 Copec	=	1 Altin	10 Co
SWITZERLAND. { BASIL, ZURIC, Zug, &c.		1 Rap	=	1 Fening	=	1 Cruitzer	=	1 Sol	15 Fen
ST. GALL, Appenfel, &c.		1 Heller	=	1 Fening	=	1 Cruitzer	=	1 Sol	4 Cru
BERN, LUCERN, Neufchatel, &c.		1 Denier	=	1 Cruitzer	=	1 Sol	=	1 Playert	5 Cru
GENEVA, Pekay, Bonne,		1 Denier	=	1 Denier current	=	1 Small Sol	=	1 Sol current	12 fua
FRANCE and NAVARRE { Lille, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.		1 Denier	=	1 Sol	=	1 Petard	=	1 Piette	20
Dunkirk, St. Omer's, St. Quentin, &c.		1 Denier	=	1 Sol	=	1 Petard	=	1 Piette	20 S
Paris, Lyons, Marfeilles, &c.		1 Denier	=	1 Liard	=	1 Dardene	=	1 Sol	20
Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.		1 Denier	=	1 Liard	=	1 Dardene	=	1 Sol	20
PORTUGAL, Lisbon, Oporto, &c.		1 Re	=	1 Half Vintin	=	1 Vintin	=	1 Testoon	4 Te
SPAIN and CATALONIA. { Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c.		1 Maravedie	=	1 Quartil	=	1 Rial	=	1 Pitarine	8 R
New Plate,		1 Maravedie	=	1 Quartil	=	1 Rial	=	1 Pitarine	8 R
Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c.		1 Maravedie	=	1 An Ochavo	=	1 Quartil	=	1 Rial Velon	15 R
Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Valencia, &c.		1 Maravedie	=	1 Soldo	=	1 Rial old Plate	=	1 Libra	24 S
GENOA, Novi, St. Remo, &c.		1 Denari	=	1 Soldi	=	1 Chevalet	=	1 Lire	30 S
CORSIKA, Baſtia, &c.		1 Denari	=	1 Soldi	=	1 Chevalet	=	1 Lire	30 S
PIEDMONT, SAVOY, and SARDINIA { Turin, Chambery & Cagliari, &c.		1 Denari	=	1 Quatrini	=	1 Soldi	=	1 Florin	20 S
MILAN, MODENA, PARMA, Pavia, &c.		1 Denari	=	1 Quatrini	=	1 Soldi	=	1 Lire	115 S
LEGHORN, FLORENCE, &c.		1 Denari	=	1 Quatrini	=	1 Soldi	=	1 Craca	8 Cr
ROME, Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.		1 Quatrini	=	1 Bayoc	=	1 Julio	=	1 Stamp Julio	24 Ba
NAPLES, Gaicta, Capua, &c.		1 Quatrini	=	1 Grain	=	1 Carlin	=	1 Paulo	20 Gr
SICILY and MALTA, Palermo, Meſſina, &c.		1 Pichili	=	1 Grain	=	1 Ponti	=	1 Carlin	20 G
BOLOGNA, Ravenna, &c.		1 Quatrini	=	1 Bayoc	=	1 Julio	=	1 Lire	3 J
VENICE, Bergham, &c.		1 Picoli	=	1 Soldi	=	1 Gros	=	1 Jule	20 S
TURKEY, MOREA, CANDIA, CYPRUS, &c.		1 Mangar	=	1 An Aſper	=	1 Parac	=	1 Beltic	10 A
ARABIA, Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.		1 Carret	=	1 Caveer	=	1 Comathee	=	1 Larin	18 Co
PERSIA, Iſpahan, Ormus, Gombrun, &c.		1 Coz	=	1 Bithi	=	1 Shahee	=	1 Mamooda	25
MOGUL. { GUZZURAT, Surat, Cambay, &c.		1 Pecka	=	1 Pice	=	1 Fanam	=	1 Viz.	16
MALABAR { Bombay, Dabul, &c.		1 Budbrook	=	1 Re	=	1 Pice	=	1 Larce	20
Goa, Viſapour, &c.		1 Re	=	1 Bazaraco	=	1 Pecka	=	1 Vintin	4 V
COROMANDEL, Madraſs, Pondicherry, &c.		1 Caſh	=	1 Viz.	=	1 Pice	=	1 Pical	8
BENGAL, Callicut, Fort William, &c.		1 Pice	=	1 Panam	=	1 Viz.	=	1 An Ana	10
SIAM, PEGU, MALACCA, CAMBODIA, SUMATRA, JAVA, BORNEO, &c.		1 Cori	=	1 Fettee	=	1 Sateleer	=	1 Sooco	500
CHINA, Pekin, Canton, &c.		1 Caxa	=	1 Candereen	=	1 Mace	=	1 Rupee	2 R
JAPAN, Jeddo, Mecco, &c.		1 Piti	=	1 Mace	=	1 Ounce Silver	=	1 Tale	30
AFRICA. { EGYPT, Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.		1 Aſper	=	1 Medin	=	1 Ital. Ducat	=	1 Piaſtre	30
BARBARY, ALGIER, TUNIS, TRIPOLY, Una, &c.		1 Aſper	=	1 Medin	=	1 Rial old Plate	=	1 Double	4 I
MOROCCO, Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangiers, Sallee, &c.		1 Fluce	=	1 Blanquill	=	1 An Ounce	=	1 An Oſtavo	14 F
WEST INDIES. { ENGLISH, JAMAICA, BARBADOES, &c.		1 Halfpenny	=	1 Penny	=	1 Bit	=	1 Shilling	75
FRENCH, St. DOMINGO, MARTINICO, &c.		1 Half-Sol	=	1 Sol	=	1 Half-Scalin	=	1 Scalin	2
CONTINENT. { ENGLISH, NOVA SCOTIA, NEW-ENGLAND, VIRGINIA, &c.		1 Penny	=	1 Shilling	=	1 Pound	=	1 Pound	3 Pounds
CANADA, FLORIDA, CAYENA, &c.		1 Denier	=	1 Sol	=	1 Livre	=	1 Livre	3 Livres

Note, For all the Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Dutch and Daniſh Dominions, either on the Continent or in the W

4d.	10 Copecs	=	A Conevener	25 Copecs	=	Polpotin	50 Copecs	=	15. Cd.	100 Copecs	=	4r. 8d.	2 Rubles	=	9r. 3d.
An Altin	15 Fenings	=	A Conne Batzen	18 Fenings	=	A good Batzen	20 Sols	=	A Livre	60 Cruitzers	=	A Gulden	108 Cruitzers	=	A Rix-dollar
A Sol	4 Cruitzers	=	A Conne Batzen	5 Cruitzers	=	A good Batzen	20 Sols	=	A Livre	60 Cruitzers	=	A Gould	102 Cruitzers	=	A Rix-dollar
A Sol	5 Cruitzers	=	A Gros	6 Cruitzers	=	A Batzen	20 Sols	=	A Livre	75 Cruitzers	=	A Gulden	135 Cruitzers	=	A Crown
A Sol current	12 small Sols	=	A Florin	20 Sols current	=	A Livre cur-	10 1/2 Florins	=	A Patacon	15 1/2 Florins	=	A Croifade	24 Florins	=	A Ducat
A Piette	20 Sols	=	A Livre Tour-	20 Petards	=	A Florin	60 Sols	=	An Ecu of Ex.	10 1/4 Livres	=	A Ducat	24 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or
A Piette	20 Sols	=	A Livre Tour-	3 Livres	=	An Ecu of Ex.	24 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or	24 Livres	=	A Guinea	30 1/2 Livres	=	A Moeda
A Sol	20 Sols	=	A Livre Tour-	60 Sols	=	An Ecu of Ex.	6 Livres	=	An Ecu	10 Livres	=	A Pitole	24 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or
A Testoon	4 Testoons	=	A Croifade of	24 Vintins	=	A new Croifade	10 Testoons	=	A Milre	48 Testoons	=	A Moeda	64 Testoons	=	A Joaneſe
A Pitairine	8 Rials	=	A Piastre of	10 Rials	=	A Dollar	375 Maravedies	=	A Ducat of Ex.	32 Rials	=	A Pitole of	36 Rials	=	A Pitole
A Rial Vclon	15 Rials	=	A Piastre of	5 1/2 Maravedies	=	A Piastre	60 Rials	=	A Pitole of	20 1/2 Maravedies	=	A Pitole of Ex.	70 Rials	=	A Pitole
A Libra	24 Soldos	=	A Ducat	16 Soldos	=	A Dollar	22 Soldos	=	A Ducat	21 Soldos	=	A Ducat	60 Soldos	=	A Pitole
A Lire	30 Soldi	=	A Testoon	5 Livres	=	A Croifade	115 Soldi	=	A Pezzo of	6 Testoons	=	A Genuine	20 Livres	=	A Pitole
A Florin	20 Soldi	=	A Lire	6 Florins	=	A Scudi	7 Florins	=	A Ducatoon	13 Livres	=	A Pitole	16 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or
A Lire	115 Soldi	=	A Scudi cur-	117 Soldi	=	A Scudi of	6 Livres	=	A Philip	22 Livres	=	A Pitole	23 Livres	=	A Spaniſh Pitole
A Craca	8 Cracas	=	A Quilo	20 Soldi	=	A Lire	6 Livres	=	A Piastre of	7 1/2 Livres	=	A Ducat	22 Livres	=	A Pitole
A Stamp Julio	24 Bayocs	=	A Testoon	10 Julios	=	A Crown cur-	12 Julios	=	A Crown	18 Julios	=	A Chequin	31 Julios	=	A Pitole
A Paulo	20 Grains	=	A Tarin	40 Grains	=	A Testoon	100 Grains	=	A Ducat of	23 Tarins	=	A Pitole	25 Tarins	=	A Spaniſh Pitole
A Carlin	20 Grains	=	A Tarin	6 Tarins	=	A Florin of	13 Tarins	=	A Ducat of	60 Carlins	=	An Ounce	2 Ounces	=	A Pitole
A Lire	3 Julios	=	A Testoon	85 Bayocs	=	A Scudi of	105 Bayocs	=	A Ducatoon	100 Bayocs	=	A Crown	31 Julios	=	A Pitole
A Jule	20 Soldi	=	A Lire	3 Jules	=	A Testoon	124 Soldi	=	A Ducat cur-	24 Gros	=	A Ducat of	17 Livres	=	A Chequin
A Bellic	10 Aſpers	=	An Otic	20 Aſpers	=	A Solota	80 Aſpers	=	A Piastre	100 Aſpers	=	A Caragrouch	10 Solotas	=	A Xeriff
A Larin	18 Comaſhees	=	An Abyſs	60 Comaſhees	=	A Piastre	80 Caveers	=	A Dollar	100 Comaſhees	=	A Sequin	80 Larins	=	A Tomond
A Mamooda	25 Coz	=	A Larin	4 Shahees	=	An Abaſhee	5 Abaſhees	=	An Or	12 Abaſhees	=	A Bovello	50 Abaſhees	=	A Tomond
A Viz.	16 Pices	=	An Ana	4 Anas	=	A Rupee	2 Rupees	=	An Eng. Crown	14 Anas	=	A Pagoda	4 Pagodas	=	A Gold Rupee
A Laree	20 Pices	=	A Quarter	240 Rez	=	A Xeraphim	4 Quarters	=	A Rupee	14 Quarters	=	A Pagoda	60 Quarters	=	A Gold Rupee
A Vintin	4 Vintins	=	A Laree	3 Larees	=	A Xeraphim	42 Vintins	=	A Tangu	4 Tangu	=	A Paru	8 Tangu	=	A Gold Rupee
A Pical	8 Pices	=	A Fanam	10 Fanams	=	A Rupee	7 Rupees	=	An Eng. Crown	36 Fanams	=	A Pagoda	4 Pagodas	=	A Gold Rupee
An Ana	10 Anas	=	A Fiano	16 Anas	=	A Rupee	2 Rupees	=	A French Ecu	2 Rupees	=	An Eng. Crown	56 Anas	=	A Pagoda
A Sooco	500 Fettees	=	A Tatal	1000 Fettees	=	A Dollar	2 Ticals	=	A Rial	4 Soocos	=	An Ecu	8 Satecleers	=	A Crown
A Rupee	2 Rupers	=	A Dollar	70 Candereens	=	A Rix-dollar	7 Maces	=	An Ecu	2 Rupees	=	A Crown	10 Maces	=	A Tale
A Tale	30 Maces	=	An Ingot	13 Ounces Silver	=	An Ounce Gold	2 Ounces Gold	=	A Japanefe	2 Japanefe	=	A Double	21 Ounces Gold	=	A Catec
A Piastre	30 Medins	=	A Dollar	96 Aſpers	=	An Ecu	32 Medins	=	A Crown	200 Aſpers	=	A Sultanin	70 Medins	=	A Pargo Dol-
A Double	4 Doubles	=	A Dollar	24 Medins	=	A Silver Che-	30 Medins	=	A Dollar	180 Aſpers	=	A Sequin	15 Doubles	=	A Pitole
An Octavo	14 Blanquils	=	A quarto	2 Quartos	=	A Medio	28 Blanquils	=	A Dollar	54 Blanquils	=	A Xequin	100 Blanquils	=	A Pitole
A Shilling	75 Pence	=	A Dollar	7 Shillings	=	A Crown	20 Shillings	=	A Pound	24 Shillings	=	A Pitole	30 Shillings	=	A Guinea
A Scalin	20 Sols	=	A Livre	7 Livres	=	A Dollar	8 Livres	=	An Ecu	26 Livres	=	A Pitole	32 Livres	=	A Louis d'O
3 Pounds	4 Pounds	=	5 Pounds	6 Pounds	=	7 Pounds	8 Pounds	=	9 Pounds	10 Pounds	=	* For one Pound Sterling			
3 Livres	4 Livres	=	5 Livres	6 Livres	=	7 Livres	8 Livres	=	9 Livres	10 Livres	=	* For one Livre Tournoi			
the Continent or in the WEST-INDIES, for the Monies of the reſpective Nations.															

